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EXAMINING POLICE REFORMS IN NEW JERSEY: IMPACTS ON OFFICER ATTITUDES AND SELF-REPORTED BEHAVIOR

First Final Report

FINAL REPORT 1 OF 3

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ABOUT NPI

The National Policing Institute (NPI) is an independent, nonpartisan, and nonprofit research and training institute committed to addressing policing's most complex challenges through evidence-informed, innovative solutions. By translating research and lessons learned into practice, NPI assists law enforcement organizations in adopting and adapting the most effective programs, resources, and tools available to serve their communities. Learn more at www.policinginstitute.org.

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Examining Police Reforms in New Jersey: Impacts on Officer Attitudes and Self-Reported Behavior

Final Report 1 of 3

National Policing Institute

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In recent years, highly publicized incidents of officer use of fatal force against Black community members have resulted in renewed calls for social justice and police reform. Policymakers and legislatures have responded by implementing reform measures designed to decrease the frequency and severity of police use of force (see National Conference of State Legislatures, 2024; Council on Criminal Justice, 2021). Despite the rapid adoption of reform efforts, such as changes to use of force training and policies, little is known about the effectiveness of these types of reform on enhancing interactions between police officers and community members (Engel et al., 2020a, 2020b; Lum et al., 2016). As such, evaluations of changes to use of force policies and training are greatly needed to provide the field with important information on the effectiveness of commonly recommended police reform measures.

The New Jersey Office of the Attorney General (NJOAG) announced plans in December 2020 to implement a comprehensive reform package designed to reduce police use of force. The package included changes to statewide use of force policy, the implementation of mandatory use of force training, and the collection and publication of use of force data (*New Jersey AG Directive 2020-13*). Following this announcement, the NJOAG engaged our research team in 2021 to conduct a multi-year, mixed-method evaluation of their police reform package. This evaluation involved multiple design elements, including (1) a repeated measures survey designed to assess changes in officers' knowledge and attitudes following use of force training, (2) state- and county-level analyses of administrative and qualitative data to examine the impact of reform efforts on officer and agency outcomes, such as the frequency and severity of use of force by officers, racial and ethnic disparities in use of force incidents, and injuries to officers and community members, and (3) in-depth analyses with a small number of case study agencies to consider the implementation of reform and impact on police use of force.

This report is the first in a series describing the results of an evaluation of the implementation and impact of New Jersey's police reform efforts. Specifically, this report explores research questions related to three categories of outcomes that help understand the impact of participation in de-escalation and peer intervention trainings, including (1) general training receptivity, (2) training effects on officers' attitudes and perceptions, and (3) training effects on officers' self-reported behaviors. It documents the methodology and presents the findings from an analysis of officer surveys

administered immediately before, immediately after, and one and two years after officers' participation in training in de-escalation (Integrating Communications, Assessment, and Tactics or ICAT) and peer intervention (Active Bystandership for Law Enforcement or ABLE). A repeated measures survey design was used to examine officers' receptivity to use of force training, knowledge attainment, and changes in attitudes, perceptions, and self-reported behavior following participation in ICAT and ABLE training. Results indicate that ICAT and ABLE were received positively by officers who, in turn, perceived strong support from their supervisors and commanders. Furthermore, officers reported significant changes in attitudes and perceptions that aligned with the goals of both ICAT and ABLE training programs, including those related to use of force, interactions with persons in crisis, police misconduct, and active bystandership.

NEW JERSEY USE OF FORCE REDUCTION INITIATIVE

In December 2020, the New Jersey Office of the Attorney General announced a major statewide police reform package designed to reduce police use of force that included three major components: (1) changes to statewide use of force policy, (2) mandatory use of force training for all sworn law enforcement officers—de-escalation (ICAT) and peer intervention (ABLE) training, and (3) collecting and publishing uniform, comprehensive data around police use of force (*New Jersey AG Directive 2020-13*). Changes to the statewide use of force policy were enacted on December 31, 2021, and are outlined in Section IV, Methodology. For instance, the policy stipulates "Force shall only be used as a last resort when necessary to accomplish lawful objectives that cannot reasonably be achieved through verbal commands, critical decision making, tactical deployment or de-escalation techniques" (NJOAG, 2022, pg. ii).

In addition, the NJOAG mandated specific data collection on police use of force incidents and the publication of these data on a publicly accessible online dashboard. Specifically, officers are required to submit a uniform detailed use of force report to a statewide centralized platform within 24 hours of a use of force incident. This report includes many contextual variables, such as the use of de-escalation tactics, that traditionally have not been captured in use of force reports. Additionally, agencies must analyze their use of force data on an annual basis to examine trends in their data, including racial disparities, and submit these analyses to their county prosecutor for review.

Finally, all New Jersey law enforcement officers were mandated to participate in two training programs on peer intervention (ABLE) and de-escalation (ICAT) by September 31, 2022. ABLE training was developed by Georgetown University and partners and is an eight-hour course designed around the science of active bystandership. This program

teaches officers skills to intervene with and accept intervention from peer officers and supervisors to avoid mistakes, prevent misconduct, and promote officer health and wellness. ICAT training was developed by the Police Executive Research Forum and is a 12-hour training course that is designed to provide officers with the skills to defuse potentially volatile interactions. ICAT uses the Critical Decision-Making Model as a framework for officer responses to community members, emphasizing the consideration of police powers, proportionality when responding, and the importance of continuous assessment of the effectiveness of their response.

Law enforcement agencies in 21 counties and three statewide agencies (New Jersey State Police, New Jersey Transit Police Department, and Rutgers University Police Department) were responsible for planning and implementing ICAT and ABLE training. An ICAT/ABLE coordinator was selected for each county and agency. The coordinator was responsible for scheduling, coordinating, and managing the training programs and ensuring every municipal and county law enforcement officer within their jurisdiction completed the training. The research team collected monthly training rosters from September 2021 to April 2023. The final counts indicate that 29,474 officers completed ABLE and 29,225 officers completed ICAT, resulting in training compliance percentages of 94.6% and 93.8%, respectively.

METHODOLOGY

This report is the first in a series that describes research findings from a larger evaluation of police reform in New Jersey. The full evaluation includes several research methodologies and forms of data collection, involving over 500 police departments representing over 31,000 sworn officers. Table 3 in Section IV, Methodology contains the complete list of data sources and their policy and research relevance to the full evaluation. This first report in the series details the findings from step one: an evaluation of ICAT and ABLE training using a repeated measures survey design.

Specifically, six surveys were developed to assess the impact of ICAT and ABLE training on officers' (1) receptivity to training; (2) perceptions and attitudes related to use of force, officer misconduct, and persons in crisis; (3) self-reported confidence in, and experiences with, applying skills and tactics; (4) views on the reinforcement and support of training; and (5) self-reported behaviors. These surveys included pre- and post-ABLE training and pre- and post-ICAT training instruments, as well as combined ABLE/ICAT follow-up instruments administered approximately one year and two years following training implementation. The count of survey responses ranged from 12,623 to 17,036

officer responses—the highest volume of officer-level responses captured in scholarly research known to this research team.

Administration of the ICAT and ABLE pre- and post-training surveys began in August and September 2021, respectively, and continued through December 2022. Invitations to participate in follow-up training surveys were sent to officers in five counties in New Jersey. The first follow-up survey was administered approximately one year after training rosters from these counties indicated most officers were trained in both ICAT and ABLE (February/March 2023). The second follow-up survey was administered approximately one year after the first follow-up survey (February/March 2024). Despite repeated efforts to encourage officer participation, response rates to the follow-up surveys were quite low. The research team received only 593 responses (8.2% response rate) to the one-year follow-up training survey and 213 responses (2.9% response rate) to the two-year follow-up training survey.

A total of nine research questions—covering focal areas of training receptivity, training effects on officers' attitudes and perceptions, and training effects on officers' self-reported behaviors—are examined in Section IV, Methodology. Analyses of officer training survey data to assess the research questions included the following:

- Descriptive analyses of survey items presented in a single wave of measurement
- Independent *t*-test comparisons of survey items presented across the two waves of measurement
- Chi-squared (χ^2) analyses for comparisons
- One-way analysis-of-variance (ANOVA) models for comparison of survey items measured across three waves of measurement

IMMEDIATE IMPACT OF ICAT TRAINING ON OFFICER ATTITUDES

To measure the immediate impacts of ICAT training, two surveys were administered to officers immediately before and after participation in ICAT (pre- and post-training survey). The training surveys included questions grouped within nine different conceptual areas: (1) Views on Citizen Interactions, (2) Interactions with Persons in Crisis, (3) Attitudes Toward Use of Force, (4) Views on Policing, (5) Encounters with Persons in Crisis, (6) Utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM), (7) General Perceptions to Training, (8) ICAT Training Program Receptivity, and (9) Demographics. In total, 17,036 pre-training (60% response rate) and 14,638 post-training (51% response rate) surveys were collected.

Pre-Training Views on Policing: On the pre-training survey, 15 survey items were used to assess officers' views on the role of the police and their perspectives about their peers and agency. Prior to participating in ICAT training, officers reported high levels of agreement that their roles involved activities consistent with community-oriented policing principles. However, 42% had views that the enforcement of the law was the most important responsibility of patrol officers, and 39% agreed that their primary responsibility as a police officer is to fight crime. Notably, more than one-third of officers (37%) agreed or strongly agreed that the jurisdiction they work in is dangerous and 71% agreed that there is a good chance they could be assaulted while on the job.

Pre-Training Officer Self-Reported Actions During Encounters with Persons in Crisis: Officers were asked six questions about how often they engaged in ICAT-related actions during encounters with persons in crisis[1] on the pre-training survey. More than half of the officers surveyed indicated that they usually or always engage in actions that align with tenets and tactics taught in ICAT when responding to a person in crisis (PIC). For instance, these actions include changing their approach with a PIC after determining prior approaches are ineffective (53% usually, 29% always), establishing a backup plan when responding to PIC (41% usually, 24% always), and assigning contact and cover roles (41% usually, 24% always). Notably, only 17% to 29% indicated that they *always* engage in these activities.

Officer Reactions to the ICAT Training: On the post-training survey, there were seven questions about officers' perceptions of the ICAT training program, including the content, delivery, and perceived outcomes. Overall, ICAT training was positively received by most law enforcement officers in New Jersey. Specifically, 88% of officers reported ICAT training was useful to them, 83% reported the training taught them new things, 88% expressed satisfaction with the training, and 86% suggested they would recommend the training to others. A main component of ICAT training is the CDM, which is a framework that guides officers during their encounters with members of the public. On the post-training survey, an overwhelming majority of officers indicated the CDM was a valuable tool—at least 85% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with each of the 11 statements assessing their views on the utility of the CDM. Of note, 21% reported they agreed that the CDM may make officers hesitate to take action when needed, compared to 51% of responding officers who disagreed with this statement.

Due to the demonstrated importance of training receptivity on changing behavior (Chung et al., 2022; Engel et al., 2021; Wolfe et al., 2022), we examined differences in

[1] Based on the ICAT curriculum, a person in crisis refers to an individual that may be behaving erratically due to factors such as mental health concerns, substance use, situational stress, and/or intellectual and developmental disabilities.

ICAT training receptivity using an additive scale across different groups of officers. Female officers and nonwhite officers reported greater receptivity to the ICAT training and greater perceptions of the utility of the CDM than male officers and White officers. Additionally, less tenured officers (≤ 9 years on the job) were more receptive to ICAT and reported greater perceived utility of the CDM compared to their more tenured counterparts (≥ 10 years on the job), and patrol officers were more receptive and reported greater perceptions of CDM utility than non-patrol officers.

Differences in Views on Community Interactions from Pre-Training to Post-Training: Both pre- and post-training surveys included seven survey items designed to assess officers' general views on citizen interactions, including issues of officer safety and de-escalation. From pre- to post-training, all survey items were statistically significantly different in the expected direction. For example, officers reported significantly greater agreement on the post-training survey that they have considerable ability to control the nature of community member interactions to create positive outcomes and officers can be trained to increase the likelihood of positive encounters with the public. In total, the additive *Views on Community Member Interactions Scale* demonstrates that the overall responses reported in the post-training survey were statistically significantly more aligned with the tenets of ICAT training than responses in the pre-training survey.

Differences in Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis from Pre-Training to Post-Training: Officers' attitudes toward interactions with persons in crisis were measured using 14 survey items on both pre- and post-training survey items. All survey items, except for Item 14 (which states responding to a person in crisis *should not be* a role of the police), were statistically significantly different from pre-training to post-training. Examining the summed *Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis Scale,* the post-training responses are statistically significantly more aligned with ICAT training tenets than the pre-training responses. In short, officers were found to report greater understanding and acceptance of persons in crisis after their completion of ICAT training.

Differences in Attitudes Toward Use of Force from Pre-Training to Post-Training: Included in pre- and post-training surveys, 11 items were included to measure officers' attitudes toward using force, including their preference for using force and communication skills. A significant difference between pre-training and post-training scores were found for 10 of the 11 survey items, and all but Item 1 (Officers are not allowed to use as much force as is necessary to make suspects comply) were in the expected direction. Overall, there is a statistically significant difference in the pre-training to post-training summed *Attitudes Toward Use of Force Scale* scores that is in line

with the expected changes from the ICAT training. These findings suggest that officers are less likely to view the use of force as necessary after participating in ICAT training.

In summary, officers reported significant changes in their attitudes and perceptions across most survey items and scale measures, such as views on interactions with persons in crisis and attitudes towards use of force, that align with the tenets of ICAT training. These findings suggest ICAT training can have a significant immediate impact on officers' attitudes. However, it is important to examine if these changes are maintained in the months after training and how this may translate to behavior in the field.

LONG-TERM ICAT IMPACTS ON OFFICER ATTITUDES, REACTIONS, AND USE OF SKILLS

Our research team administered two follow-up surveys approximately one year (Feb/March 2023) and two years after most officers participated in ICAT training (Feb/March 2024) to measure the longer-term impacts of ICAT training on officers' attitudes, reactions to the training, and self-reported behavior. The follow-up surveys included questions related to ICAT that were grouped into five different conceptual areas: (1) Utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM), (2) Encounters with Persons in Crisis, (3) Follow-Up Reactions to ICAT Training, (4) Use and Reinforcement of ICAT Skills, and (5) Demographics. We received 593 one-year follow-up surveys (8.2% response rate) and 213 two-year follow-up surveys (2.9% response rate) from officers across five counties in New Jersey.

Officer Perceptions of the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM): To measure officers' perceptions of the utility of the CDM, 11 survey items were included in post-training and follow-up training surveys. Officers' reported perceptions of the CDM were significantly higher immediately after the ICAT training (post-training survey) than one year and two years after the training. Still, the majority of respondents at each wave of the survey agreed that the CDM was useful. In short, even though the perceived utility of the CDM lessened over time, many officers continued to have positive views of its usefulness.

Differences in Encounters with Persons in Crisis: Across the pre-, post-, and follow-up training surveys, officers were asked how often they engage in various de-escalation actions and tactics when encountering a person in crisis using six survey items. Five of the six items were found to have mean differences in the pre-training and follow-up surveys that reached statistical significance). Responding officers in the follow-up surveys—especially the two-year follow-up survey—self-reported more frequent use of

de-escalation actions and tactics when compared to officers' self-reported use of de-escalation obtained prior to the ICAT training. Additionally, when examining results from the summed *Encounters with Persons in Crisis Scale*, officers responding to the two-year follow-up survey reported the greatest frequency of engaging in de-escalation actions, followed by officers responding to the one-year follow-up survey, and then the pre-training survey. Altogether, the findings indicate that ICAT-trained officers are more likely to use de-escalation tactics and skills during encounters with persons in crisis and that self-reported use of de-escalation increases over time.

Long-Term Reactions to the ICAT Training: Both follow-up training surveys used 10 survey items to assess officers' perceptions of the ICAT training program. Overall, the results indicate that officers continue to agree that the training is useful for one to two years after participating in ICAT training. For instance, most officers agreed or strongly agreed that strategies taught in ICAT are useful (67% for one-year and 69% for two-year follow-up surveys). Furthermore, the majority of officers reported perceived support for ICAT training from their command staff (75% and 74%) and immediate supervisor (74% and 75%) and, to a lesser extent, their peer officers (64% and 67%). Although many officers agree that ICAT is useful, there was less agreement that the training impacted the nature of their interactions with community members. For example, only a slight majority of responding officers agreed the training improved their interactions with persons in crisis (51% and 59%), improved police-community relations (48% and 58%), or that training has made them more likely to consider less-lethal options (48% and 53%). Furthermore, more than one-third of officers agreed they would benefit from a refresher course (36% and 37%). There were no significant differences between the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys on individual survey items or the additive measure.

Use and Reinforcement of ICAT Skills: Officers were asked about the reinforcement of ICAT training by their immediate supervisors and their self-reported behavior on both follow-up surveys. When asked about the frequency of supervisor reinforcement of ICAT training in the previous 60 days, the majority of respondents in both follow-up surveys indicated their immediate supervisors seldom (once per month) or never reinforced ICAT training (57% in the one-year and 52% in the two-year follow-up surveys). Of those who indicated their supervisor reinforced ICAT at least seldomly, the most common time ICAT was reinforced was during conversations with responding officers (45% and 43%), followed by during roll call (28% of respondents across surveys), and during the respondent's monthly review (13% and 22%).

When asked about how often they used specific types of ICAT skills in the previous 60 days (i.e., the CDM, communication skills, reaction gap strategy, and tactical pause strategy), the most frequently used skill was the reaction gap strategy followed by

communication skills, tactical pause, and the CDM. Overall, the majority of officers reported either *never* or *seldom* using ICAT skills. Notably, however, non-patrol officers—officers with fewer opportunities to use these skills in their work—were overrepresented among the follow-up survey respondents. As such, the lower use of reported ICAT skills could be related to the makeup of the follow-up sample. Furthermore, of officers who indicated they have responded to a person in crisis since ICAT, approximately 80% and 87% of responding officers indicated they used ICAT strategies in their response.

IMMEDIATE IMPACTS OF ABLE TRAINING ON OFFICER ATTITUDES

To measure the immediate impacts of ABLE training on officer attitudes, surveys were administered to officers immediately before and after participation in ABLE training. The surveys included questions grouped into nine conceptual areas: (1) Prior Intervention Activity, (2) Perceptions of Police Misconduct, (3) Attitudes Toward Active Bystandership, (4) General Perceptions of Agency, (5) Active Bystandership within Agency, (6) Likelihood of Peer Intervention, (7) ABLE Skill Application, (8) ABLE Training Program Receptivity, and (9) Demographics. In total, 15,142 pre-training (53% response rate) and 12,623 post-training surveys (44% response rate) were collected.

Pre-Training General Perceptions of Agency: On the pre-training survey, officers were asked about their department's stance on police misbehavior and willingness to support officer health and wellness, as well as their personal satisfaction with their department using seven survey items. Overall, officers generally reported positive views of their agency. For instance, 80% of officers indicated satisfaction with the agency they work for. Officers also expressed general beliefs about the capacity of agency leadership and effective supervision to prevent police officers' abuse of authority.

Pre-Training Active Bystandership within Agency: The pre-training survey included six items about support for active bystandership within their agency, perceived repercussions for intervening to prevent misconduct or mistakes, and knowledge of where to go with ethical concerns. The majority of responding officers agreed that their department's culture encourages active bystandership (60% of officers strongly agreed/agreed) and that negative repercussions would not be faced if an officer intervened with a colleague (69% strongly agreed/agreed). Overall, officers perceived great support for active bystandership within their agencies.

Pre-Training Prior Intervention Activity: Officers were asked if they had engaged in any intervention activity with other officers during the past three months. An

intervention was defined as an action taken to prevent, reduce, or stop harm. An intervention could be verbal, nonverbal (e.g., gesture), or physical and could be subtle or obvious. On the pre-training survey, officers reported that intervention of any kind, including experiences where they personally intervened with a colleague and when a colleague intervened with them, was quite rare. The most common type of intervention reported by officers was intervening to prevent a mistake by a colleague (30%) and intervening to protect a colleague's health and wellbeing (21%). Notably fewer officers reported instances where a colleague intervened on their behalf. For example, only 15% of officers reported a colleague intervening with them to prevent a work-related mistake.

ABLE Training Program Receptivity: Officers were asked to provide their agreement to seven statements related to their perceptions of the delivery and value of ABLE training. The majority of officers were highly receptive to the training, with 88% of officers expressing satisfaction with the training and 85% recommending the training to others. In examining differences in officers' receptivity to ABLE training using an additive training receptivity scale, female, Non-White, less-tenured officers, and patrol officers were more receptive to the training than their male, White, more-tenured, and non-patrol counterparts.

Officer Confidence in ABLE Skill Acquisition: On the post-training survey, seven survey items were used to measure officers' confidence in applying the skills taught in ABLE training, such as the use of quality/tactical breathing techniques, the ability to recognize the need and timing for intervention with colleagues, and noticing excessive stress in self and others. Overall, officers were overwhelmingly confident in their ability to use the seven ABLE skills referenced in the post-training survey, with more than 86% of surveyed officers reporting they were either "confident" or "very confident" in their ability to use each skill.

Differences in Perceptions of Police Misconduct from Pre- to Post-Training: The pre- and post-training surveys included 14 survey items designed to measure officers' perceptions related to officer mistakes, misconduct, and health and wellness. All 14 survey items achieved statistically significant differences between pre- and post-training scores in the expected direction. When examining differences in the additive *Perceptions of Police Misconduct Scale*, officers' overall perceptions of police misconduct after ABLE training were significantly more aligned with the training tenets than before the training. In short, these findings suggest ABLE training can impact officers' perceptions about their ability to impact police mistakes, misconduct, and well-being.

Differences in Attitudes Toward Active Bystandership from Pre- to Post-Training: Pre- and post-training surveys included 21 survey items to assess officer attitudes

related to ABLE. There were statistically significant differences from the pre-training to post-training on all but one of the 21 items, and all were in the expected direction based on the ABLE training curriculum. In addition, the summed *Officer Attitudes Towards Bystander Intervention Scale* demonstrates a statistically significant difference where officers reported attitudes that were more aligned with the tenets of ABLE training in the post-training survey.

Changes in the Likelihood of Peer Intervention within Agencies from Pre- to Post-Training: Seven survey items were included on the pre- and post-training surveys to measure officers' perceptions of the likelihood of different peer intervention situations occurring in their agency. All seven items were significantly different from pre- to post-training. The additive *Likelihood of Peer Intervention Scale* was, on average, greater at post-training than pre-training, suggesting that officers believed peer intervention was more likely to occur in their agency after ABLE training than before the training.

In summary, findings from analyses of pre- and post-training officer surveys showed several positive and significant differences in reported attitudes that aligned with the tenets of ABLE training, suggesting the training can greatly impact officer attitudes. However, these findings represent the immediate reactions and attitudinal changes following ABLE training, and it is important to assess if these positive changes are maintained over time.

LONG-TERM ABLE IMPACTS ON OFFICER ATTITUDES, PERCEPTIONS, AND SKILL USE

To assess the long-term impacts of ABLE training, the research team administered two follow-up surveys to officers—a one-year follow-up survey administered approximately one year after most officers completed ABLE training (Feb/March 2023) and a two-year follow-up survey administered approximately two years after most officers completed the training (Feb/March 2024). The surveys included questions related to the ABLE training that were grouped within six different conceptual areas: (1) Prior Intervention Activity, (2) Likelihood of Peer Intervention, (3) ABLE Skill Application, (4) Follow-Up Reactions to ABLE Training, (5) Use and Reinforcement of ABLE Skills, and (6) Demographics. In total, 593 one-year follow-up surveys (8% response rate) and 213 two-year follow-up surveys (3% response rate) were collected.

Differences in Officer Confidence in ABLE Skill Use from Post-Training to Follow-Up: Seven items within the post-training and follow-up training surveys were designed to assess officers' self-reported confidence in using skills taught in the ABLE curriculum.

The findings suggest that officers maintained high levels of confidence in their ability to apply ABLE skills one and two years after training, even though their confidence decreased slightly over time. There were some inconsistencies in the findings for individual survey item differences across the post-training and follow-up training surveys based on the type of analysis (i.e., one-way ANOVA and non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* test). Using the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test, three survey items were significantly different across the three waves, with officers reporting greater confidence on the one-year follow-up than responding officers on the post-training survey. However, when reviewing the composite *Confidence in ABLE Skills Scale,* there were no statistically meaningful changes across the waves of the survey.

Differences in Likelihood of Peer Intervention within Agency Across Pre-, Post-, and Follow-Up Training Surveys: Seven survey items were included in all survey waves to assess officers' perceptions of the likelihood of different peer intervention-related situations occurring in their agency. Six of the seven items were found to have a mean difference in the pre-training and follow-up surveys that reached statistical significance, where officers noted a greater likelihood of peer intervention over time. When analyzing differences across the three waves using the additive scale, the respondents to the one-year follow-up survey indicated the greatest likelihood of peer intervention, followed by the respondents to the two-year follow-up. These results suggest that the officers may perceive a greater likelihood of peer intervention occurring within their agency over time.

Differences in Self-Reported Active Bystandership and Peer Intervention from Pre-Training to Follow-Up: Officers were asked about their involvement in active bystandership and peer intervention in the past three months using nine survey items on the pre-training and two follow-up surveys. Across all three survey waves, peer intervention activities were relatively limited, with the most common intervention activities in all three surveys being the use of a quality/tactical breath or other self-calming technique while on duty, intervening to prevent a mistake by a colleague, and telling a partner in the field about how best to intervene with you if necessary. The average number of intervention activities officers reported in the three months prior to the pre-training survey was 1.83. Officers reported an average of 1.46 activities in the three months preceding the one-year follow-up survey and 1.87 activities in the three months prior to the two-year follow-up survey. In a comparison of responses across surveys, the prevalence of peer intervention activity was statistically significantly different across the three surveys for six of the nine activities. In most cases, the observed difference was due to fewer peer intervention activities being reported in the one-year follow-up survey. This finding—of less intervention activity being reported in

the one-year follow-up—was also observed in comparisons of the additive scale. It should be noted that the limited use of intervention activities does not necessarily indicate the limited utility of ABLE training because engaging in intervention activities requires the *need for intervention* and may vary based on officers' assignment.

Long-Term Reactions to the ABLE Training: Both follow-up surveys included 12 survey items that asked officers about their perceptions of the impact of ABLE training on their work. Overall, results demonstrate that officers continue to feel—approximately one to two years after their participation—that ABLE is a useful training. For instance, the majority of officers in both follow-up surveys agreed or strongly agreed that ABLE strategies are useful (77% and 78% for one-year and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively) and that they would recommend the training to other officers (76% and 79%). Officers also perceived much support for ABLE training from their command staff (79% and 81%), immediate supervisor (79% and 79%), and peer officers (71% and 65%). While officers agree that ABLE is a good training, there was less agreement that the training improved skill development. For example, only a near-majority or slight majority of responding officers agreed the training made them more likely to consider intervening with their colleagues (64% and 55%), improved their ability to prevent colleagues from causing harm or making mistakes (60% and 54%), or helped improve police-community relations (62% and 50%). Nevertheless, around one-third of officers believed they would benefit from a refresher course (40% and 32%). Furthermore, there were statistically significant differences between the two follow-up surveys for six of the 12 items, with responses from the two-year follow-up period more favorable than responses from the one-year follow-up.

Use and Reinforcement of ICAT Skills: On both follow-up surveys, officers were asked about their immediate supervisors' reinforcement and application of ABLE training in the prior 60 days. A near-majority of respondents in both follow-up surveys indicated this happened seldom (once per month) or never (49% and 46% in the one- and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively). Of those who indicated their supervisor reinforced ABLE training at least seldomly, the most common times supervisors reinforced the training were during a direct conversation with the responding officers (44% and 42%) and during post-incident reviews (42% and 48%). Reinforcement during roll call (24% and 26%) and during the responding officer's monthly review (11% and 18%) were less common.

In addition, officers were asked to report their use of ABLE skills during the prior 60 days on both follow-up training surveys. Approximately 10% of the one-year follow-up survey respondents and 15% of the two-year follow-up survey respondents indicated they had applied strategies from the ABLE training in their work within the last 60 days. Yet reporting of the "Often" or "Frequent" use of specific ABLE skills was quite low, and the

majority of officers reported either never or seldomly using such skills. Again, the low frequency of the use of ABLE skills does not necessarily indicate the training is not useful but rather may be related to an officer's assignment and the availability of opportunities to intervene.

DISCUSSION

This report describes the findings from surveys administered to law enforcement officers across the state of New Jersey immediately before, immediately after, and one and two years after the implementation of de-escalation training (ICAT) and peer intervention training (ABLE). This study provides important information to the field as this is one of the first studies to gather feedback from law enforcement officers across an entire state and is one of the first independent evaluations of ABLE and the first statewide evaluation of ICAT training. Additionally, this study employs one- and two-year follow-up periods to provide a longer examination of lasting impacts compared to most studies of police training programs.

Notably, ICAT and ABLE training programs, while mandated by the state, were still received very positively by officers who, in turn, perceived great support for these programs from their commanders and supervisors. Analyses demonstrate that officers showed small but statistically significant shifts in attitudes and perceptions that were aligned with the goals of the ABLE and ICAT programs, including those around the use of force, interactions with persons in crisis, police misconduct, and active bystandership. Given that the state-mandated training occurred during a time when the policing profession experienced substantial criticism from the entire country, we might expect officers to be skeptical of the training. Instead, we found the training was well received and, in fact, resulted in changes in the expected directions.

Table 1 summarizes the analyses of composite scale measures across certain waves of the survey. Several items achieved statistical increases as expected, but some changes were not anticipated, such as the reductions in the perceived utility of the CDM and reduction in intervention activities over time.

Table 1. Summary of Composite Measure Comparisons

Composite Measure		Pre to Post	Pre to 1Year	Pre to 2 year	Post to 1 Year	Post to 2 Year	1 Year to 2Year
ICAT	Views on Citizen Interactions Scale*	+					
	Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis Scale*	+					
	Attitudes Towards Use of Force Scale*	+					
	Encounters with Persons in Crisis Index		+	+			+
	Utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model Scale				-	-	+
	Experiences with ICAT Training Scale						NS
ABLE	Perceptions of Police Misconduct Scale*	+					
	Attitudes Towards Bystander Intervention Scale*	+					
	Intervention Activity Scale		-	NS			+
	Likelihood of Peer Intervention Scale	+	+	+			NS
	Confidence in ABLE Skills Scale				NS	NS	NS
	Experiences with ABLE Training Scale						+

*Only measured in the pre-training and post-training surveys.

+ = significant increase; - = significant decrease; **NS** = non-significant change.

Recommendations

The current study highlights several vital takeaways that can be used to make recommendations for the New Jersey Office of the Attorney General (NJOAG), law enforcement agencies, and researchers. Specific recommendations are highlighted below:

Recommendation 1: Law enforcement agencies and the NJOAG should support efforts that encourage a culture where training and skill practice, including integrating new training programs, is perceived as beneficial. This includes a top-down approach to emphasizing the benefits of training to line-level officers, especially before training implementation. We further recommend that agency personnel clearly explain to officers why they are being asked to participate in training ahead of their attendance at the training. This can mitigate reluctance and or cynicism among officers who may not understand why they must participate in the training or even what they are participating in.

Recommendation 2: Research suggests that police organization structures impact how officers learn and apply skills in their daily lives. Future research should consider how individual police agency cultures hinder or enhance the principles of ICAT and ABLE training. Given the wide variety of police departments across the state, it is very likely that some departments apply ICAT and ABLE training skills differently.

Recommendation 3: The NJOAG should develop recommendations for law enforcement across the state regarding refresher training focused on the principles of ICAT and ABLE programs. The NJOAG should identify an annual (at a minimum) refresher program or establish standards that focus on reinforcing principles through dedicated skill practice. This will help ensure that this is a systematic process for refresher trainings across the state, allowing for continued training.

Recommendation 4: Additional research should examine the optimal training dosage to ensure training skills are regularly used by officers. This includes the initial dosage of the first training delivery and the optimal length and dose of refresher training. While an annual refresher is recommended to reduce training decay, this assumption should be tested and compared with other lengths of time.

Recommendation 5: Law enforcement agencies should encourage their field supervisors to meaningfully and continually reinforce ICAT and ABLE principles during conversations, roll calls, and incident debriefs. Supervisors who actively use

and promote de-escalation and peer intervention skills and principles are likely to have officers who also emulate these behaviors. In general, supervisors should seek to reinforce to officers the use of these principles and skills across all community interactions, emphasizing how these enhance officers' own safety and wellness.

Recommendation 6: Researchers should directly measure and test the impacts of differing amounts of supervising reinforcement of ICAT and ABLE principles on officers' attitudes and behaviors in the field. Research should also seek to uncover the ways in which officers may model the behavior of supervisors who actively use de-escalation and peer intervention.

Recommendation 7: The NJOAG and law enforcement agencies should encourage additional evaluation of the effects of the ICAT and ABLE within their departments. This research should examine the impact of training on officers' behavior, organizational culture, and community-police relations. While the NJOAG intended ICAT and ABLE training to be delivered in a standardized format, there are likely agency-level differences related to delivery, dosage, supervision, and managerial oversight, which also require testing to identify what maximizes their impact.

Conclusion and Next Steps

The findings from the surveys—the first step in the evaluation of New Jersey's reform package—demonstrate the positive impacts of mandatory de-escalation and peer intervention training on officer attitudes and shed light on how officers self-report applying skills from what they have learned. As we continue to assess the impact of the NJOAG's use of force reduction initiative across other outcomes, these initial findings offer promising evidence for the effects of statewide police reform.

The next steps in the evaluation will involve the examination of behavioral outcomes in the field, including changes in officers' use of force, community member injuries, officer injuries, and officer-involved shootings. We will explore differences across the state, counties, and large municipal police agencies in New Jersey. We will also conduct in-depth statistical analyses of the use of force in a few case study police agencies. Finally, we will continue to gather qualitative information through focus groups and interviews that shed light on the impacts of the use of force reduction initiatives as well as lessons learned from this implementation process. Please follow our progress at https://www.policinginstitute.org/projects/new-jersey-evaluate-use-of-force-policies-training/.

I. INTRODUCTION

In December 2020, the New Jersey Office of the Attorney General (NJOAG) announced plans to implement a comprehensive package of police reform policies designed to reduce the frequency and severity of law enforcement officers' use of force in interactions with community members (NJOAG, 2020). Described as "the nation's most ambitious police reform" (Berman, 2020), the package comprised efforts in three primary areas: revisions to statewide use of force policies, the implementation of mandatory use of force training for all sworn law enforcement officers, and the collection and publication of use of force data by all law enforcement agencies (*New Jersey AG Directive 2020-13*).

The NJOAG package is one example of police reform introduced in the wake of highly publicized incidents of officer use of fatal force against Black community members across the United States. Fueled by civil unrest and calls for social justice, policymakers and legislatures have rapidly implemented reform measures designed to reduce instances of excessive force and enhance the safety and effectiveness of police interactions with community members (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2024; Council on Criminal Justice, 2021). Empirical research, however, has not kept pace with the rapid adoption of many police reforms. For example, despite widespread implementation and support of changes to police use of force policies and training, very little is known about the effectiveness of these types of reforms on police interactions (Engel et al., 2020a, 2020b; Lum et al., 2016). The dearth of evidence surrounding these often-called-upon police reforms emphasizes the need for evaluations conducted in real-time with agencies pioneering change in the field. In short, comprehensive evaluations documenting the implementation and impact of police reform efforts can provide essential information to build the evidence base and provide lessons learned to guide the field.

In 2021, the NJOAG engaged our research team to collaborate in a multi-year, multi-method evaluation of their police reform package. This evaluation involves multiple design elements, including (1) a repeated measures survey designed to assess changes in officers' knowledge and attitudes following use of force training; (2) state- and county-level analyses of administrative and qualitative data to examine the impact of reform efforts on officer and agency outcomes, such as the frequency and severity of use of force by officers, racial and ethnic disparities in use of force incidents, and injuries to officers and community members; and (3) in-depth analyses with a small

number of case study agencies to consider the implementation of reform and impact on police use of force. Collectively, this evaluation represents the most extensive study of police use of force reform, highlighting the experiences of over 500 police departments and 31,000 sworn officers in New Jersey (estimates as of December 2023; NJOAG, 2024).

This report is the first in a series describing the results of the evaluation. It presents findings from the analysis of officer surveys administered immediately before, immediately after, and one to two years following officers' participation in training in both de-escalation (Integrating Communications, Assessment, and Tactics or ICAT) and peer intervention (Active Bystandership for Law Enforcement or ABLE). The surveys support the examination of officers' receptivity to use of force training, knowledge attainment, and changes in self-reported attitudes, perceptions, and behavior following their participation in the ICAT and ABLE training programs. The findings show that the ICAT and ABLE training programs, while mandated by the state, were still received very positively by officers who, in turn, perceived strong support for these programs from their commanders and supervisors. Analyses demonstrate that officers showed statistically significant shifts in attitudes and perceptions that were aligned with the goals of the ABLE and ICAT programs, including those around the use of force, interactions with persons in crisis, police misconduct, and active bystandership.

Notably, the high volume of responses to the surveys—particularly the pre- and post-training surveys for both ICAT and ABLE training (ranging from 12,623 to 17,036 responses)—underscore the robustness of the survey findings and alignment with the attitudes and perceptions of sworn law enforcement officers across the state of New Jersey. To date, no empirical evaluation has reported findings from such a high volume of survey responses from officers.

This report is organized as follows:

- Section I, Introduction, gives an overview of this report.
- Section II, Literature Review, summarizes research about the impact of ICAT and ABLE training in policing.
- Section III, New Jersey Use of Force Reduction Initiative, describes the police reforms implemented as part of the New Jersey Use of Force Reduction Initiative, including descriptions of the ICAT and ABLE training.
- Section IV, Methodology, summarizes the data sources and their relevance for the full evaluation of New Jersey's police use of force reforms. It also presents the details for the surveys involved in this first step in the evaluation, i.e., the repeated measures, survey design, and analytic plan used to examine the impact of ICAT and

ABLE training on officers' knowledge, attitudes, perceptions, and self-reported behaviors.

- Section V, Immediate Impact of ICAT Training on Officer Attitudes, presents findings from the pre- and post-ICAT training surveys, identifying the immediate effects of ICAT training on officers' knowledge, attitudes, and self-reported behaviors.
- Section VI, Long-Term ICAT Impacts on Officer Attitudes, Reactions, and Use of Skills, presents findings from the follow-up ICAT training surveys (implemented one-year and two-years post-training), exploring the longer-term effects of ICAT training on officers' attitudes, perceptions, and self-reported use of ICAT skills.
- Section VII, Immediate Impacts of ABLE Training on Officer Attitudes, presents findings from the pre- and post-ABLE training surveys, identifying the immediate effects of ABLE training on officers' knowledge, attitudes, and self-reported behaviors.
- Section VIII, Long-Term ABLE Impacts on Officer Attitudes, Perceptions, and Skill Use, presents findings from the follow-up ABLE training surveys (implemented one-year and two-years post-training), exploring the longer-term effects of ABLE training on officers' attitudes, perceptions, and self-reported use of ABLE skills.
- Section IX, Discussion, offers an overview of the primary findings and recommendations for future evaluation and practice in New Jersey and beyond.

The analysis of the survey data demonstrate the positive impacts of mandatory training on officers' attitudes and shed light on how officers self-report applying skills from what they have learned. Altogether, these findings offer promising evidence of the effects of statewide police reform.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A defining element of the police profession is the authority of officers to use force to manage the situations they encounter in their day-to-day work (Bittner, 1974; Fyfe, 1988). Police "use of force" is generally defined as an action by officers that threatens, attempts, or involves physical methods to compel compliance from a person (Garner et al., 1995; Henriquez, 1999). As this definition implies, use of force can involve a wide range of actions spanning from verbal commands to lower levels of physical force to deadly force (e.g., use of a firearm), depending on how it is measured. Research examining police practice finds that use of force is a relatively rare occurrence, with approximately 1–5% of police encounters resulting in a use of force, depending on how force is measured (Garner et al., 2018; Tapp & Davis, 2024). When force is used, research suggests that lower levels of force, such as physical force methods (e.g., takedowns, empty hand-control techniques) are the most common (Garner et al., 2018; Stroshine & Brandl, 2020).

In the wake of highly publicized incidents of police use of deadly force, reform efforts across the United States have emphasized implementing mechanisms to prioritize use of force de-escalation in police encounters and reduce opportunities for the misuse of force by officers. Police training—specifically de-escalation and peer intervention training curricula—is consistently identified as a tool to enhance police responses to community members by reducing the frequency and severity of use of force in their interactions (President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015). However, de-escalation and peer intervention training programs have not been extensively evaluated (Lum et al., 2016). Still, a growing body of research—particularly research examining the impact of police de-escalation training—provides promising findings on the capacity of these training programs to enhance officers' attitudes and reduce behaviors resulting in use of force, injury, and misconduct. This research is described below.

EVALUATIONS OF POLICE DE-ESCALATION TRAINING

Although there is no universally accepted definition, de-escalation typically refers to police officers taking action or communicating (both verbally and nonverbally) to stabilize their encounters with community members and reduce the immediacy of potential threats so that additional time and resources can be used to resolve situations without the use of force or by using the lowest level of force necessary (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 2020). In this vein, de-escalation training aims to provide

officers with the skills and techniques to effectively defuse potential force encounters, reducing the need for use of force and enhancing the safety of everyone involved in the encounter (Giacomantonio et al., 2020).

The evaluation of the impact of de-escalation training in policing is a relatively new topic of study. In 2020, a multi-disciplinary systematic review of de-escalation training evaluations published over a 40-year period (1976–2016) found no evaluations in the criminal justice or policing fields (Engel et al., 2020a). Since 2016, however, researchers have invested time and resources to examine the effects of police de-escalation training. The handful of available studies offer promising findings regarding the training's capacity to enhance officers' attitudes toward de-escalation principles and tactics and, in some instances, reduce incidents of use of force and frequency of injury in police interactions among officers and community members.

Training Impact on Officer Attitudes

De-escalation training has been found to enhance officers' attitudes toward the use of de-escalation tactics and confidence in responding to individuals in crisis in several studies (Engel et al., 2020b; Isaza et al., 2019; Isaza, 2020; White et al., 2021). For instance, Isaza and colleagues found the Police Executive Research Forum's *Integrating Assessment, Communication, and Tactics* (ICAT) training was associated with a significant improvement in University of Cincinnati Police Division officers' attitudes toward the use of force (i.e., de-prioritization of force), understanding of people in crisis, and confidence in interacting with people in crisis (Isaza, 2020; Isaza et al., 2019). Similarly, officers of the Louisville Metro Police Department (LMPD) were found to experience significant positive changes in their views of interactions with the public and attitudes toward the use of force and persons in crisis after ICAT training (Engel et al., 2020b; Engel et al., 2021).

Following a customized de-escalation training in the Tempe (AZ) Police Department, trained officers were found to report placing greater emphasis on compromise to manage interactions and greater use of three de-escalation tactics—compromise, maintaining officer safety, and knowing when to walk away (White et al., 2021). In the Fayetteville (NC) and Tucson (AZ) Police Departments, officers who received social interaction training—*Tact, Tactics, and Trust* (T3)—to support procedural justice and de-escalation in their interactions reported a greater emphasis on procedural justice after the training (McLean et al., 2020). Notably, the dosage and content of the training program affected officers' self-reported outcomes, with low-dose treatment (i.e., three months of T3) resulting in officers reporting improved procedural justice priorities and greater emphasis on maintaining self-control. In contrast, high-dose treatment (i.e., six

months of T3) resulted in officers reporting a de-prioritization of the use of physical control in their interactions. The authors suggested this difference could be attributed to differences in the focus and content of the second half of the training program, with an observed shift from procedurally just communication and self-control in the first three months to physical control in the last three months.

Training Impact on Officer Behavior

The few studies that have examined the impact of de-escalation training on officer behavior have primarily examined use of force and injury outcomes. For example, Engel and colleagues (2020b, 2022a) evaluated the impact of ICAT training within the LMPD using a modified randomized control trial (RCT). In this study, ICAT training was observed to be associated with significant declines in officer use of force (–28.1%), citizen injuries (–26.3%), and officer injuries (–36.0%). This study provided the first evidence of the capacity of de-escalation training to impact officer behavior. Other evaluations, however, offer mixed findings. Specifically, across studies, researchers have observed no significant training effects on officers' use of force (McLean et al., 2020), reductions in only certain types of force (White et al., 2023b), or different findings based on the type of analysis used to examine the use of force (Goh, 2021).

In an RCT evaluating the T3 training program in the Fayetteville (NC) and Tucson (AZ) Police Departments, researchers found no changes in use of force incidents that could be attributed to training (McLean et al., 2020). In a separate RCT, White and colleagues (2023b) observed no effect of customized de-escalation training on the overall prevalence of use of force in the Tempe (AZ) Police Department. However, trained officers decreased their use of certain types of force that were likely to produce injury (i.e., strikes, takedowns). Additionally, officers who received de-escalation training were found to spend more time and be less likely to injure community members in their encounters.

In an evaluation of ICAT training in the Camden County (NJ) Police Department (CCPD), Goh (2021) observed a 40% decrease in overall serious use of force incidents during the five-year study period. However, significant training effects on use of force were not found when examined at the officer level. Although Goh (2021) confirmed the decrease in overall serious use of force was unique to the CCPD (i.e., not experienced by other similarly-situated New Jersey police agencies during the study period), initial reductions in use of force were observed in the CCPD prior to the implementation of ICAT training. This decline was attributed to ongoing reform efforts affecting the policies and practices of the department, making the training effects on use of force less clear.

In addition to use of force and injury, several researchers have examined the impact of training on officers' use of de-escalation tactics. For example, Giacomantonio and colleagues (2020) observed Halifax (Canada) officers increase their use of de-escalation tactics (five of 15 tactics examined) in simulated scenarios following Verbal Judo training. Although promising, the researchers noted observed changes were more common for less complex tactics (e.g., identifying oneself, avoiding excessive repetition). In the Tempe (AZ) Police Department, White and colleagues (2023a) found that officers who received de-escalation training engaged in a larger number of de-escalation tactics and procedural justice actions than officers who did not receive de-escalation training. Specifically, in a review of body-worn camera footage, trained officers were more likely to attempt to build rapport with a community member, less likely to use a condescending tone, more likely to resolve the encounter informally, less likely to use imposing body language, and more likely to transfer control to another officer, if necessary. Community members reported significantly greater de-escalation, emotional regulation, and procedural justice by trained officers and greater satisfaction with how they were treated during the interaction and how the situation was resolved.

EVALUATIONS OF PEER INTERVENTION TRAINING

Mandating departments to include a "duty to intervene" policy is a common reform that has been widely adopted by police departments to prevent officer misconduct, particularly related to excessive force (Council on Criminal Justice, 2021). These policies require officers to intervene when they witness their colleagues engage in unlawful and inappropriate behavior. To complement these policies, proponents of this reform highlight the need for training on peer intervention (or active bystandership) to provide officers with the skills needed to successfully intervene in problematic situations (Taniguchi et al., 2022). This type of training supports officers in recognizing harmful situations where intervention is needed, acknowledging the responsibility to act, and effectively intervening (Aronie & Lopez, 2017; Taniguchi et al., 2022).

Although active bystandership training has long been provided in other contexts (e.g., sexual assault and bullying prevention, as well as reducing mistakes in the aviation and medical industries), this training has only recently been offered to police officers (Aronie & Lopez, 2017; Taniguchi et al., 2022). In 2015, the New Orleans Police Department implemented the Ethical Policing is Courageous (EPIC) program—a one-day department-wide peer intervention training to teach officers skills to effectively intervene to prevent misconduct, avoid mistakes, and promote officer wellness. Building upon the EPIC program, the Innovative Policing Program at Georgetown University Law Center developed the Active Bystandership in Law Enforcement (ABLE) Project to provide

officers with the peer intervention skills to address other officers' problematic behavior, regardless of their rank, to prevent misconduct (Pelfrey, 2023; Taniguchi et al., 2022).

Only a few studies have examined peer intervention training programs for police, mainly examining officers' perceptions of peer intervention training and willingness to intervene (Pelfrey, 2023; Raines & Merenda, 2023; Taniguchi et al., 2022). In the Baltimore (MD) Police Department, officers reported that EPIC training was useful and that they were more likely to intervene in a variety of scenarios (Taniguchi et al., 2022). Officers also reported greater challenges with intervening with supervisors than their peers. In terms of officer behavior, there were no observed training impacts on complaints by community members, officer use of force, and referrals for early intervention, support, and guidance (National Policing Institute, 2022). However, the authors mention that these results should be interpreted with caution due to other factors, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, influencing the outcomes of interest.

In an evaluation of ABLE training in an urban law enforcement agency in the mid-Atlantic region, Pelfrey (2023) found greater support for officer intervention training after ABLE implementation. Furthermore, in the post-training survey implemented one year after the training, 85% of officers indicated that the officer with whom they intervened cooperated with the intervention. Of note, this question was not asked on the pre-training survey, so no comparison can be made in reported cooperation with intervention before and after ABLE training. In another study, officers who received EPIC training reported a greater willingness to intervene with officers who were using excessive force than officers who received standard ethics training in their basic law enforcement training program (Raines & Merenda, 2023). Taken together, results from the few available evaluations suggest peer intervention training can have a positive impact on officers' willingness to intervene when their peers engage in problematic behavior.

In sum, the available research evidence suggests that de-escalation and peer intervention training can have promising effects on police officers' attitudes and behaviors. The limited number of studies and the substantial variation in the available evaluations (e.g., training under study, research design employed) and the findings they report, however, highlight the importance of additional investments in research examining training effects. The present study aims to increase the evidence around the impacts of de-escalation and peer intervention training by employing a series of methods and data sources to detect training and policy impacts across and within an entire state, representing over 500 police agencies. The following sections of this report will begin unpacking some of these important findings.

III. NEW JERSEY USE OF FORCE REDUCTION INITIATIVE

It is observed that State Attorneys General can be important agents for police reform and are instrumental to transformations in policing (Mazzone & Rushin, 2020). Leveraging its unilateral authority over law enforcement in the state, in 2020, the New Jersey Office of the Attorney General mandated an overhaul of the state's use of force policies and required retraining of every sworn law enforcement officer to reframe police interactions with community members—specifically prioritizing the protection of the life, liberty, and dignity of community members in every encounter (NJOAG, n.d.; see also *New Jersey AG Directive 2020-13*). Collectively, the work comprising this comprehensive reform initiative aims to reduce the frequency and severity of use of force by all of New Jersey's 31,000 state, county, and local law enforcement officers.

This comprehensive reform package includes three major components: (1) changes to statewide use of force policy; (2) mandatory use of force training for all sworn law enforcement; and (3) collecting and publishing uniform, comprehensive data around police use of force. Notably, the sweeping changes to the statewide use of force policy represented the first significant revisions to the policy in two decades. These revisions were informed by 21 listening sessions held for members of the public by County Prosecutors, the review of hundreds of public comments, and consideration of best practices for police use of force policies. The revised use of force policy, which took effect December 31, 2021, contains the following major changes:[2]

- Prohibiting all forms of physical force against a civilian, except as a last resort and only after the officer attempts to de-escalate the situation and provides the civilian with an opportunity to comply with the officer's instructions.
- Prohibiting all forms of deadly force against a civilian—including chokeholds and strikes to the head or neck—except as an absolute last resort when the officer reasonably believes that such action is immediately necessary to protect the officer or another person from imminent danger of death or serious bodily injury.
- Prohibiting officers from firing weapons at a moving vehicle or engaging in a high-speed car chase, except under narrowly limited circumstances.

[2] Changes pulled directly from https://www.njoag.gov/ag-grewal-overhauls-statewide-police-use-of-force-policies/

- Providing new guidance on the use of less-lethal force as an alternative to deadly force and as a tool for de-escalation.
- Establishing an affirmative "duty to intervene" that requires all officers–regardless of rank, title, or seniority—to intercede if they observe another officer engage in illegal or excessive force against a civilian.
- Establishing an affirmative "duty to provide medical assistance" that requires officers to request—and, where appropriate, personally provide—medical assistance after any use of force against a civilian.

The use of force policy also requires law enforcement agencies to conduct annual analyses of use of force incidents to examine trends, including racial disparities, and submit these analyses to their county prosecutor for review.[3] Although agencies may have their own use of force policy that may be *more* restrictive than the newly established requirements, these individual policies must align with the statewide policy. To educate officers of these changes, all law enforcement were required to complete eight hours of online training specific to the statewide use of force policy.

Also included in this police reform initiative was the implementation of a centralized platform for the submission of use of force reports. Powered by Benchmark Analytics, officers must submit a detailed report about an interaction with the public that resulted in force within 24 hours of the incident. This detailed report is now a uniform form across the state that collects many contextual variables, such as weather conditions and the use of de-escalation tactics, that have not been traditionally captured in force reports. Data from these reports feed into a publicly accessible online dashboard, where users can download the entire dataset. Data captured in this dashboard includes reports from October 1, 2020, through the most recent full month of the year.

The final component of the reform initiative includes the mandatory participation of all sworn law enforcement officers, including correctional officers, in two in-person use of force training programs: ABLE and ICAT. Both are widely recognized use of force training programs, with hundreds of police departments implementing each of these programs.[4]

[3] As part of this work, the NPI created a guide for New Jersey law enforcement, available here: https://www.policinginstitute.org/publication/summarizing-use-of-force-data-for-the-public-a-how-to-guide-for-law-enforcement-in-new-jersey/

[4] https://www.law.georgetown.edu/cics/able/ ; https://www.policeforum.org/icat-training-guide

ABOUT ABLE AND ICAT TRAINING

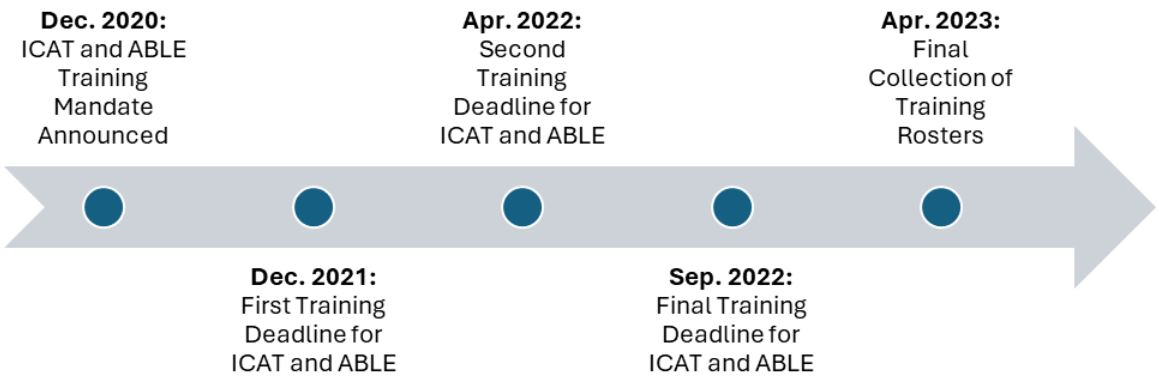
ABLE training, developed by Georgetown University and partners, is an eight-hour, single-day course designed around the science of active bystandership. Often referred to as peer intervention training, this program teaches officers skills to intervene—as well as instruction on the importance of accepting intervention—from peer officers and supervisors to avoid mistakes, prevent misconduct, and promote officer health and wellness. ABLE builds upon the Ethical Policing is Courageous (EPIC) training program developed by the New Orleans Police Department (NOPD).

ICAT training, developed by the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF), is a 12-hour, two-day course designed to provide officers with tools and skills to defuse potentially volatile interactions. PERF developed ICAT with input from hundreds of law enforcement professionals, including a specific focus on how policing is conducted in the United Kingdom, where officers do not have access to firearms. ICAT uses its Critical Decision-Making Model as a framework for officer responses to all encounters with the public, emphasizing the consideration of police powers and response proportionality when responding and the importance of continuous assessment of the effectiveness of their response.

Initially, the NJOAG required that all sworn law enforcement complete both ICAT and ABLE training by December 31, 2021. Due to delays related to the COVID-19 pandemic and other logistics, however, the NJOAG extended this deadline to April 30, 2022 (see *New Jersey AG Directive 2021-7)*. This Directive also required county and statewide ICAT/ABLE coordinators to report on training progress within their respective jurisdictions to the NJOAG's Office of Public Integrity and Accountability (OPIA). After coordinators began updating on progress, the OPIA determined that, although there was substantial compliance towards completing the training, some counties were experiencing delays and would not meet the April 2022 deadline. In May 2022, *New Jersey AG Directive 2022-5* was released, extending the training timeline further to September 30, 2022. However, the state Department of Corrections and all county correctional agencies had a separate extension to December 31, 2022. Training rosters that were collected as part of these efforts were shared with the research team.[5] This timeline is shown in Figure 1.

[5] See Table 2, Training Rosters and Sworn Officer Counts from New Jersey ICAT/ABLE Training Coordinators, as of April 6, 2023.

Figure 1. NJOAG ICAT and ABLE Training Timeline



The plan for implementing ICAT and ABLE training was individually handled by each county (N = 21) or by three select statewide agencies (New Jersey State Police, New Jersey Transit Police Department, and Rutgers University Police Department). An ICAT/ABLE coordinator was selected for each, typically a staff member of the county prosecutor's office or a member of training staff at the statewide agency. This coordinator was responsible for scheduling, coordinating, and managing training programs and ensuring that every municipal and county law enforcement officer within their jurisdiction completed training. The coordinator served as the primary point of contact for the Attorney General's Office.

Coordinators were responsible for ensuring training was delivered as outlined by the NJOAG. A written overview of the statewide requirements of the ABLE and ICAT training delivery was provided to all coordinators. Class sizes for both were capped at 30 students. ICAT and ABLE materials were required to be presented in the same manner they were delivered during the train-the-trainer session—in other words, instructors were not allowed to make significant changes to the original model. The overview also outlined that all law enforcement officers should receive eight hours of ABLE and 12 hours of ICAT.

Coordinators were given discretion in selecting training sites and setting schedules. However, all instructors had to participate in the train-the-trainer programs delivered directly by PERF or Georgetown University. Slots for the ICAT and ABLE instructor courses were allocated to the individual counties or statewide agencies based on the ratio of law enforcement in that jurisdiction compared to the statewide total. Several sessions of train-the-trainer deliveries for ICAT and ABLE were offered in July 2021 and November 2021.

COMPLIANCE WITH TRAINING REQUIREMENTS

In coordination with the NJOAG, the research team collected ICAT and ABLE monthly training rosters from September 2021 to April 2023. As part of this collection, research team members asked training coordinators for the number of trained officers and the total number of sworn officers for each county or agency to calculate the training compliance rate. The final count of officers who completed training, sworn officer counts, and training compliance percentages are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Training Rosters and Sworn Officer Counts from New Jersey ICAT/ABLE Training Coordinators, as of April 6, 2023

County/Agency	ABLE Trained Officers	ICAT Trained Officers	Total Sworn Officers*	ABLE Compliance	ICAT Compliance
Atlantic County	994	991	995	99.9%	99.6%
Bergen County	2,502	2,501	2,872	87.1%	87.1%
Burlington County	968	963	996	97.2%	96.7%
Camden County	1,512	1,365	1,750	86.4%	78.0%
Cape May County	562	562	586	95.9%	95.9%
Cumberland County	379	379	379	100.0%	100.0%
Essex County	2,877	2,871	3,061	94.0%	93.8%
Gloucester County	819	815	819	100.0%	99.5%
Hudson County	2,317	2,263	2,700	85.8%	83.8%
Hunterdon County	259	259	259	100.0%	100.0%
Mercer County	1,046	1,041	1,056	99.1%	98.6%
Middlesex County	1,915	1,916	1,988	96.3%	96.4%
Monmouth County	2,014	1,978	1,930	104.4%	102.5%
Morris County	1,317	1,319	1,320	99.8%	99.9%
Ocean County	1,191	1,198	1,412	84.3%	84.8%
Passaic County	1,801	1,813	1,972	91.3%	91.9%
Salem County	214	204	204	104.9%	100.0%
Somerset County	853	853	853	100.0%	100.0%
Sussex County	303	303	303	100.0%	100.0%
Union County	1,889	1,889	1,939	97.4%	97.4%
Warren County	204	204	204	100.0%	100.0%
NJ State Police	3,116	3,116	3,149	99.0%	99.0%
NJ Transit Police	283	283	283	100.0%	100.0%
Rutgers University Police	139	139	139	100.0%	100.0%
Grand Total	**29,474**	**29,225**	**31,169**	**94.6%**	**93.8%**

* These officer counts should *not* include correctional officers, though we cannot rule that out entirely. We asked coordinators to focus on those officers who were required to be trained by September 2022 based on NJOAG guidance. This excluded correctional officers.

The final counts indicate 29,474 officers completed ABLE and 29,225 officers completed ICAT, resulting in training compliance percentages of 94.6% and 93.8%, respectively. There are several reasons why there may not be 100% compliance for officers trained, including coordinators not receiving all training rosters from within their county, officers in that county being trained in ICAT or ABLE prior to the statewide requirement, officers being out on long-term leave, or officers retiring. Additionally, two counties reported greater than 100% compliance, which may be due to officer attrition after training (either retirement or moving to work elsewhere) or due to the inclusion of correctional officers in training roster counts.

IV. METHODOLOGY

As mentioned above, this report is the first in a series that describes research findings from a larger evaluation of police use of force reform in New Jersey. The full evaluation includes several research methodologies with different forms of data collection and offers one of the most extensive examinations of police reform involving over 500 police departments representing over 31,000 sworn officers.[6] A summary of the ten data sources used for the full evaluation and their policy or research relevance is shown in Table 3. All data collection and related research activities were reviewed and approved by the University of Cincinnati's Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the period of August 2021 to October 2022, followed by the National Policing Institute's IRB from October 2022, forward. **This report is focused on findings from a series of officer surveys (shown in blue in Table 3).** The research questions and data analysis plan used to inform this report are presented below.

Table 3. Data Sources and Relevance for Full Evaluation

Data Source	Research / Policy Relevance
1. Officer Surveys • ICAT Pre-Training Survey • ICAT Post-Training Survey • ABLE Pre-Training Survey • ABLE Post-Training Survey • Follow-Up Survey – ICAT/ABLE Combined • Second Follow-Up Survey – ICAT/ABLE Combined	• Baseline rates of receptivity and reactions to training • Extent of knowledge acquisition after training • Self-reported use of training skills in the field • Influence of supervisory and agency support on reinforcing training principles • Measures of training decay • Comparison across officers, agencies, and counties
2. **Statewide Police Administrative Data**	• Assess changes in these outcomes over time (UOF frequency/severity, racial disparities in UOF, officer and community member injuries) • Identify organizational factors associated with changes
3. **Police Use of Force Policies**	• Identify compliance with state requirements • Identify minor and major agency-specific additions
4. **Community-level Data**	• Baseline/control measures for models

[6] For more details, visit https://osf.io/j84va/?view_only=88d1382c6fe946cf8f600fdfdc220a52

5. Case Study Data*	• In-depth analysis of the extent of changes in force severity, injuries, racial disparities in UOF, internal investigations • Assess factors that predict arrests where force is used; assess changes over time
6. BWC Footage*	• Exploratory development of BWC coding instrument • Identify frequency, context and effectiveness of de-escalation & peer intervention tactics during UOF
7. Semi-Structured Interviews • Interviews with county coordinators • Interviews with AG staff, police executives	• Identify general perspectives of statewide reform, anticipated and unanticipated consequences, and potential impediments of behavioral changes
8. Police Executive Survey	• Police executive views on implementation of reform, impacts of reform, and plans to sustain over time
9. First-Line Supervisor Survey*	• Confidence and frequency in supporting and reinforcing ICAT and ABLE training
10. Focus Groups with Patrol Officers*	• Gather perspectives on use of force, de-escalation, and peer intervention in the field

*Only conducted in the 3 to 5 "case study" law enforcement agencies

RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR OFFICER SURVEYS

The first step in the larger evaluation designed to assess the impact of the mandatory statewide implementation of de-escalation and peer intervention training using multiple waves of repeated measures surveys designed to assess differences in officers' perceptions, attitudes, and self-reported behaviors following their participation in de-escalation (ICAT) and peer intervention (ABLE) training programs. The survey component of the project was designed to address the following research questions:

Training Receptivity

- How receptive are officers to ICAT and ABLE training, and does this vary across officer demographics, departments, and training topics?
- What are the officer perceptions and attitudes regarding the respective training programs one to two years following participation?

Training Effects on Officers' Attitudes and Perceptions

- Does the training change officers' attitudes about the use of force, persons in crisis, police misconduct, and bystander intervention?
- Do changes in officers' attitudes on use of force and bystander intervention vary across officers, departments, and geographic areas?
- Do officers perceive that peers, supervisors, and commanders support the use of de-escalation and peer intervention tactics? Does this change over time?
- From officers' perspectives, how do supervisors reinforce de-escalation and peer intervention?
- Are there differences in officers' self-reported confidence in performing the skills taught in the training curricula?

Training Effects on Officers' Self-Reported Behaviors

- Does the training increase officers' self-reported use of the de-escalation and peer intervention skills and do these self-reported behaviors change over time?
- Do officers report changes in their peers' behaviors following training?

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research team implemented a repeated measures survey design to assess the impact of training on officers' attitudes, perceptions, confidence, and self-reported behaviors. Six surveys were developed to assess the impact of ICAT and ABLE training on officers' (1) receptivity to training, (2) perceptions and attitudes related to use of force, officer misconduct, and persons in crisis, (3) self-reported confidence in and experiences with applying skills and tactics, (4) views on the reinforcement and support of training, and (5) self-reported behaviors. These surveys included pre- and post-ABLE training and pre- and post-ICAT training instruments, as well as combined ABLE/ICAT follow-up instruments administered approximately one year and two years following training implementation. Survey administration was facilitated through web-based questionnaires in Qualtrics.

A QR code to the survey instruments was provided to all officers immediately before and after ABLE and ICAT training.[7] Cooperation from law enforcement instructors in

[7] A small number of counties—Burlington, Camden, Gloucester, Mercer, Middlesex, Passaic, and Salem—used paper surveys for at least a small number of trainings held in early 2021. When training first commenced, coordinators were instructed to use paper surveys for ICAT before the electronic survey was available. Additionally, Somerset county chose to employ only paper surveys for both ICAT and ABLE. All paper surveys were entered into the same survey database as those collected using Qualtrics.

administering the survey while officers were in a training room supported a high response rate to these four surveys. **The count of survey responses ranged from 12,623 to 17,036 officer responses—the highest volume of officer-level responses captured in scholarly research known to this research team.** Importantly, the high volume of responses and corresponding high response rates (Tables 21-23 in Appendix A and 41-43 in Appendix B) underscore the robustness of survey findings and provide confidence that these reflect the true attitudes and perceptions of sworn law enforcement across the state of New Jersey.

ICAT pre- and post-training survey administration began August 11, 2021, and continued through December 31, 2022. In turn, ABLE pre- and post-training survey administration began September 8, 2021, and continued through December 2022. These surveys were administered at the discretion of training instructors.

Invitations to participate in follow-up training surveys were sent by email to officers in a subset of counties in New Jersey.[8] These counties were selected in concert with the NJOAG and included Gloucester, Burlington, Camden, Hudson, and Somerset.[9] Atlantic City Police Department, in Atlantic County, also participated in the follow-up survey. The first follow-up survey was administered about one year after training rosters from these counties indicated most officers were trained in both ICAT and ABLE (February/March 2023), and the second was administered approximately one year after the initial follow-up survey (February/March 2024).[10] Email invitations included an embedded link to a *Qualtrics*-based questionnaire. Despite efforts to encourage officer participation,[11] response rates to the follow-up training survey were quite low. The research team received only 593 responses (8.2% response rate) to the one-year follow-up training survey and 213 responses (2.9% response rate) to the two-year follow-up training survey. The small number of responses reduces confidence that these findings reflect the true perception and attitudes of law enforcement officers across New Jersey.

[8] Due to the perceived difficulty of administering a statewide electronic survey to all officers, we elected to engage in the follow-up surveys in five counties. These counties were selected due to high compliance with the pre- and post-training survey administration and the cooperation of the county coordinator with our research team.

[9] Note that in Somerset and Hudson, the ICAT/ABLE coordinator sent out the link to the follow-up survey on our behalf. In Burlington, Camden, and Gloucester, our research team emailed officers directly; these emails were collected from training rosters sent by the coordinators.

[10] Follow up surveys were administered at a single point in time; therefore, some officers may have had less than one year from their initial training to the first follow-up survey, and some officers may have had more than one year.

[11] Efforts to facilitate survey participation included several mechanisms to raise awareness of the surveys' availability, such as sending email reminders directly to officers, prompting county coordinators to encourage officers to submit responses, and highlighting the research efforts to Chiefs of Police in the respective counties.

Collectively, the repeated measures surveys allow for comparisons of officers' knowledge, attitudes and perceptions, and self-reported behaviors over time. Statistical comparisons of pre-training to post-training survey responses assess differences in responses following officers' participation in the training programs. Additionally, descriptive analysis of the responses to the two follow-up surveys provides insight into training effects over time. Finally, comparisons of the pre- and post-training responses to the follow-up survey responses examine the differences in officer knowledge, attitudes, perceptions, confidence, and skill usage over time.

The majority of survey items included in the instruments were designed to directly measure officers' attitudes and perceptions that might be affected by their participation in a de-escalation and/or active bystander training program. To develop the survey instruments, the research team drew upon surveys used in prior research. The ICAT survey items drew heavily on the research team's previous work evaluating ICAT training, borrowing items from survey instruments pilot-tested with the University of Cincinnati (OH) Police Division (Isaza et al., 2020) and fully implemented in research with the Louisville Metro (KY) Police Department (Engel et al., 2020c; Engel et al., 2021a). In turn, the ABLE survey was developed in collaboration with Georgetown University, integrating some items previously used in ABLE training surveys, adapting items from surveys used in sexual assault bystander intervention evaluation (Banyard, 2008; Banyard, et al., 2010), and developing new items based on the ABLE curriculum. Further details on the specific survey items are presented in Sections V-VIII of this report.

ANALYSIS PLAN

The officer training survey data were analyzed using Stata, a general-purpose statistical software program. The statistical approaches used include:

- Descriptive analyses of survey items presented in a single wave of measurement
- Independent *t*-test comparisons of survey items presented across the two waves of measurement
- Chi-squared (χ^2) analyses for comparisons
- One-way analysis-of-variance (ANOVA) models for comparison of survey items measured across three waves of measurement

Independent and paired (or dependent) samples *t*-test comparisons determine whether the mean (average) difference between two sets of observations is zero. The independent *t* test directly compares the means of responses from pre-training to the responses from post-training, treating each sample as separate groups. Through this

method, all obtained responses from all sessions are included. In contrast, the paired-samples *t* test compares within-individual differences between two observations. In this way, it is the more robust method. Yet, given inconsistent reporting of identifying information in the surveys (e.g., agency and badge number), the number of available responses is significantly reduced because pre- and post-training surveys must be matched.[12] Because of this, results obtained from the independent samples *t* tests are used to retain the greatest number of responses. The dependent samples *t*-test results and the corresponding nonparametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test results, however, can be found in Appendix A for ICAT results and Appendix B for ABLE results.

Independent *t* tests are quite robust when assumptions are violated (Agresti et al., 2016). The assumptions that the underlying population distributions are normal and continuous are violated for many of the survey items assessed here, as most questions are ordinally measured using Likert-like scales. Therefore, to test the robustness of the *t* test results, Mann-Whitney *U* tests were also conducted. The Mann-Whitney *U* test is the nonparametric equivalent to the parametric independent *t* tests. As such, fewer assumptions about the underlying population distributions are required.

Chi-squared (χ^2) tests of independence are used to assess statistical differences between two variables that are measured categorically (as opposed to mean scores, where *t* tests are used instead). These are used only to assess changes in self-reported bystander intervention activities.

In comparing more than two sets of observations, parametric one-way ANOVA and nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* test analyses are used. The ANOVA test compares the means of three or more independent groups on a dependent variable (e.g., on an average survey response). The Kruskal-Wallis *H* test produces this same analysis, without assuming normality in responses. Due to the use of Likert scales across most responses, which violate the assumption of normality, both the Kruskal-Wallis H test and Dunn's pairwise comparison test are provided to test the robustness of the results. While nonparametric methods have less statistical power, statisticians have shown that nonparametric tests are nearly as good as their parametric counterparts even when parametric assumptions are met (Agresti et al., 2016). Further, after performing ANOVA

[12] The four pre/post ICAT and ABLE training surveys asked for officer badge numbers so that our research team could match individual responses over time. In analyzing the responses collected, we found less than half of the sample could be matched with confidence. Therefore, we elected to make the one-year and second-year follow-up surveys completely anonymous, hoping this might also boost participation. This made the use of paired sample analysis across waves not possible for the follow-up survey data.

tests, we used post hoc tests to identify which specific groups within the comparisons were significantly different from each other.

Some analyses are conducted on single survey items, whereas others are on composite measures, including scales and indices. The creation of all measures was guided by findings from exploratory factor analyses, with final measures comprised of those individual survey items demonstrating sufficient correlation with one another. Composite measures are created and used by the research team to better measure broad theoretical constructs, such as attitudes and perceptions, because these are complex concepts not well captured using a single survey item. Scales and indices are superior to single items because they generate more sample variability, increase content validity, the reliability of the scale can be measured, and measurement error is assumed to average out when individual scores are summed. We calculate sixteen composite measures. Additive scales are calculated using a numerical value for each participant's responses to a set of single items within each domain and then added together. The resulting sum represents an individual's total score for that construct (e.g., attitudes toward use of force, attitudes towards police misconduct). When scales are used, a reliability coefficient ("Cronbach's alpha") is provided in the Appendix to measure internal consistency among the survey items. One index is created using mean scores for the frequency of skills used during encounters with persons in crisis, showing the combined average for the frequency of using skills. An index measure is used here to make the findings easier to interpret. Table 25 in Appendix A and Table 45 in Appendix B summarize these measures and their reliability scores.

Across different outcome measures, we compare differences in officer demographics, police departments, and geographic regions. Demographic comparisons are made for gender (female vs. male), race (White vs. Nonwhite), law enforcement tenure (≤ 9 years on the job vs. ≥ 10 years on the job), and rank (patrol vs. non-patrol). Demographic information was collected in the pre-training survey only. Therefore, for demographic comparisons, the samples are limited to officer responses matched from pre-training to post-training based on county name, agency name, and officer badge number. The five police departments selected for comparison had the highest counts of sworn officers as of December 31, 2023,[13] and included the New Jersey State Police (3,264 sworn), the Newark Police Department (1,027 sworn), the Jersey City Police Department (913 sworn), the Paterson Police Department (417 sworn), and the Elizabeth Police Department (356 sworn). Finally, all 21 counties in New Jersey were divided into four regions: Central,

[13] 2023 Officer counts retrieved from Police Recruiting Data Dashboard - New Jersey Office of Attorney General (njoag.gov)

North, South, and Shore (see Figure 2).[14] This allows us to compare cultural and geographic differences which may impact policing styles across the state.

*Figure 2. New Jersey County Groupings**

* Source: https://bestofnj.com/features/more/nj-regions/

Sections V through VIII provide details related to the specific survey measures, study samples, and analytic strategies. Results and analyses take into consideration all valid responses to each individual survey item. As such, the total number of responding officers can vary across survey items because some officers may have declined to answer all questions presented in the survey questionnaire. See the series of tables in Appendix A and B for the full findings from all analyses and the exact item phrasing, number of responses, and corresponding scores.

[14] Northern Jersey consists of Bergen, Essex, Hudson, Morris, Passaic, Sussex, and Warren County; Central Jersey consists of Hunterdon, Mercer, Middlesex, Somerset, and Union County. South Jersey includes Burlington, Camden, Cumberland, Gloucester, and Salem County. Shore region includes Atlantic, Cape May, Monmouth, and Ocean County. Source: https://bestofnj.com/features/more/nj-regions/

V. IMMEDIATE IMPACT OF ICAT TRAINING ON OFFICER ATTITUDES

To measure the immediate impacts of ICAT training, two surveys were administered to officers immediately before (pre-training survey) and immediately after (post-training survey) participation in ICAT. Both surveys were administered through a QR code that was linked to a web-based questionnaire in *Qualtrics.* The training surveys included questions grouped within nine different conceptual areas. Many of the items were designed to measure officer attitudes that might be affected by their participation in a use of force training program, while other items capture officer demographics and characteristics. The survey items presented to officers differed across the waves of the training survey. The inclusion of specific items across periods of measurement was determined by the need to collect specific information across multiple points in time, as well as by the desire to shorten the follow-up survey to increase response rates. The nine sections of the officer training surveys include:

- *Views on Citizen Interactions* – Included in pre- and post-training surveys, officers' general views on citizen interactions—including issues of officer safety and de-escalation—were measured using seven survey items. Officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement to each of the seven survey items on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). All items were coded such that higher scores indicate a greater level of agreement with the tenets of ICAT (items that are phrased in a manner that is inconsistent with ICAT tenets have been reverse coded).

- *Interactions with Persons in Crisis* – Included in pre- and post-training surveys, 14 survey items were used to measure officers' attitudes toward interactions with persons in crisis. Based on the ICAT curriculum, a person in crisis refers to an individual who may be behaving erratically due to factors such as mental health concerns, substance use, situational stress, and/or intellectual and developmental disabilities. For each survey item, officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Higher scores indicate a greater level of agreement with the tenets of ICAT.

- *Attitudes Toward Use of Force* – Included in pre- and post-training surveys, 11 items were included to measure officers' attitudes toward using force, including their

preference for using force and communication skills. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement to each item on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Higher scores indicate a greater level of agreement with the tenets of ICAT.

- *Views on Policing* – Included in the pre-training survey only, 15 survey items were used to assess officers' view of the role of police—including the importance of various job duties—and officers' perspectives regarding their peers and agency. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement to each survey item on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree).

- *Encounters with Persons in Crisis* – Included in pre- and post-training surveys, officers were asked to indicate how often they engaged in certain activities when responding to a person in crisis. Six survey items were used to measure how often officers engaged in ICAT-related actions during these encounters. Frequency was measured using a five-point scale, which included never, seldom, half-the-time, usually, and always. Higher scores indicate a greater alignment of self-reported behaviors to the tenets of ICAT.

- *Utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM)* – Included in the post-training survey, 11 survey items were measured to determine the perceived utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM). Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Higher scores indicate officers' greater perceptions of the utility of the CDM.

- *General Perceptions to Training* – Included in pre-training survey, survey respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with seven statements related to training in law enforcement using a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Higher scores indicate a greater openness to training.

- *ICAT Training Program Receptivity* – Included in the post-training survey, officers' perceptions of the ICAT training program—including the content, delivery, and perceived outcomes—were assessed using seven items where respondents indicated their level of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Higher scores indicate greater agreement that ICAT is a beneficial training.

- *Demographics* – Included in the pre-training survey, 11 survey items measured respondents' demographic characteristics, previous experiences with persons in crisis, and participation in specific training in the past 12 months.

In total, 17,036 pre-training and 14,638 post-training surveys were collected.[15] **The response rate for officer training surveys was calculated using the number of officers in attendance based on ICAT training rosters as of December 2022 (28,545 officers), resulting in a response rate of 59.7% for the pre-training survey and 51.3% for the post-training survey.**

DATA ANALYSES

The statistical approach to assess immediate ICAT impacts on officer attitudes includes (1) descriptive analyses of survey items presented in a single wave of measurement (e.g., reactions to ICAT training measured in the post-training survey only) and (2) independent *t*-test comparisons of survey items presented across the two waves of measurement. Independent samples *t* test compares the mean (average) score across two waves of measurement to test for statistically meaningful differences. To test the robustness of the *t*-test results, Mann-Whitney *U* tests are conducted.[16]

Taken together, findings from analyses of the officer training survey data are produced from both descriptive analyses and statistical comparisons of officers' average responses on survey items across the pre-training and post-training surveys. Specifically, statistical comparisons of pre-training to post-training survey responses are intended to examine potential changes in officers' attitudes affected by the ICAT training program. In this report, the research team considers tests with *p*-values lower than the conventional 0.05 level to be statistically meaningful. These differences are denoted in all tables with an asterisk (*) for parametric analyses and a dagger (†) for nonparametric analyses. For figures presenting score comparisons, those that are statistically significant are followed by an asterisk (*).[17]

[15] A breakdown of response counts by county for both surveys can be found in the appendices.

[16] See Section IV, Methodology, for additional information. The Mann-Whitney *U* test is the nonparametric equivalent to the parametric *t* test. As such, fewer assumptions about the underlying population distributions are required.

[17] Figures presenting comparisons using the one-way ANOVA do not include asterisks indicating statistical significance.

OFFICER DEMOGRAPHICS AND BASELINE MEASURES

This section contains descriptive statistics of survey respondents regarding their demographic characteristics and their baseline measures of views of policing prior to participation in the ICAT training. Table 4 presents the characteristics of the officers who completed the ICAT pre-training survey. As shown, these officers were largely male (83.2%), White (66.5%), and served as patrol officers (49.2%). Officers were fairly evenly distributed in age and law enforcement tenure. Almost half (48.2%) had a Bachelor's degree or higher.

When considering prior encounters with civilians in possession of a weapon, 71.5% reported having an encounter with a person with a weapon other than a firearm and 46.8% reported having an encounter with a person with a firearm. Of those who had an encounter with a person with a weapon other than a firearm, 3.1% reported the encounter resulted in deadly force. For encounters with a person in possession of a firearm, 7.0% reported it resulted in deadly force. Finally, attending similar training in the past 12 months was common among officers. In particular, 85.5% reported they attended training for use of force in the past 12 months. Similarly, 78.1% reported receiving training related to handling situations involving individuals with mental illness and 77.4% reported receiving de-escalation training in the past 12 months.

Table 4. Pre-Training Sample Demographics (N = 16,711)

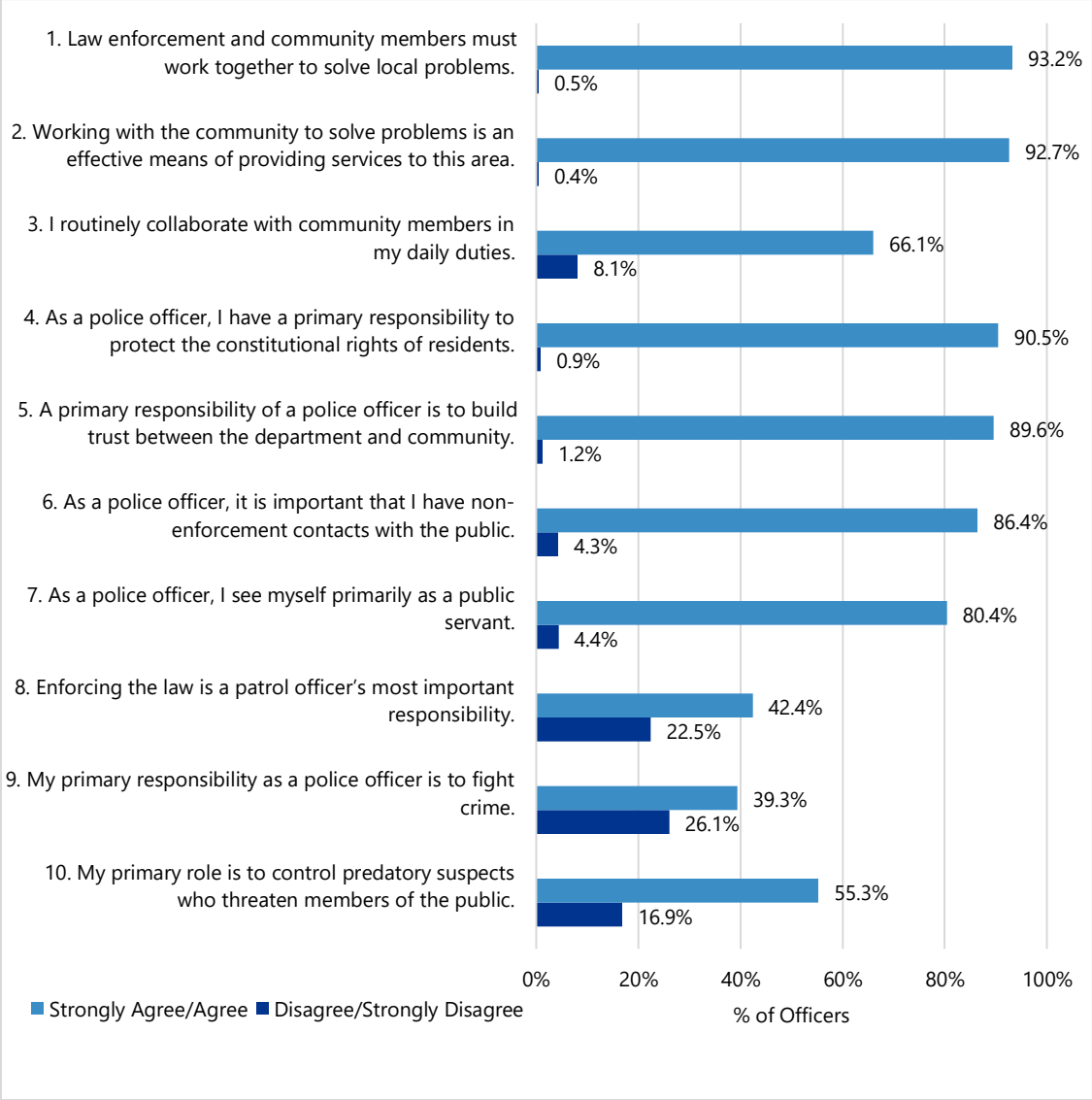
	%	(*n*)		%	(*n*)
Gender			**Rank**		
Male	83.2	(13,988)	Patrol Officer	49.2	(8,229)
Female	9.4	(1,569)	Detective	5.2	(864)
Other	1.2	(201)	Corporal	3.1	(512)
Unknown	6.2	(1,042)	Sergeant	16.2	(2,704)
Age			Lieutenant	5.6	(930)
18 – 20 years old	0.3	(54)	Captain or Above	3.6	(602)
21 – 24 years old	4.3	(721)	Recruit	0.6	(107)
25 – 29 years old	15.7	(2,616)	Civilian	0.1	(11)
30 – 34 years old	18.3	(3,053)	Retired	0.7	(117)
35 – 39 years old	15.9	(2,652)	Other*	9.7	(1,617)
40 – 44 years old	14.9	(2,484)	Unknown	6.1	(1,018)
45 – 49 years old	11.9	(1,989)	**Encounter with Non-Firearm Weapon**		
50+ years old	12.8	(2,145)	Yes	71.5	(11,951)
Unknown	6.0	(997)	No	22.4	(3,742)
Race/Ethnicity			Unknown	6.1	(1,018)
White	66.5	(11,120)	**Resulted in Deadly Force**		
Black	8.5	(1,426)	Yes	3.1	(368)

Latino/Hispanic	12.8	(2,145)	No	96.4	(11,515)
Asian/Pacific Islander	1.5	(256)	Unknown	0.6	(68)
Indian/Middle Eastern	0.5	(82)	**Encounter with Firearm**		
Native American	0.3	(41)	Yes	46.8	(7,821)
Other	3.3	(548)	No	46.9	(7,838)
Unknown	6.5	(1,093)	Unknown	6.3	(1,052)
LE Tenure			**Resulted in Deadly Force**		
Less than 1 year	5.1	(844)	Yes	7.0	(545)
1 – 4 years	16.6	(2,778)	No	92.6	(7,240)
5 – 9 years	21.3	(3,551)	Unknown	0.6	(36)
10 – 14 years	11.5	(1,928)	**Use of Force Training in Past 12 Months**		
15 – 19 years	16.6	(2,781)	Yes	85.5	(14,288)
20 or more years	22.9	(3,830)	No	8.1	(1,353)
Unknown	6.0	(999)	Unknown	6.4	(1,070)
Education			**Training for Situations with Mentally Ill**		
High School	10.0	(1,667)	Yes	78.1	(13,045)
> 2 years college	18.9	(3,164)	No	15.5	(2,585)
Associate's Degree	16.8	(2,807)	Unknown	6.5	(1,081)
Bachelor's Degree	39.5	(6,601)	**De-escalation Training in Past 12 Months**		
Graduate Degree	8.7	(1,458)	Yes	77.4	(12,927)
Unknown	6.1	(1,014)	No	16.2	(2,705)
			Unknown	6.5	(1,079)

* For a list of "other" rank responses, please refer to Appendix A.

Figure 3 and 4 present officers' views on policing obtained from the pre-training survey. Officers' perceptions of the role of the police were prompted, as well as their perceptions of working as a police officer in their agency. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree) to 15 survey items. Figures 3 and 4 display the percentage of officers who indicated they agreed (combines agree and strongly agree) or disagreed (combines disagree and strongly disagree) with each statement (neutral responses are not presented). Figure 3 demonstrates that prior to ICAT training, officers reported high levels of agreement that their roles involved activities consistent with community-oriented policing principles; however, 42.4% had views that the enforcement of the law was the most important responsibility of patrol officers, and 39.3% agreed that their primary responsibility as a police officer is to fight crime.

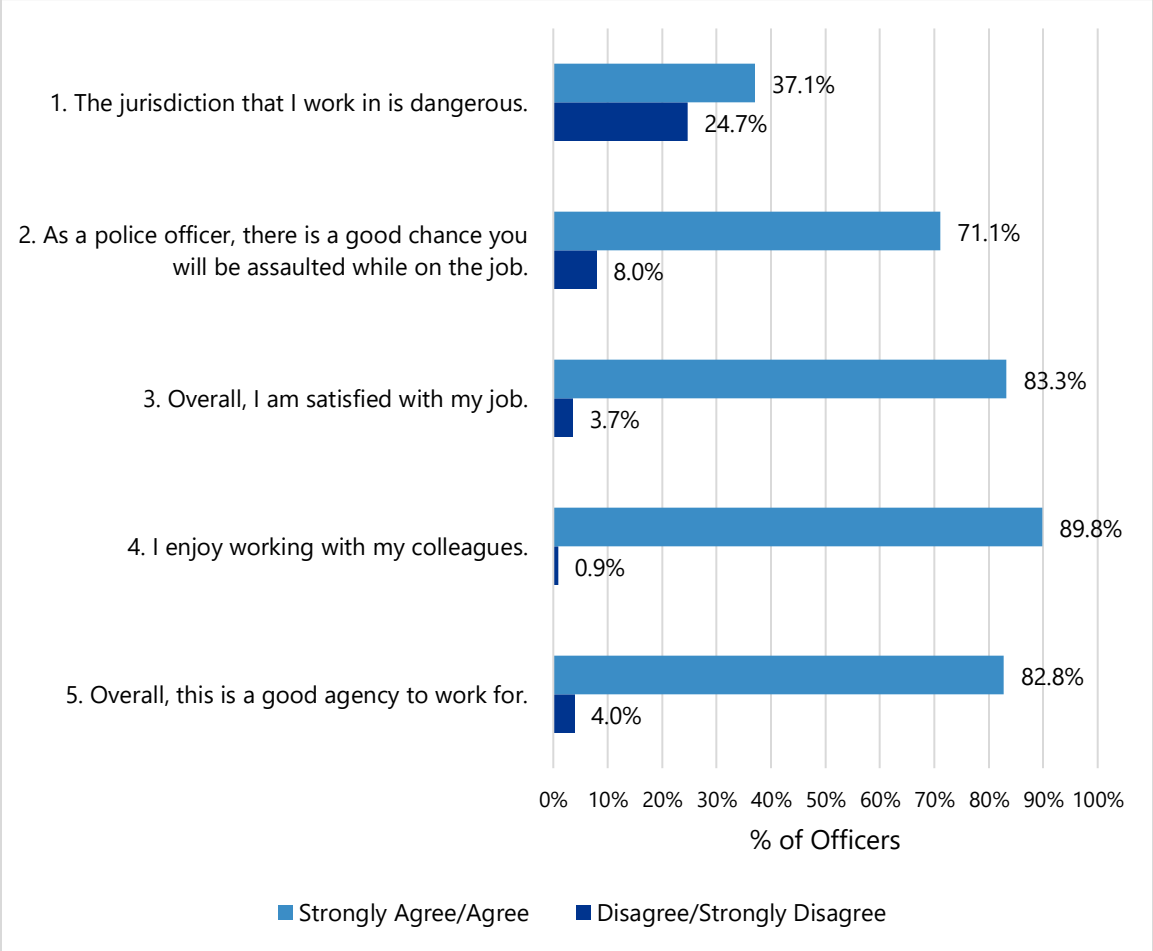
*Figure 3. Pre-Training Views on Policing**



* Neutral responses are excluded, so percentages may not add up to 100%.

Figure 4 displays officer agreement with the statements related to policing in their jurisdiction and within their agency. **Notably, more than one-third of officers (37.1%) agreed or strongly agreed that the jurisdiction they work in is dangerous and 71.1% agreed that there is a good chance they could be assaulted while on the job.** Yet, officer morale appears to be quite high in respect to perceptions related to job satisfaction. For example, 83.3% reported they were satisfied with their job, 89.8% enjoyed working with their colleagues, and 82.8% agreed that their agency is a good agency to work for (see Figure 4).

*Figure 4. Pre-Training Views on Policing within their Agency**

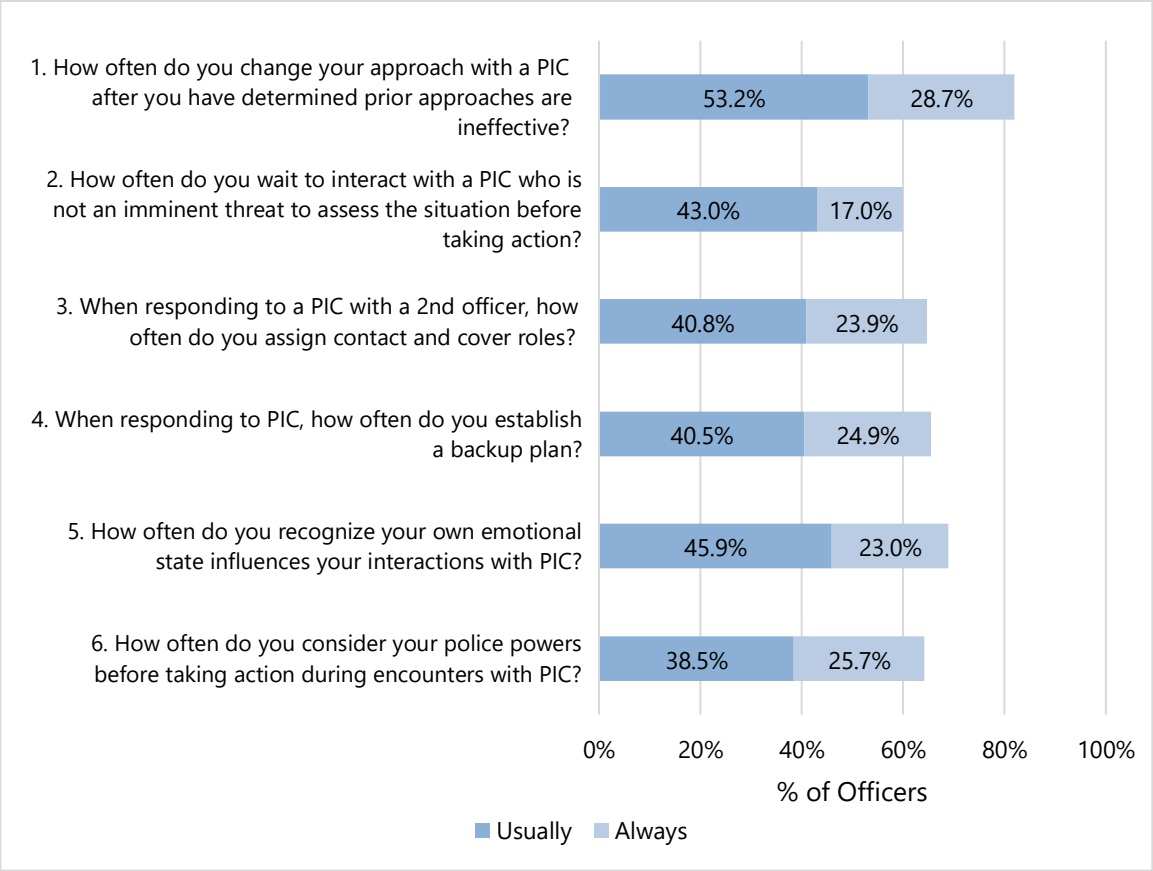


* Neutral responses are excluded, so percentages may not add up to 100%.

As part of establishing baseline measures, officers were asked how often they engaged in various activities when responding to a person in crisis using six items within the pre-training survey.[18] The activities outlined within these survey items align with tenets and tactics taught in the ICAT Training. Figure 5 displays responses from officers who indicated they "usually" or "always" engage in these activities prior to their participation in the ICAT training. **More than half of the officers surveyed indicated that they usually or always engage in these actions when responding to a person in crisis. However, only 17% to 28% indicated that they *always* engage in these activities.**

[18] A person in crisis is defined in the survey instrument as "individuals that may be behaving erratically due to things such as mental health, substance use, situational stress, and/or disabilities."

Figure 5. Pre-ICAT Training: Officer Self-Reported Actions During Encounters with Persons in Crisis (PIC)



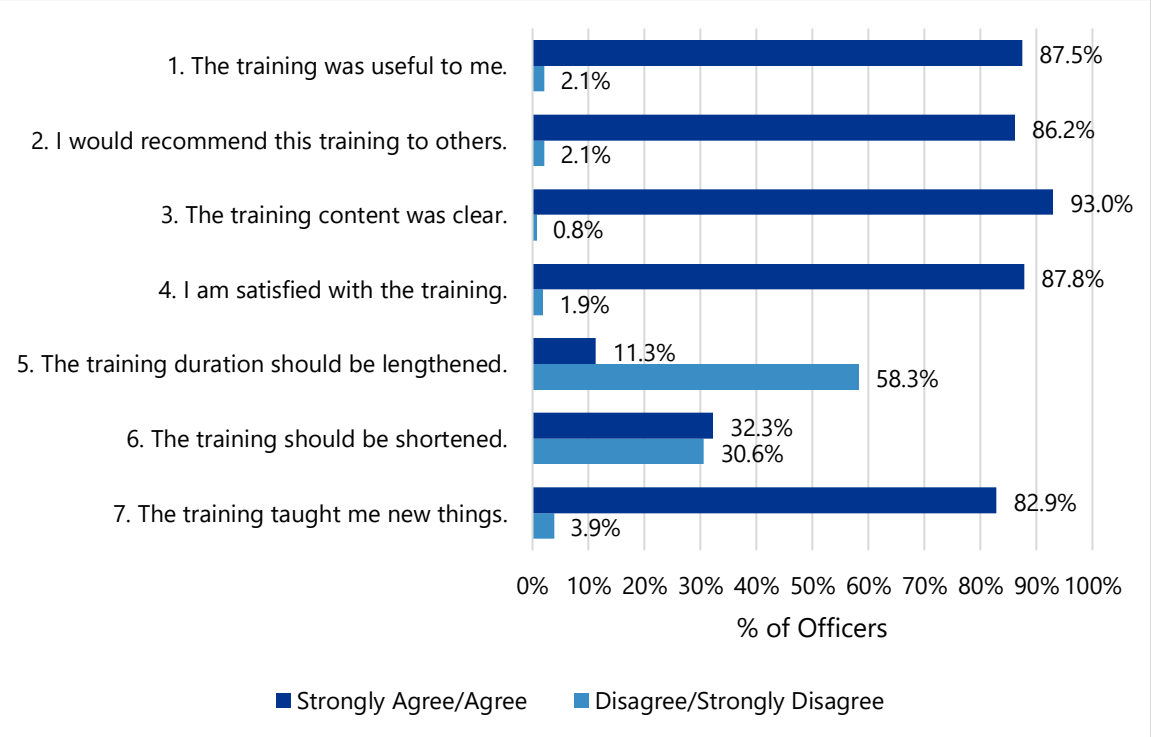
OFFICER REACTIONS TO THE ICAT TRAINING

Guided by observations of the importance of documenting officers' assessment of the quality and utility of training (see Kirkpatrick, 1998), this portion of the report details officer reactions to and perceptions of the ICAT curriculum, including: (1) officers' post-training perceptions of the ICAT curriculum and (2) officers' post-training perceptions of the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM).

In the post-training survey, seven survey items were designed to assess the delivery and perceived value of the ICAT training curriculum. Officers were asked to provide their agreement using a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). To illustrate these findings, officer responses across the scale are collapsed and displayed in Figure 6. Specifically, responses of disagree and strongly disagree are grouped and compared to grouped responses of agree and strongly agree (neutral responses are not presented). As shown, approximately 88% of officers reported beliefs that the ICAT

training was useful to them and 83% reported the training taught them new things. Further, 88% expressed satisfaction with the training, and 86% suggested they would recommend the training to others. Overall, the findings from these items show that most officers viewed the ICAT training program positively.

*Figure 6. Post-Training Officer Receptivity to ICAT Training**



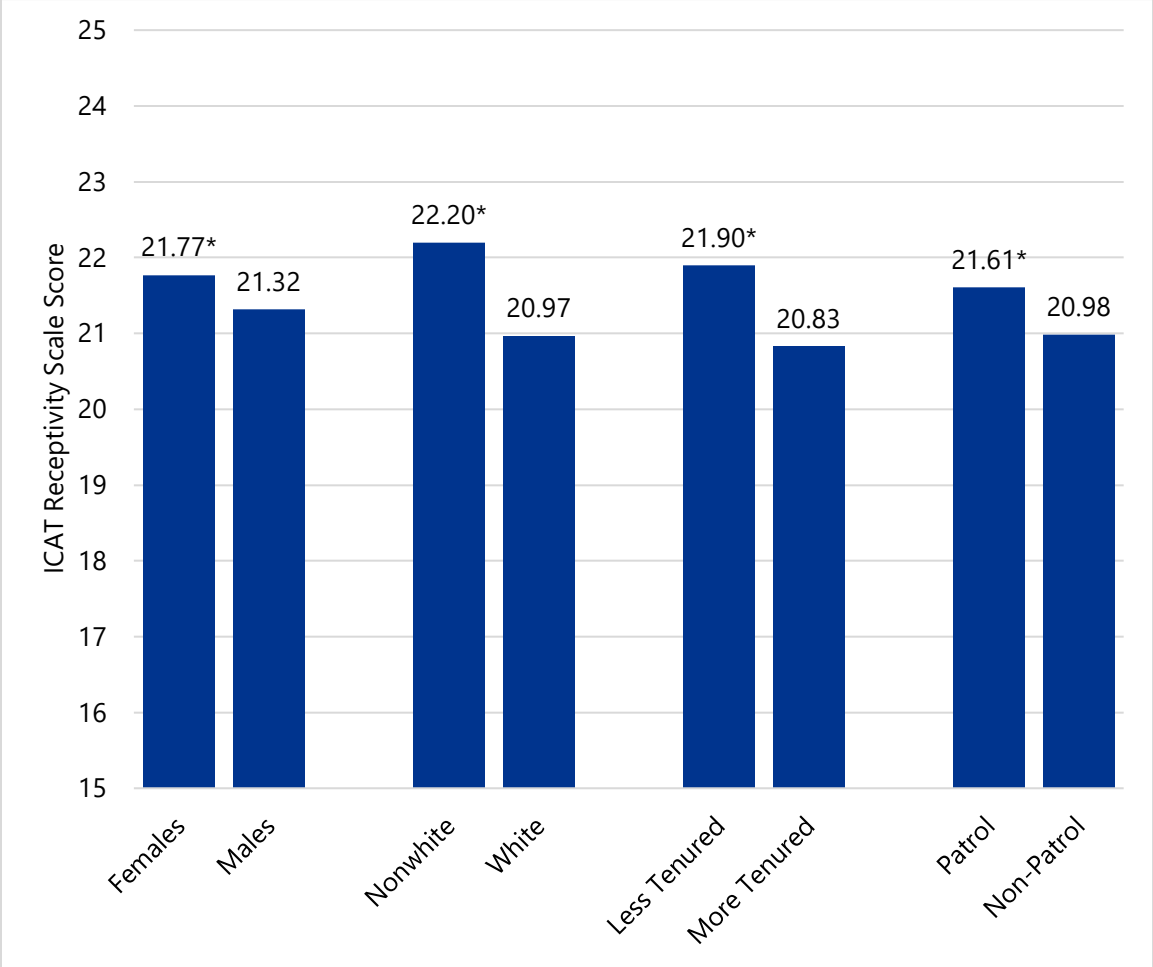
* Neutral responses are excluded, so percentages may not add up to 100%.

To assess differences in ICAT training receptivity across different groups of officers, we used *t* tests for demographic comparisons and one-way ANOVAs for agency and regional comparisons. An additive scale measuring officers' receptivity to the ICAT training was created to support these analyses. This scale included five items, with scores ranging from a low of 5 to a high of 25.

First, we examined differences by four officer demographic characteristics, including gender (female vs. male), race (White vs. Nonwhite), law enforcement tenure (less tenured vs. more tenured), and whether respondents served as patrol officers. These comparisons are shown in Figure 7. Female officers reported greater receptivity to the ICAT training than male officers (21.77 vs. 21.32), and nonwhite officers were more receptive than White officers (22.20 vs. 20.97). Less tenured officers were more receptive than more tenured officers (21.90 vs. 20.83), and patrol officers were more

receptive than non-patrol officers (21.61 vs. 20.98). Although these differences are not large, they are all statistically significant.

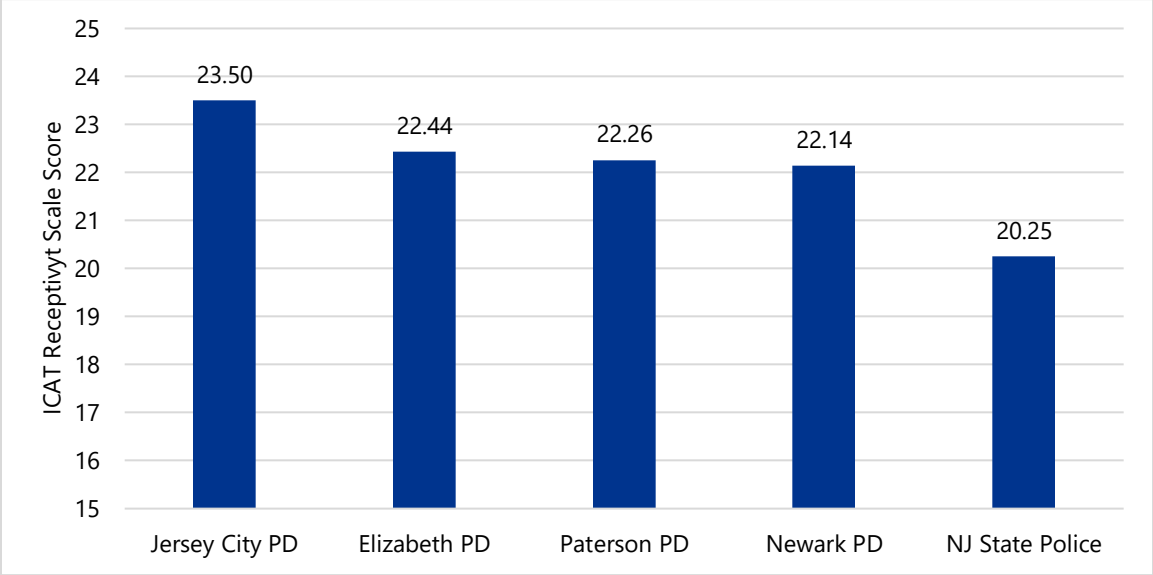
Figure 7. Officer Demographic Comparisons for Receptivity to ICAT Training[†]



† An asterisk (*) indicates significance at the $p < 0.05$ level.

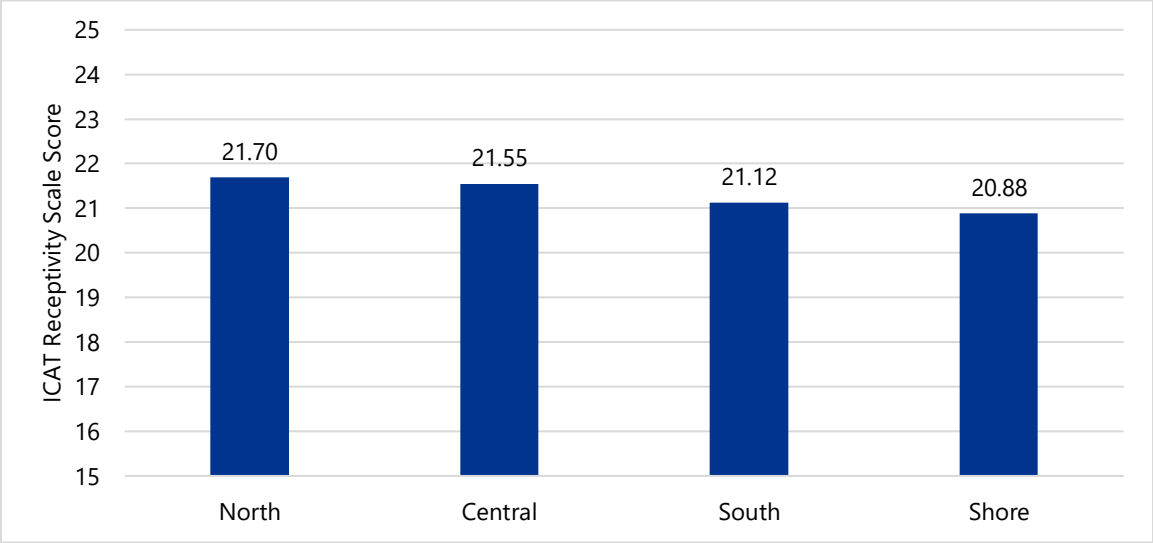
Next, we examined differences in the *ICAT Training Receptivity Scale* using the five largest police departments in New Jersey. These comparisons are presented in Figure 8. The findings suggest that officers in the Jersey City Police Department reported significantly greater receptivity to the ICAT training than officers in the other four departments. Analyses also revealed that officers in the New Jersey State Police were significantly less receptive than officers from the other four departments. There were no significant differences in receptivity to the ICAT program between officers from the Elizabeth Police Department, Paterson Police Department, or Newark Police Department, which all reported similar scores.

Figure 8. Departmental Comparisons of Officer Receptivity to ICAT Training



Finally, we examined geographic regions in New Jersey for differences in officers' receptivity to the ICAT training. All counties in New Jersey were divided into four regions: North, South, Central, and Shore (see Figure 8. *New Jersey County Groupings*, above). As shown in Figure 8, these analyses suggest that officers in northern New Jersey were the most receptive of the regions, with a significantly higher average score than in the Shore and the South. There is no significant difference between officers' reported receptivity to training in the North and Central. The Shore was the least receptive of the four regions.

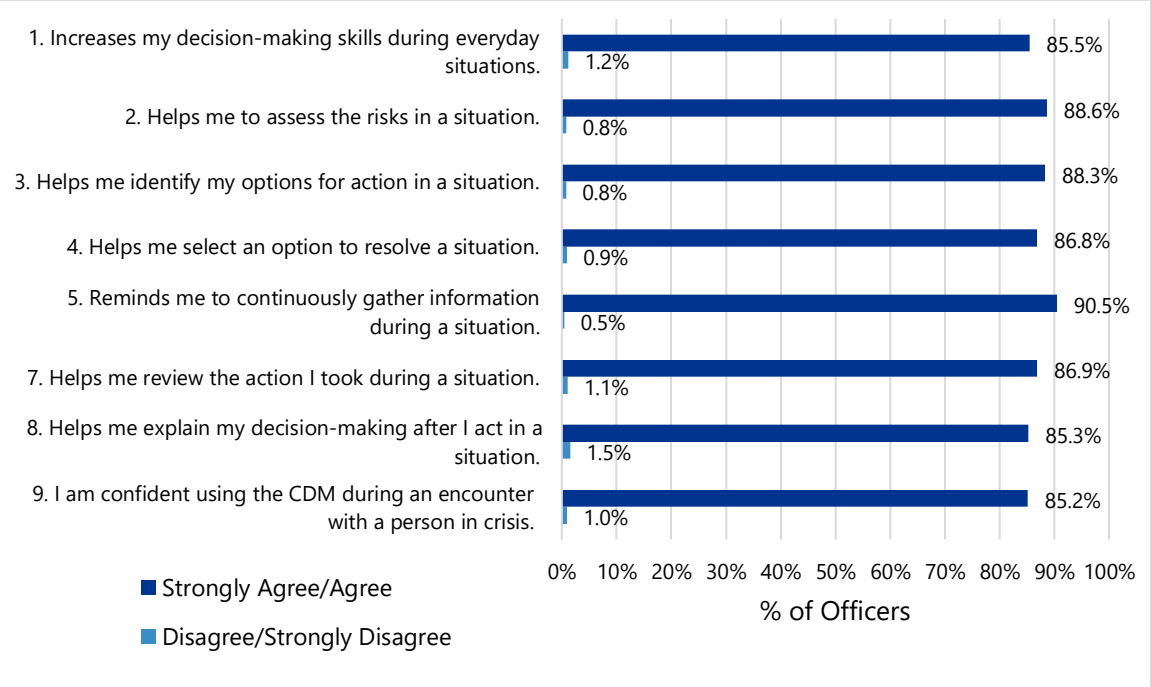
Figure 9. Regional Comparisons of Officer Receptivity to ICAT Training



An integral component of the ICAT training program is the use of the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM), which serves as a framework to guide officers during encounters with the public. Recognizing the importance of officers' perceptions of the CDM, the research team presented survey respondents with 11 survey items designed to assess their views on the utility of the CDM. The questions were asked on the post-training survey—after the concepts were introduced to officers. Officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). For most of these items (Items 1, 4-7, 9-11 shown in Figure 10), higher scores indicate greater agreement about the utility of the CDM. In contrast, Items 2, 3, and 8, presented in Figure 11 are framed with the expectation that officers will indicate greater disagreement if they perceive the utility of the CDM.

Figures 10 and 11 display the frequencies of responses to each survey item assessing CDM Utility. Like previous figures, responses are collapsed into agree and disagree categories (neutral response are excluded from the figure). Figure 10 contains the survey items that are worded positively. As seen in the Figure, at least 85% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with each statement. This demonstrates that the responding officers overwhelmingly view the CDM as a useful tool to fulfill their duties as members of law enforcement.

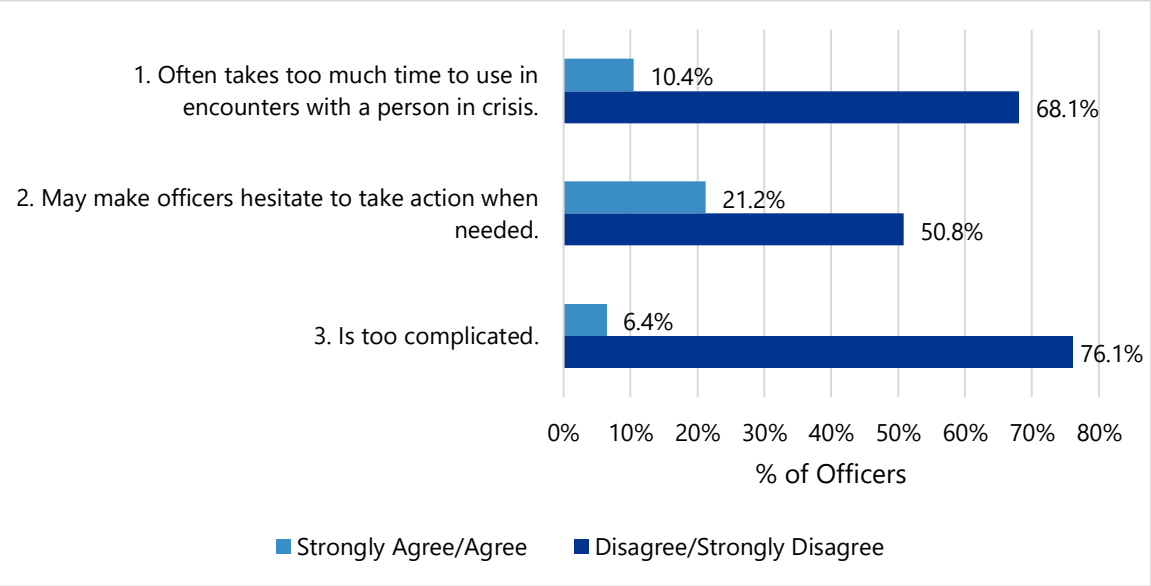
*Figure 10. Views on Critical Decision-Making Model Utility, Positive Items**



* Neutral responses are excluded, so percentages may not add up to 100%.

In turn, Figure 11 contains the survey items that are worded negatively. As such, it is expected that these items will have greater disagreement if officers think the CDM is useful. Once again, these results show that the responding officers hold positive views about the CDM. The only time officers showed hesitancy toward the utility of the CDM was when 21.2% reported they agreed that the CDM may make officers hesitate to take action when needed, compared to 50.8% of responding officers who disagreed with this statement.

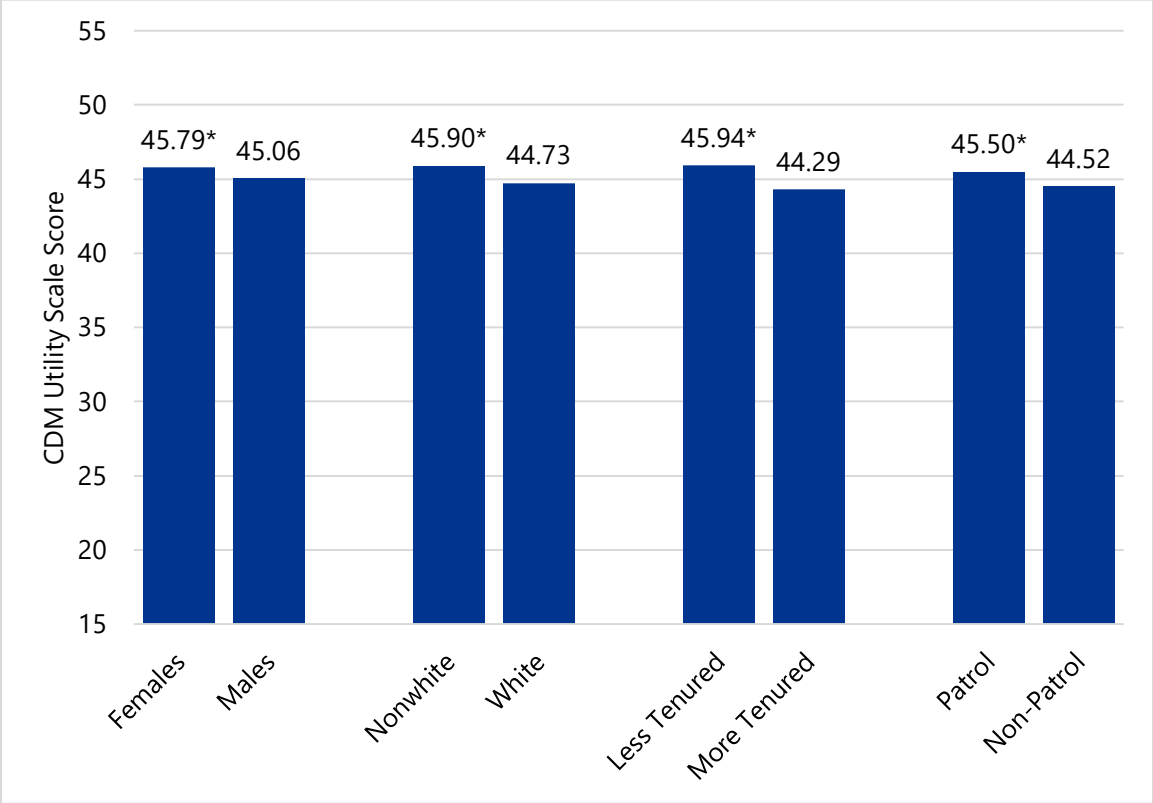
Figure 11. Views on Critical Decision-Making Model Utility, Negative Items



To assess differences in perceptions of the CDM across groups of officers, we used *t* tests for demographic comparisons and one-way ANOVAs for agency and regional comparisons. An additive scale measuring post-training views of the CDM's utility. This measure, the *CDM Utility Scale*, includes 11 items, ranging from a low score of 11 to a high score of 55.

First, we examined differences by four officer demographic characteristics, including gender, race, law enforcement tenure, and whether respondents served as patrol officers. These comparisons are shown in Figure 12. Female officers reported greater perceptions of the utility of the CDM compared to male officers (45.79 vs. 45.06), and nonwhite officers reported greater perceptions of the utility of the CDM compared to their White counterparts (45.90 vs 44.73). Additionally, less tenured officers reported higher utility of CDM than more tenured officers (45.94 vs. 44.29), and patrol officers reported higher scores than non-patrol (45.50 vs. 44.52). While the differences are not large, all were statistically significant.

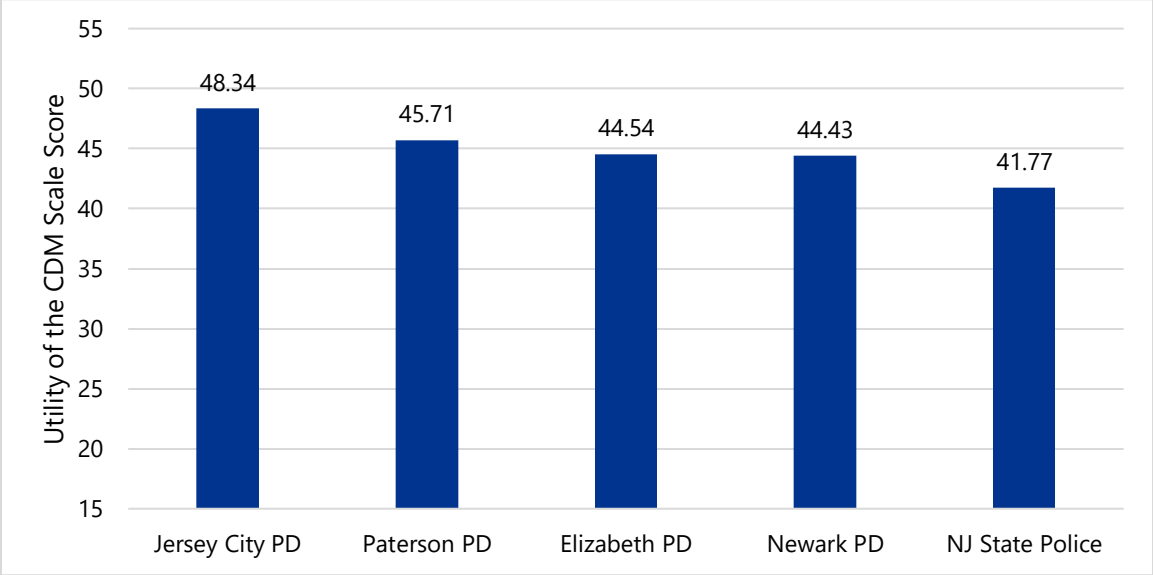
Figure 12. Officer Demographic Comparisons for Utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model[†]



[†]An asterisk (*) indicates significance at the $p < 0.05$ level.

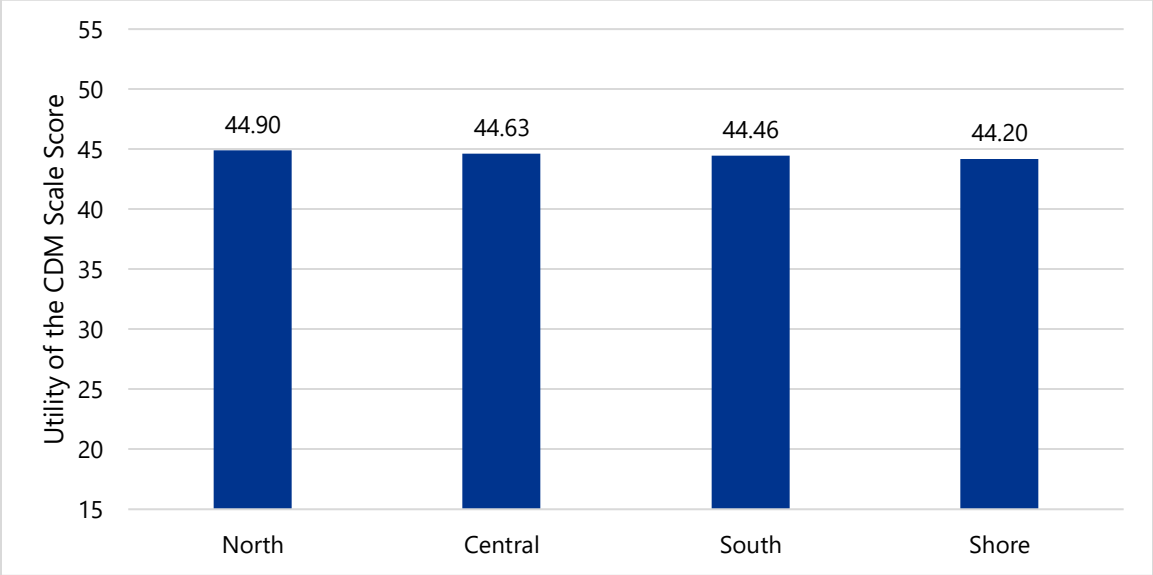
The average responses from respondents from the five largest police departments in New Jersey are compared using one-way ANOVA analyses. Like the receptivity results, officers from Jersey City Police Department reported significantly greater views of the utility of the CDM compared to officers from the other four departments, and officers from the New Jersey State Police reported significantly lower views on the utility of the CDM compared to the other four police departments. There were no meaningful differences in average officer scores between Paterson Police Department, Elizabeth Police Department, and Newark Police Department. These results are shown in Figure 13.

Figure 13. Police Department Comparisons for Utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model



Finally, respondents from the four geographic regions of New Jersey are compared in their composite scores for the *Utility of the CDM Scale*. These comparisons are shown in Figure 14. While minor differences in these scores exist, the only statistically significant difference is that officers in the North perceived greater utility of the CDM compared to the South and the Shore regions of New Jersey.

Figure 14. Regional Comparisons for Utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model



DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDES: BEFORE AND AFTER TRAINING

This section of the report details the differences in officers' attitudes and perceptions following their participation in the ICAT training.[19] Specifically, immediate training impacts are considered by comparing pre-training to post-training responses and scores. Changes in officers' attitudes and perceptions are measured using the *t* test, which assesses statistical differences in the mean score of survey items across the two time points.[20]

Below, we examine officer changes in *Views on Citizen Interactions*, *Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis*, and *Attitudes Toward Using Force.* Both individual survey items and additive scales are analyzed for changes. For each survey item, the tables below display the average or mean scores ("$\bar{x}$"), the standard error ("SE"), the number of respondents ("*N*"), and the *t* statistic with an asterisk (*) demonstrating values that correspond to a *p*-value less than 0.05. A dagger (†) is used to identify the Mann-Whitney *U* test sensitivity analyses that have a *p*-value below 0.05. Therefore, the presence of both an asterisk and a dagger indicate a statistically significant change in officers' responses from pre-training to post-training.

Views on Community Interactions

Table 5 displays the first set of survey items assessing officers' views on police interactions with the public. It compares pre- and post-training scores. Seven survey items related to officers' general views of encounters with community members—including issues of officer safety and de-escalation—were measured using a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree) to assess officers' level of agreement with each statement. If the ICAT training is effective, it is expected that some items will show an increase in the level of agreement (e.g., I have considerable ability to control the nature of citizen interactions to create positive outcomes), while other items

[19] Below we present mean comparisons of survey items. For the complete breakdown of percentages and frequencies for responses to each survey item, please refer to Appendix A.

[20] Inconsistent reporting of identifying information in the surveys (e.g., agency name and badge number) largely reduced the number of available responses in which pre- and post-training surveys could be matched. Because of this, we have decided to present and discuss the results obtained from the independent samples *t* tests to retain the greatest number of responses. The dependent samples *t*-test results (and the corresponding nonparametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test results), however, can be found in Appendix A. The results from both methods were largely consistent.

will show a decrease in the level of agreement (e.g., In tense citizen encounters, the most important thing is that I get home safely).

All seven survey items achieved statistically significant differences from pre-training to post-training, and all differences are in the expected direction. For example, officers reported significantly greater agreement in the post-training survey that they have considerable ability to control the nature of community member interactions to create positive outcomes, officers can be trained to increase the likelihood of positive encounters with the public, and officers can be trained to improve their ability to de-escalate public encounters. They also reported significantly less agreement in the post-training survey that during tense encounters, the most important thing is for them to get home safely.

The items that were phrased in the direction where greater agreement is expected based on the ICAT training curricula (all but Item 4) were combined to create a single additive scale. **The *Views on Community Member Interactions Scale* demonstrates that the overall responses reported in the post-training survey were statistically significantly more aligned with the tenets of ICAT training than those obtained in the pre-training survey.**

Table 5. Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Views on Community Member Interactions

	Pre-Training			Post-Training			
	$\bar{x}$	SE	*N*	$\bar{x}$	SE	*N*	*t* Statistic
1. I have considerable ability to control the nature of citizen interactions to create positive outcomes.	4.16	.01	16646	4.26	.01	14118	11.67*†
2. I am good at identifying officer safety risks in citizen encounters.	4.25	.01	16644	4.33	.01	14123	9.86*†
3. I am good at de-escalating encounters with citizens.	4.23	.01	16647	4.28	.01	14120	6.52*†
4. In tense citizen encounters, the most important thing is that I get home safely.	4.36	.01	16628	4.19	.01	14101	-17.05*†
5. Officers can be trained to increase the likelihood of positive encounters with citizens.	4.37	.01	16648	4.44	.01	14121	9.04*†
6. Officers can be trained to improve their ability to identify officer safety risks in citizen encounters.	4.40	.01	16651	4.44	.01	14119	5.32*†
7. Officers can be trained to improve their ability to de-escalate citizen encounters.	4.38	.01	16651	4.46	.01	14117	9.72*†
Views on Community Interactions Scale	**25.80**	**.03**	**16626**	**26.20**	**.03**	**14098**	**10.50*†**

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using independent sample *t* test.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis

Results from the *t* tests for the *Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis* survey items are shown in Table 6. A person in crisis refers to an individual who may be behaving erratically due to factors such as mental health concerns, substance use, situational stress, and/or intellectual and developmental disabilities. The ICAT training program should teach officers to view individuals in crisis in a more understanding manner to support safe, effective responses. Therefore, the responses to these items from pre-training to post-training should differ. Except for Items 2, 3, 13, and 14, officers' scores of the items assessing their attitudes toward interactions with persons in crisis are expected to increase in agreement with the statements.

As shown in Table 6, a statistically significant difference from pre-training to post-training was found for all but Item 14 which states responding to a person in crisis *should not be* a role of the police. Notably, while Item 14 did not reach statistical significance using the *t* test, a statistically significant difference was observed when assessed using the Mann-Whitney *U* test. Of the observed differences across the items, all are in the expected direction except for Item 2 ("there is no explaining why a person in crisis acts the way they do"). We cannot be certain why this item moved in the expected direction, but it is possible that the curriculum's emphasis on *not* trying to diagnose a person in crisis may explain this shift in perception.

Examining the summed *Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis Scale,* the post-training responses are statistically significantly more aligned with ICAT training tenets than the pre-training responses. In short, officers were found to report more understanding and acceptance of persons in crisis after their completion of ICAT.

Table 6. Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis

	Pre-Training			Post-Training			*t* Statistic
	$\bar{X}$	SE	*N*	$\bar{X}$	SE	*N*	
1. Recognizing the signs that a person is in crisis can improve the outcome of an interaction with that individual.	4.34	.01	16360	4.44	.01	13884	13.57*†
2. There is no explaining why a person in crisis acts the way they do.	2.69	.01	16346	2.80	.01	13874	8.93*†
3. Noncompliance should be viewed as a threat.	2.89	.01	16356	2.53	.01	13872	-32.45*†
4. Unnecessary risks should be avoided in encounters.	4.27	.01	16345	4.34	.01	13864	8.73*†
5. The most important role of an officer responding to a crisis is to stabilize the situation.	4.25	.01	16353	4.33	.01	13875	11.10*†
6. In crisis situations, it is beneficial to keep a subject talking.	4.11	.01	16358	4.37	.01	13879	35.11*†
7. In many cases, the use of force against a person in crisis can be avoided.	3.70	.01	16353	3.95	.01	13874	28.08*†
8. As a person's emotions rise, their rational thinking declines.	4.19	.01	16353	4.37	.01	13869	22.19*†
9. When responding as a team, it's important to designate roles in the crisis intervention.	4.26	.01	16353	4.44	.01	13871	26.50*†
10. The majority of time spent communicating with a subject should be spent listening.	3.92	.01	16351	4.22	.01	13870	36.22*†
11. An officer's nonverbal communication, such as body language, influences how a subject reacts.	4.22	.01	16354	4.36	.01	13865	20.14*†
12. I know how to slow down an encounter with a person in crisis.	3.93	.01	16345	4.19	.01	13871	33.62*†
13. Situational stress is no excuse for a person to act irrationally.	3.08	.01	16336	2.95	.01	13854	-10.18*†
14. Responding to persons in crisis should not be a role of the police.	2.25	.01	16344	2.24	.01	13854	-0.98†
Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis Scale	**41.19**	**.04**	**16284**	**43.01**	**.04**	**13811**	**33.15*†**

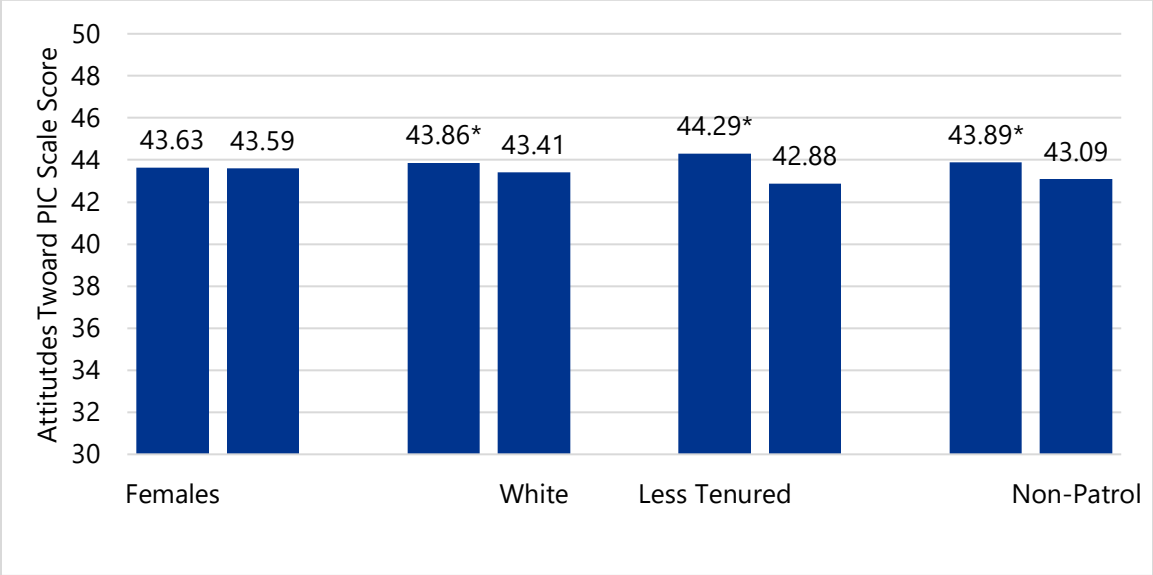
* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using independent sample *t* test.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Like the previous sections, we also compared groups of officers on their average scores related to views on interactions with persons in crisis after participating in ICAT training. We used *t* tests for demographic comparisons and one-way ANOVAs for agency and regional comparisons. The full results of these analyses can be found in Appendix A.

We analyzed differences in officer groups' post-training responses to the summed *Views on Interactions Towards Persons in Crisis Scale,* analyzing differences by gender, race, tenure, and rank. Higher scores indicate greater understanding and empathy towards persons in crisis. These comparisons are presented in Figure 15. There were no statistically significant differences between female and male officers (43.63 vs. 43.59). While differences are not large, analyses suggest that nonwhite officers reported significantly higher scores than White officers (43.86 vs. 43.41). Patrol officers also scored significantly higher than nonpatrol officers (43.89 vs. 43.09).

Figure 15. Demographic Comparisons of Officer Post-ICAT Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis[†]

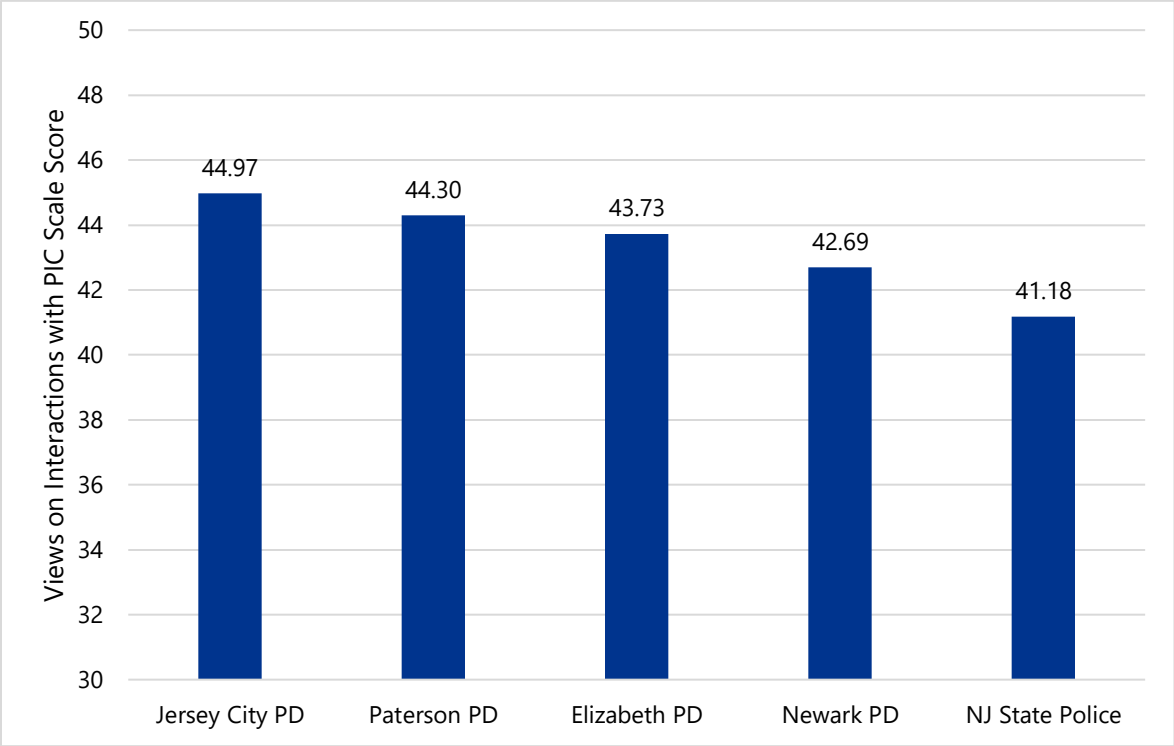


[†]An asterisk (*) indicates significance at the $p < 0.05$ level

Next, we explored differences in attitudes toward interactions with persons in crisis by comparing the five largest law enforcement agencies in New Jersey. The results of these comparisons for scores on the *Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis Scale* are shown in Figure 16. The results of the analyses demonstrate that officers from Jersey City Police Department had significantly higher scores compared to New Jersey State Police and Newark Police Department. Still, these scores were not significantly higher

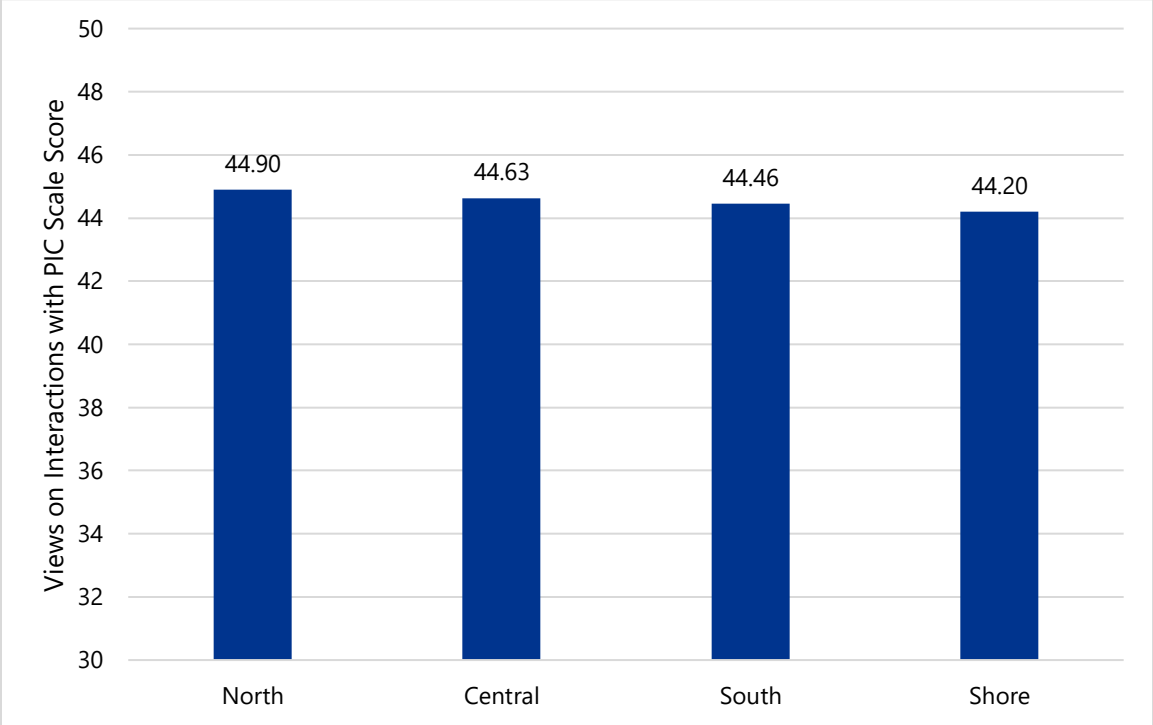
than those from Paterson Police Department or Elizabeth Police Department. Officers from the New Jersey State Police held average views that were significantly lower than those of officers from all four comparison departments. Officers from Paterson Police Department had views that were significantly higher than those of officers from Newark Police Department and New Jersey State Police but were not significantly different from those of officers in the Jersey City Police Department and Elizabeth Police Department.

Figure 16. Departmental Comparisons of Officer Post-ICAT Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis



Finally, we compared four geographic regions of New Jersey, which are displayed in Figure 17. Differences across the regions were minor, with the only significant difference being that officers in the Shores region had significantly lower scores compared to the Northern and Central regions. No other regional differences were meaningfully different.

Figure 17. Regional Comparisons of Officer Post-ICAT Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis



Attitudes Toward Use of Force

It is expected that officers' attitudes toward the use of force would be affected by the ICAT training. Specifically, ICAT teaches officers that force should be used only as a last resort. Findings from the analysis of the 11 survey items assessing officers' attitudes toward using force are presented in Table 7. It is anticipated that, with the exception of Items 8-10, officers' scores on the survey items would decrease after completing ICAT training.

As shown in Table 7, a significant difference between pre-training and post-training scores were found for 10 of the 11 survey items when assessed using the *t* test. However, *all* items were found to have a significant difference from pre- to post-training when assessed with the Mann-Whitney *U* test. Regarding the direction of the differences, all but Item 1 (Officers are not allowed to use as much force as is necessary to make suspects comply) are in the expected direction. We cannot be sure why this statement moved in the opposite direction, but it is possible that, given the contextual background of this survey (e.g., during de-escalation training), officers might (incorrectly) believe they are being taught not to use force.

Considering changes in the summed *Attitudes Toward Use of Force Scale,*[21] there is a statistically significant difference in the pre-training to post-training scores that is in line with the expected changes from the ICAT training. The findings suggest that officers are less likely to view the use of force as necessary following their participation in ICAT training.

Table 7. Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Attitudes Toward Use of Force

	Pre-Training			Post-Training			*t* Statistic
	$\bar{x}$	SE	*N*	$\bar{x}$	SE	*N*	
1. Officers are NOT allowed to use as much force as is necessary to make suspects comply.	2.45	.01	16051	2.52	.01	13648	5.44*†
2. It is sometimes necessary to use more force than is technically allowable.	2.19	.01	16072	2.11	.01	13659	-6.44*†
3. Verbally disrespectful suspects sometimes deserve physical force.	1.78	.01	16083	1.75	.01	13675	-3.13*†
4. Refraining from using force when you are legally able to puts yourself and other officers at risk.	3.02	.01	16049	2.79	.01	13657	-18.40*†
5. It is important to have a reputation that you are an officer willing to use force.	2.24	.01	16076	2.23	.01	13662	-1.07†
6. Not using force when you could have makes suspects more likely to resist in future interactions.	2.53	.01	16062	2.40	.01	13661	-10.95*†
7. It is important that my fellow officers trust me to handle myself in a fight.	4.06	.01	16082	3.99	.01	13665	-6.28*†
8. Trying to talk my way out of a situation is always safer than using force.	3.87	.01	16081	4.03	.01	13672	13.92*†
9. It is important that my fellow officers trust my communication skills.	4.38	.01	16085	4.40	.01	13674	3.40*†
10. I respect officers' ability to talk suspects down rather than using force to make them comply.	4.37	.01	16085	4.42	.01	13674	7.12*†
11. Generally speaking, if force has to be used, it is better to do so earlier in an interaction with a suspect, as opposed to later.	2.51	.01	16073	2.36	.01	13661	-12.92*†
Attitudes Toward Use of Force Scale	**34.36**	**.04**	**16005**	**35.23**	**.04**	**13607**	**15.36*†**

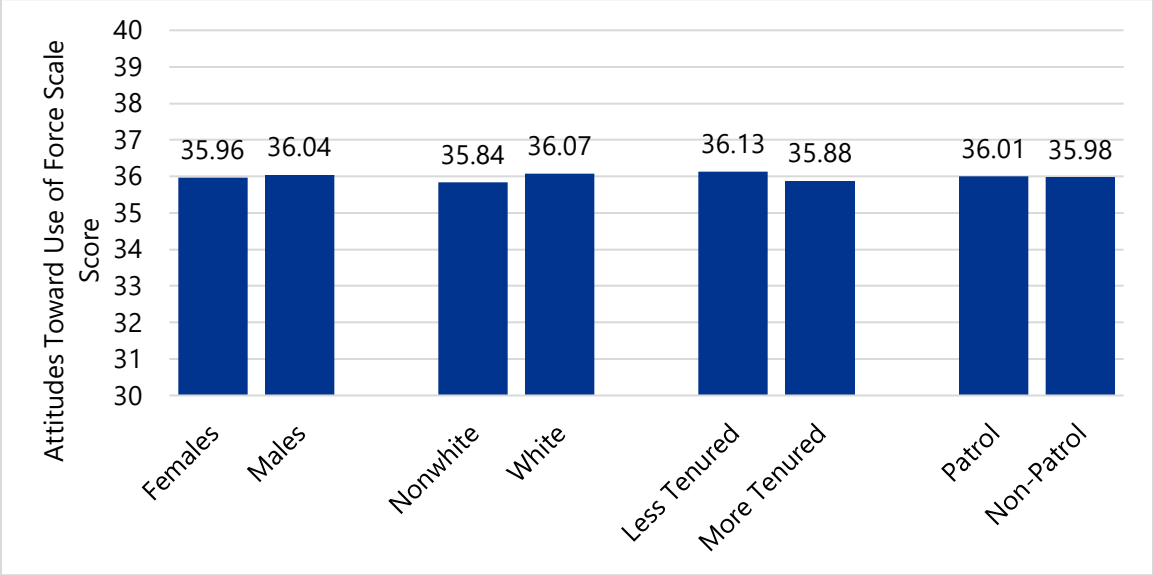
* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using independent sample *t* test.
† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

[21] The additive scale was created by taking the sum of Items 2-6 and 8-11. Items 1 and 7 were excluded from the scale because they both had weak factor loadings onto the single "Attitudes Toward Use of Force" factor. Cronbach's alpha at pre-training was .73 and .78 at post-training. Items were recoded so that higher scores correspond to more agreement with the tenets of ICAT.

Using the *Attitudes Toward Use of Force Scale*, we explore differences in groups of officers after their participation in ICAT training, comparing groups by demographic characteristics, across large departments, and geographic regions. We used *t* tests for demographic comparisons and one-way ANOVAs for agency and regional comparisons. The full results of these analyses can be found in Appendix A.

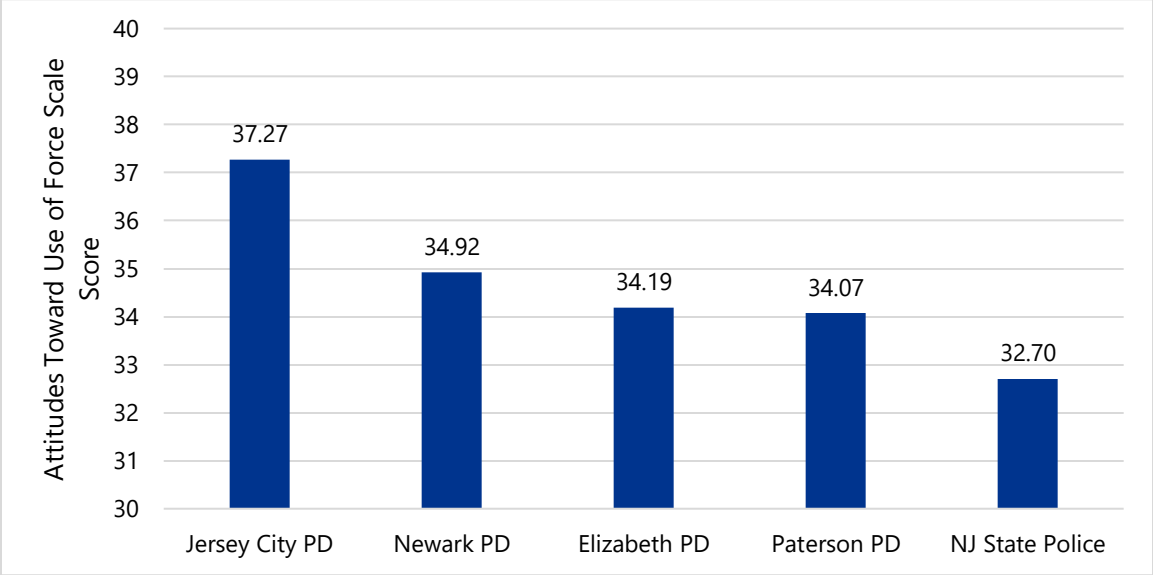
First, we explore differences in officers' post-training attitudes toward use of force by demographic characteristics, including gender, race, tenure, and rank. These comparisons are presented in Figure 18. These differences are all relatively modest, and no statistically significant differences were found in the comparative analyses.

Figure 18. Demographic Comparisons of Officer Post-ICAT Attitudes Toward Use of Force



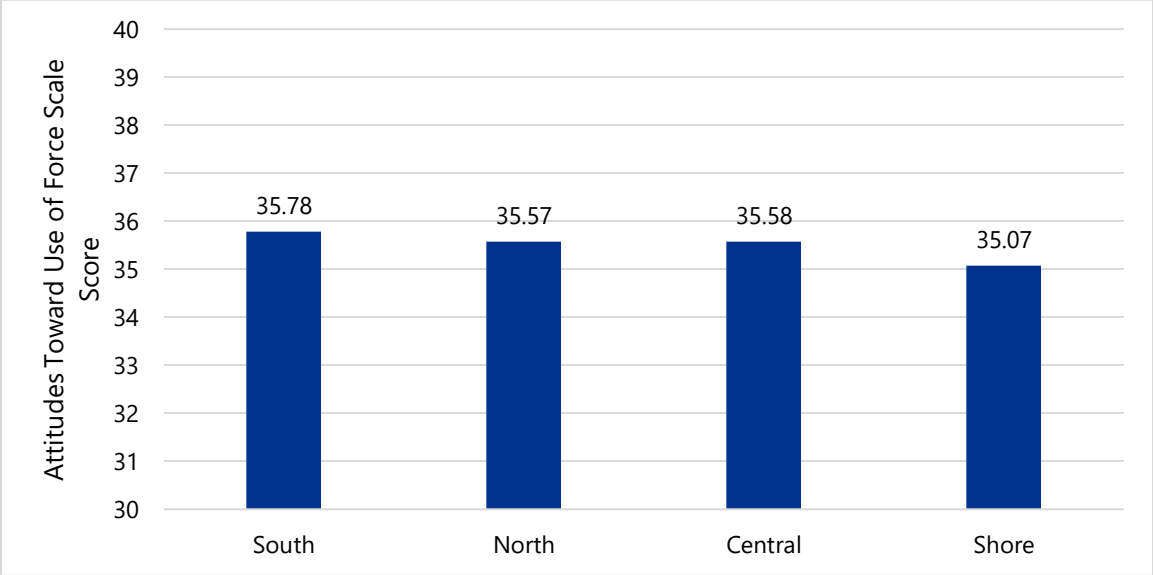
Next, we compare differences in officer attitudes toward use of force across the five largest law enforcement agencies in New Jersey. These comparisons are shown in Figure 19. Analyses suggest officers in Jersey City reported the highest scores on this measure, showing the greatest alignment with ICAT training tenets. Officers in Jersey City Police Department had significantly higher scores on this measure than the four comparison departments. In contrast, officers from the New Jersey State Police held significantly lower scores on this measure compared to officers from all four comparison departments. Officer scores from Newark Police Department, Elizabeth Police Department, and Paterson Police Department were not meaningfully different.

Figure 19. Departmental Comparisons of Officer Post-ICAT Attitudes Toward Use of Force



Finally, we explore regional differences in officer attitudes toward using force post-ICAT training. These comparisons are presented in Figure 20. Most differences were minor and not statistically significant, except that the officers in the Shores region reported significantly lower scores compared to officers in the Central, North, and South regions of New Jersey.

Figure 20. Regional Comparisons of Officer Attitudes Toward Use of Force, Post-ICAT Training



SUMMARY

This section detailed survey responses from 17,036 (pre-training) and 14,638 (post-training) law enforcement officers from New Jersey. The officers completed pre- and post-training surveys used to measure training receptivity and attitudes related to the tenets of the ICAT training.

Overall, officer reactions to the training show that ICAT training was positively received by most responding officers in New Jersey. Of those who completed the post-training survey, 87.5% reported the training was useful to them, 82.9% said the training taught them new things, and 86.2% agreed they would recommend the training to others. Furthermore, the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM)—one of the key concepts of the training—was positively received by officers. In examining differences across officers, departments, and regions, we found there were significant variations in receptivity to ICAT and the usefulness of the CDM, with female, Non-White, less tenured, and patrol officers reporting more favorable views than their male, White, more tenured, non-patrol counterparts.

We also observed differences in officers' survey responses from pre-training to post-training across survey items capturing views on citizen interactions, interactions with persons in crisis, and use of force. Findings from these analyses show several positive, significant differences in these views when comparing pre-training and post-training responses. Most items across all concepts, as well as the created scale measures, showed statistically significant differences from pre-training to post-training in the expected direction. While the magnitudes of differences are relatively small in size, the findings do suggest that officers' post-training attitudes and perceptions are greatly aligned with the tenets of the ICAT training.

Notably, these results only represent the initial effects of ICAT training on officers' attitudes captured immediately after their participation in ICAT training. It is important to examine whether these views are maintained in the months after the training. The next section of this report presents results from two follow-up surveys—one that was completed approximately one-year after ICAT training, and one completed approximately two-years after training—to assess how the tenets of ICAT are perceived with time and how often officers report using the skills taught in the training while in the field.

VI. LONG-TERM ICAT IMPACTS ON OFFICER ATTITUDES, REACTIONS, AND USE OF SKILLS

To observe longer-term impacts of ICAT training, our research team administered two follow-up surveys to officers. The first was administered approximately one year after most officers participated in the training (Feb/March 2023), and the second was administered approximately two years after most officers participated in the training (Feb/March 2024).[22] Both surveys were administered through emails to officers, which included a link to a web-based questionnaire in *Qualtrics*. The surveys included questions related to ICAT training that were grouped within five different conceptual areas. The survey items presented to officers were the same across the two follow-up surveys. These included:

- *Utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM)* – 11 survey items were measured to determine officers' perceptions of the utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM). Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Higher scores indicate officers' greater agreement regarding the utility of the CDM. The same survey items were included in the post-training survey that was administered to officers immediately after training.

- *Encounters with Persons in Crisis* – Officers were asked to indicate how often they engaged in certain activities when responding to a person in crisis. Six survey items were used to measure how often officers engage in ICAT-related actions during these encounters. Frequency was measured using a five-point scale, which included never, seldom, half-the-time, usually, and always. Higher scores indicate a greater agreement with the tenets taught during the ICAT training. The same survey items were included in the surveys provided to officers immediately before the start of the training (pre-training survey) and immediately after completion of the training (post-training survey).

[22] Follow-up surveys were administered at a single point in time; therefore, some officers may have had less than one year from their initial training to the first follow-up survey, and some officers may have had more than one year. The one-year and two-year labels are approximate and not exact.

- *Follow-Up Reactions to ICAT Training* – 10 survey items assessed respondents' follow-up reactions, perceptions, and experiences of ICAT training, based on their level of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree).

- *Use and Reinforcement of ICAT Skills* – Items were included that addressed how often immediate supervisors reinforce ICAT training and how often ICAT-specific de-escalation skills were used by officers in the last 60 days. Responses were based on a five-point scale (1 = Never; 2 = Seldom; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Frequently).

- *Demographics* – 11 survey items measured respondents' demographic characteristics, previous experiences with persons in crisis, and participation in specific training in the past 12 months.

As described earlier, only five counties in New Jersey participated in the follow-up surveys. In total, **593 one-year follow-up** and **213 two-year follow-up surveys** were collected.[23] The response rates for officer training surveys were calculated using the number of officers in attendance based on ICAT training rosters from the participating counties (7,250 officers total). The response rate across the counties was 8.2% for the one-year follow-up survey and 2.9% for the two-year follow-up survey.

Table 8 describes the demographic characteristics of the officers who participated in each wave of survey data collection. The pre-training sample shown here is reduced from the full sample to the five counties where the follow-up surveys were administered.[24] Of note, meaningful differences in demographic characteristics were observed across waves. In particular, when it comes to gender, the two-year follow-up survey had a greater proportion of non-male participants. For race and ethnicity, fewer non-white officers participated in the one-year follow-up, but a greater proportion of non-white officers participated in the two-year follow-up. The follow-up participants were older and had a longer law enforcement tenure than the pre-training participants. Similarly, a greater proportion of non-patrol officers and officers with at least a bachelor's degree completed the follow-up surveys than the pre-training survey.

23 A breakdown of response counts by county for both surveys can be found in Appendix A.

24 All comparisons of follow-up surveys are limited to the pre/post responses from the five counties where the follow-up surveys were administered. This enhances our confidence that our comparison groups are more equivalent than comparing pre/post responses from the full sample.

Table 8. ICAT Training Sample Demographics: Pre-Training, One- and Two-year Follow-Ups

	Pre-Training (*N* = 3,887)		One-year Follow-Up (*N* = 590)		Two-year Follow-Up (*N* = 210)	
	%	(*n*)	%	(*n*)	%	(*n*)
Gender						
Male	10.39	(375)	9.11	(39)	15.79	(27)
Non-male	89.61	(3,234)	90.89	(389)	84.21	(144)
Age						
18-20 years old	0.52	(19)	0.47	(2)	0.58	(1)
21-24 years old	5.49	(199)	2.34	(10)	0.58	(1)
25-29 years old	17.99	(652)	9.84	(42)	9.30	(16)
30-34 years old	18.95	(687)	13.82	(59)	13.95	(24)
35-39 years old	15.42	(559)	17.56	(75)	14.53	(25)
40-44 years old	14.46	(524)	16.16	(69)	12.79	(22)
45-49 years old	12.69	(460)	18.97	(81)	23.84	(41)
50+ years old	14.48	(525)	20.84	(89)	24.42	(42)
Race/Ethnicity						
White	75.37	(2,715)	81.41	(346)	69.09	(114)
Non-white	24.63	(887)	18.59	(79)	30.91	(51)
LE Tenure						
Less than 1 year	5.32	(193)	0.47	(2)	1.75	(3)
1 – 4 years	17.54	(636)	9.22	(39)	5.85	(10)
5 – 9 years	23.17	(840)	17.26	(73)	14.04	(24)
10 – 14 years	11.12	(403)	12.29	(52)	12.28	(21)
15 – 19 years	15.48	(561)	18.44	(78)	21.64	(37)
20 or more years	27.37	(992)	42.32	(179)	44.44	(76)
Education						
Less than Bachelor's Degree	54.10	(1,960)	45.50	(192)	44.71	(76)
Bachelor's Degree or Greater	45.90	(1,663)	54.50	(230)	55.29	(94)
Rank						
Patrol Officer	58.00	(2,099)	40.76	(172)	26.79	(45)
Non-Patrol Officer	42.00	(1,520)	59.24	(250)	73.21	(123)

Note: Missing responses have been removed for percent calculation. For a complete list of demographic responses, refer to Appendix A.

DATA ANALYSES

The statistical approach to assess the follow-up survey data include: (1) descriptive analyses of survey items presented in each individual follow-up survey, (2) one-way analysis-of-variance (ANOVA) models for comparison of survey items measured across three waves of officer surveys, including post-training, one-year follow-up, and two-year follow-up surveys, and (3) independent *t*-test comparisons of survey items presented across two waves of measurement (i.e., one-year follow-up and two-year follow-up).[25]

Taken together, findings are produced from both descriptive analyses and bivariate statistical comparisons. Of note, the assumption of the parametric methods used in our analyses—that is, the assumption that the underlying population distributions are normal and continuous—are violated for many of the survey items assessed here. Although these methods are quite robust despite such violations (see Agresti et al., 2016), we test the strength of the results using the nonparametric equivalent for each parametric method (i.e., Mann-Whitney *U* test for independent *t* test and Kruskal-Wallis *H* test for one-way ANOVA). In this report, the research team considers tests with *p* values lower than the conventional 0.05 level to be statistically meaningful. These differences are denoted in all tables with an asterisk (*) for parametric analyses and a dagger (†) for nonparametric analyses.

OFFICER PERCEPTIONS OF THE CRITICAL DECISION-MAKING MODEL

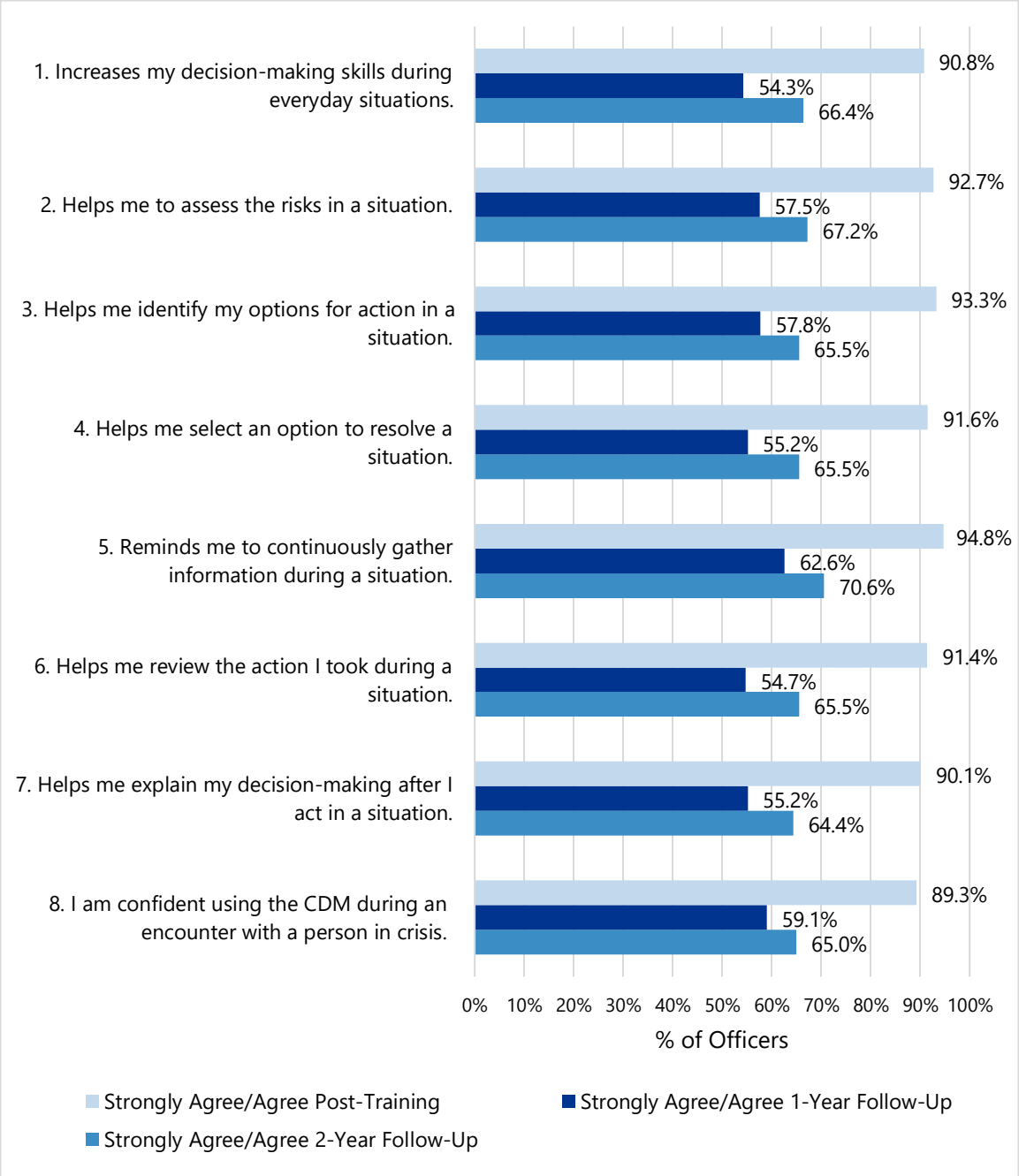
The Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM) is an integral component of the ICAT training curriculum, establishing a framework for decision-making before, during, and after an incident or encounter. As such, the research team included 11 survey items designed to assess officers' views on the utility of the CDM in the post-training and follow-up surveys. For each question, officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). With the exception of Items 2, 3, and 8, higher scores on these survey items indicate greater perceptions of the utility of the CDM.

[25] We did not ask participants to provide individual-level identifying information (e.g., names, badge numbers) in these surveys. As a result, we were unable to match follow-up survey responses to other waves of data collection. Within-individual across-wave comparisons were, therefore, not possible.

Figures 21 and 22 display the percentage of officer responses to each of the survey items assessing perceptions of the CDM. The response categories have been collapsed into Agree/Strongly Agree, Neutral, and Disagree/Strongly Disagree. The full results, including the average responses to each item and corresponding comparison analysis test statistic, can be found in Appendix A of this report.

Figure 21 displays the CDM Utility survey items that were positively worded and the percentage of officers who Agreed/Strongly Agreed with the statements shown. For each of these items, officers' average responses were statistically significantly lower in the one- and two-year follow-up surveys compared to the post-training survey—suggesting that responding officers' perceptions of the usefulness of the CDM decreased over time. **Still, the majority of respondents at each wave of the survey agreed that the CDM was useful. In short, although the perceived utility lessened with time, many officers continued to have positive views of the usefulness of the CDM.**

*Figure 21. Views on Critical Decision-Making Model Utility, Positive Items**

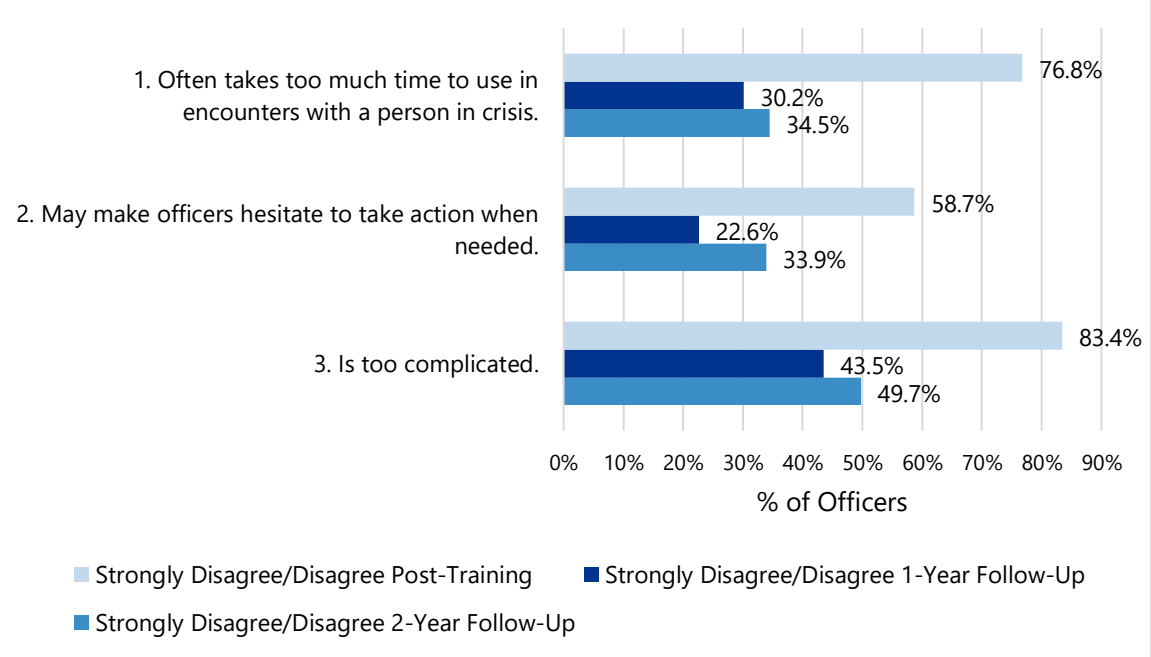


* Only Agree/Strongly Agree responses are shown; responses may not add up to 100%.

Figure 22 presents officers' responses to the CDM utility survey items that were framed in a negative manner. Similar to the positively-framed items above, the results across these items suggest that officers perceived the CDM to be less useful one- and two-years after ICAT training compared to their immediate perceptions post-training. For

example, immediately following ICAT training, the majority of respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed with statements that the CDM takes too much time to use, makes officers hesitate, or is too complicated. The proportion of officers disagreeing with each of these statements in the follow-up surveys was much lower. This is especially true for the responses to statements that the CDM takes too much time to use in crisis encounters and that it makes officers hesitate to take action when needed.

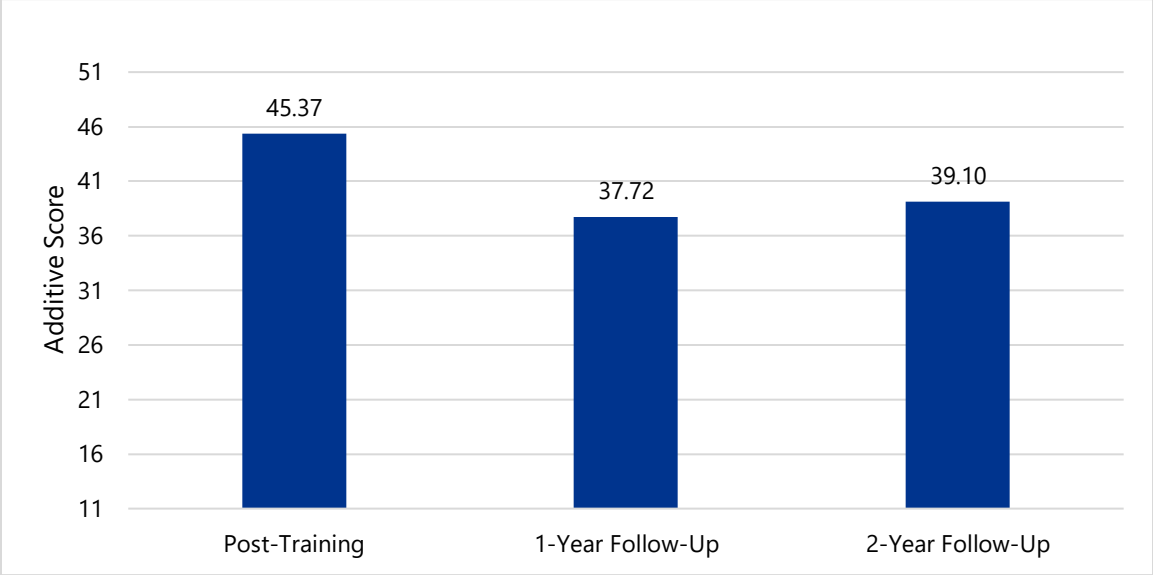
*Figure 22. Views on Critical-Decision-Making Model Utility, Negative Items**



* Only Disagree/Strongly Disagree responses are shown; responses may not add up to 100%.

To assess officers' general views of the utility of the CDM, we combined the survey items—with the negatively phrased statements reverse-coded—to create an additive scale of overall views of the utility of the CDM (scores range from a minimum of 11 to a maximum of 55). Findings across these scales are shown in Figure 23. Consistent with the findings from the individual items, mean differences were observed across each wave of survey data collection, with the post-training survey ($\bar{x}$= 45.37) having the most positive outlook on the utility of the CDM, followed by the two-year follow-up survey ($\bar{x}$ = 39.10) and then the one-year follow-up survey ($\bar{x}$ = 37.72). Post-hoc analyses demonstrated that all mean difference comparisons were statistically significant. In other words, the post-training survey responses were significantly higher than both the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys and the responses to the two-year follow-up survey were higher than the one-year follow-up survey.

Figure 23. Critical-Decision-Making Model Utility Scale Comparisons Over Time



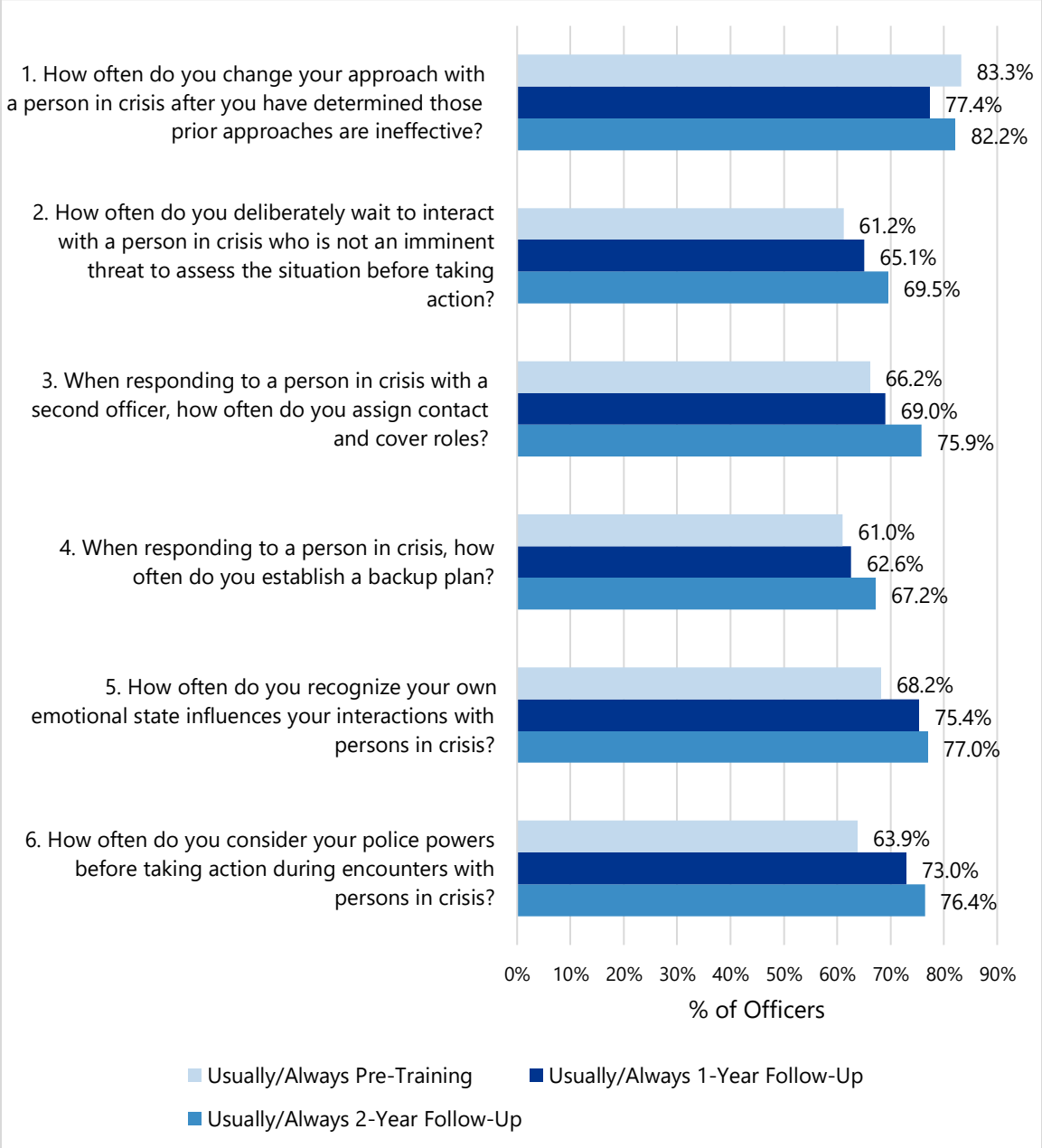
ENCOUNTERS WITH PERSONS IN CRISIS

As part of the pre-training and one- and two-year follow-up training surveys, our research team asked officers how often they engaged in various de-escalation actions and tactics when encountering a person in crisis using six survey items. These actions are related to the knowledge and skills imparted in the ICAT training. As such, it was anticipated that officers' self-reported use of these skills would increase following their training participation.

Officers were asked to indicate how often they engaged in each action (1 = Never; 2 = Seldom; 3 = Half-the-time; 4 = Usually; 5 = Always). Figure 24 displays the percentage of officer responses to each of the individual items. To simplify the display of results, we only show the percentage of officers who responded either "Usually" or "Always" for each wave of survey data collection. The full results can be found in Appendix A.

Five of six items were found to have mean differences in the pre-training and follow-up surveys that reached statistical significance (all but Item 4). It should be noted, however, that the significant difference in Item 1 was not replicated with the nonparametric method. As such, we express additional caution when interpreting the observed differences for this item. **Nonetheless, the findings show that the responding officers in the follow-up surveys—especially the two-year follow-up survey—self-reported more frequent use of de-escalation actions and tactics when compared to officers' self-reported use of de-escalation obtained prior to the ICAT training.**

*Figure 24. Comparisons of Officer Self-Reported Actions During Encounters with Persons in Crisis**

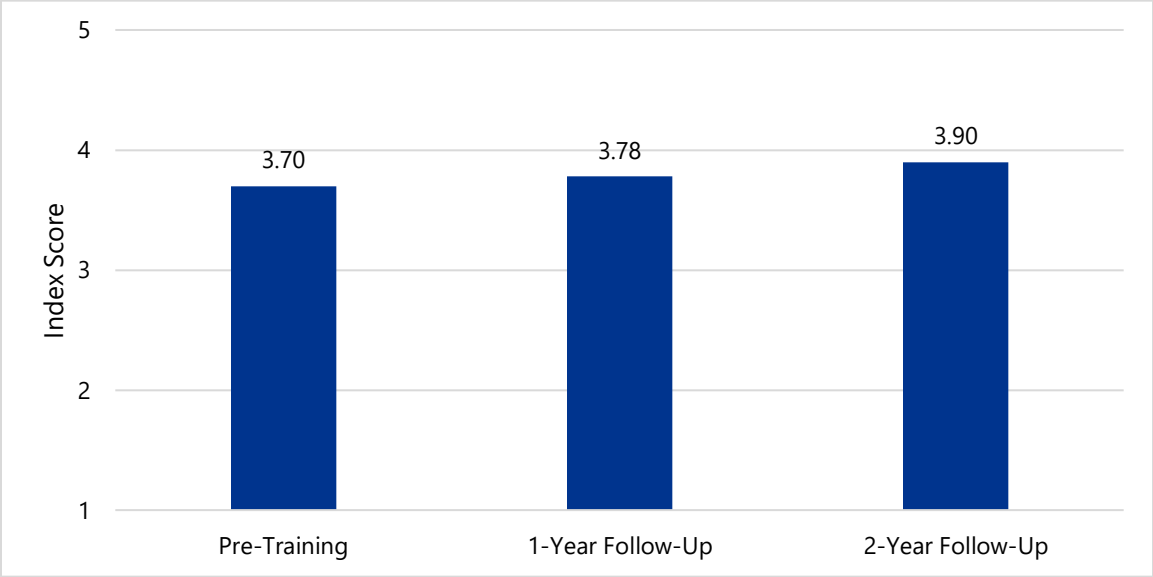


* Only Usually/Always responses are shown; responses may not add up to 100%.

In addition to examining responses across individual items, an index measure was created by calculating officers' average response to all six items. Findings from this measure mirror results from the analysis of the individual survey items. *Specifically, m*ean differences were observed across each wave of survey data collection, with

officers responding to the two-year follow-up survey reporting the highest frequency of engaging in de-escalation actions ($\bar{x}$= 3.90), followed by the one-year follow-up survey ($\bar{x}$ = 3.78) and then the pre-training survey ($\bar{x}$= 3.70). Of note, post-hoc analyses demonstrate that the only statistically significant difference using the parametric method (i.e., one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple-comparison test) was between the pre-training survey and the two-year follow-up survey. Significant differences across all surveys, however, were observed when using the nonparametric method (i.e., Kruskal-Wallis *H* test and Dunn's pairwise comparison test). **Altogether, it appears that ICAT-trained officers are more likely to use de-escalation tactics and skills during encounters with persons in crisis and the self-reported use of de-escalation increases over time.**

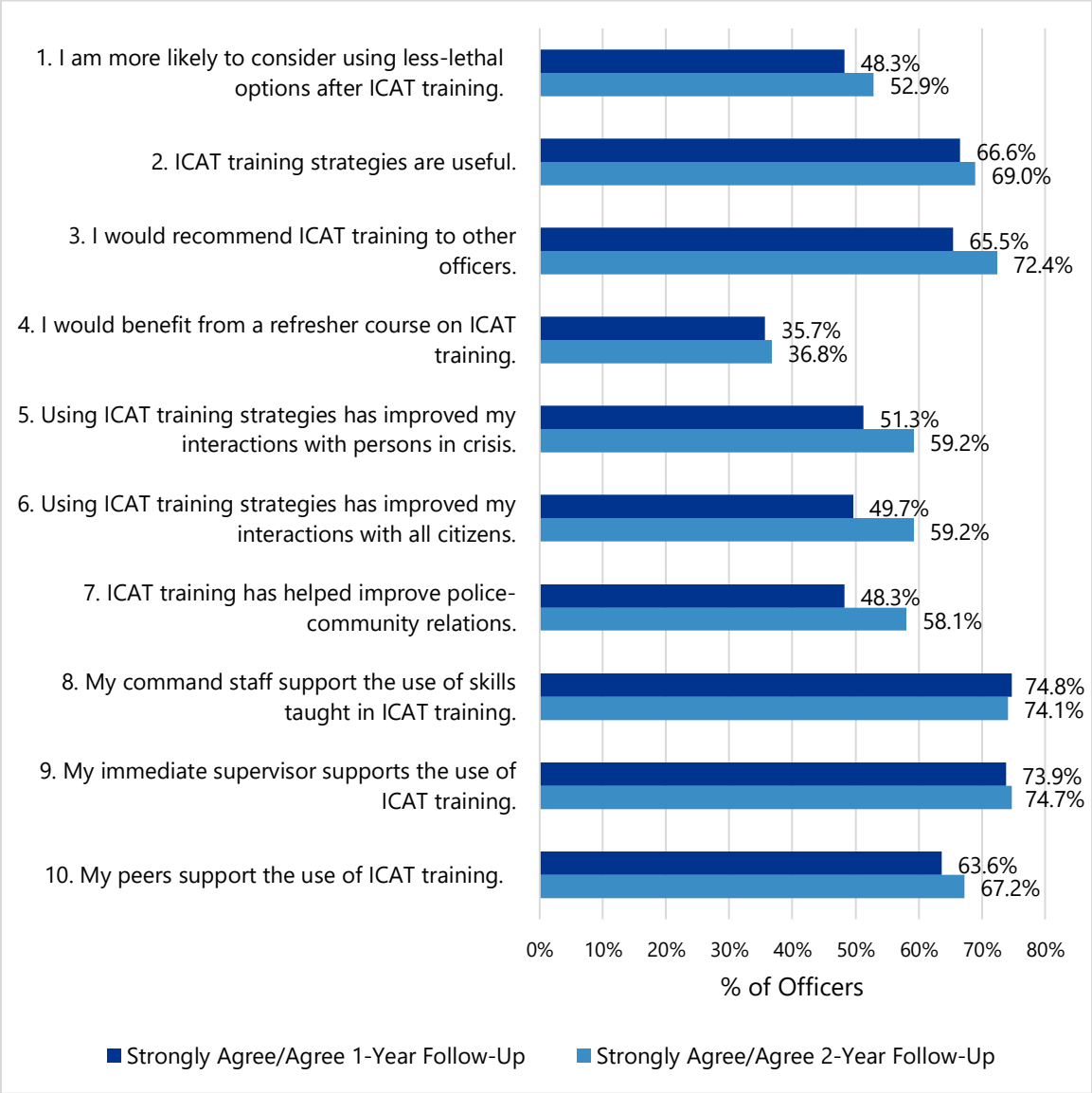
Figure 25. Index Comparisons of Use of ICAT Skills During Encounters with Persons in Crisis



LONG-TERM REACTIONS TO THE ICAT TRAINING

Both follow-up surveys asked officers about their impressions of the impact of ICAT training on their work. In total, 10 survey items were used to assess officer perceptions of the training program. For each item, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Figure 26 displays the percentage of officer responses to each of the individual items. To simplify the displaying of results, we only show the percentage of officers who responded with "Agree" or "Strongly Agree." The full results can be found in Appendix A.

*Figure 26. Experiences with ICAT Training Comparisons**



* Only Agree/Strongly Agree responses are shown; responses may not add up to 100%.

The results in Figure 26 demonstrate that officers continue to agree—approximately one to two years after their participation—that ICAT is a useful training. For instance, the clear majority in both follow-up surveys agreed or strongly agreed that the ICAT strategies are useful (~67% and 69% for one-year and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively) and that they would recommend the training to other officers (~66% and 72%). Officers also believe there is much support for ICAT training across their agency. The clear majority of responding officers in both follow-up surveys agreed that the skills taught in ICAT are supported by their command staff (~75% and

74%) and immediate supervisor (~74% and 75%), and to a lesser degree their peer officers (~64% and 67%).

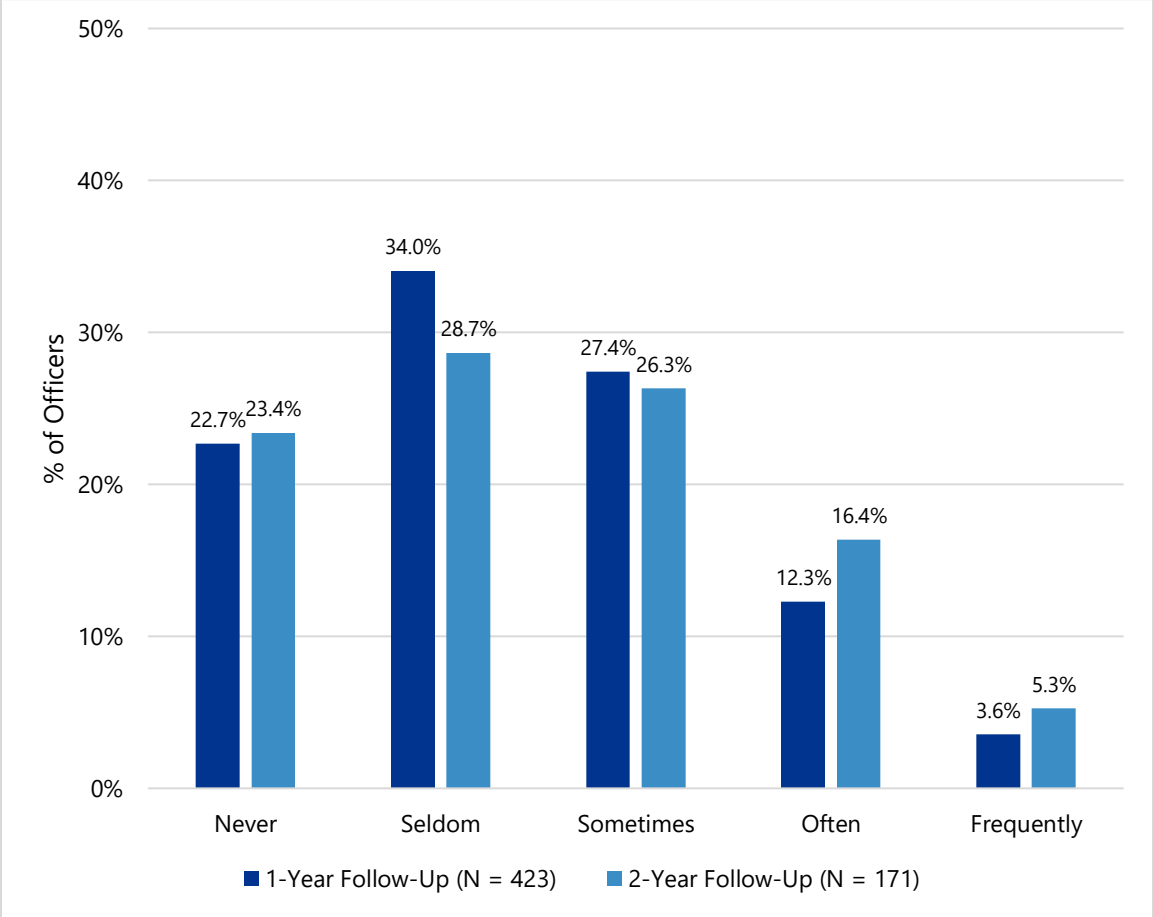
While officers agree that ICAT is useful training, there was less agreement that the training altered the nature of their interactions with community members. For example, only a slight or near majority of responding officers agreed the training improved their interactions with persons in crisis (~51% and 59%), improved their interactions with all citizens (~50% and 59%), improved police-community relations (~48% and 58%), or that the training has made them more likely to consider less-lethal options (~48% and 53%). Nevertheless, more than one-third of officers agreed they would benefit from a refresher course (~36% and 37%).

In addition to each individual item, an additive scale was used to assess officers' overall experiences with ICAT training. This scale was created by summing officers' responses across all items with the exception of Item 4: "I would benefit from a refresher course on ICAT Training (scores range from a minimum of 9 to a maximum of 45). The score for the first follow-up survey was 32.98, which only slightly increased to 33.80 for the second follow-up survey; this increase was not statistically significant using the *t* test or *U* test. No statistically significant differences between the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys were identified across the single-item measures using the independent *t* test. However, a single statistically significant difference was observed for Item 6 ("ICAT training has improved my interactions with all citizens") using the Mann-Whitney *U* test. These results are presented in Appendix A.

USE AND REINFORCEMENT OF ICAT SKILLS

This section contains findings on officers' self-reported use of ICAT training skills in the field, as well as officers' reports of the reinforcement of ICAT training by their immediate supervisors. These findings rely on survey items that were included in both the one- and two-year follow-up training surveys. Specifically, officers were asked to respond to a series of survey items that were related to supervisor reinforcement and application of ICAT training during the previous 60 days. As shown in Figure 27, when asked about how frequently immediate supervisors reinforced ICAT training, the majority of respondents in both follow-up surveys indicated this seldom happened (once per month) or never (~57% and ~52% in the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively). In contrast, only approximately 16% and 22% of one-year and two-year follow-up survey respondents indicated that immediate supervisor reinforcement of ICAT skills occurred often (1 per week) or frequently (more than 2-3 times per week).

Figure 27. Frequency of Immediate Supervisor Reinforcement of ICAT Training



In addition to the frequency of reinforcement, officers were asked about the ways their immediate supervisor reinforced ICAT training. Respondents were asked to select all responses that applied to the reinforcement of their immediate supervisor. The results—separated by follow-up survey—are shown in Table 9. Of those who indicated their supervisor reinforced ICAT training at least seldomly, the most common time of reinforcement was through direct conversation with the responding officers (~45% and 43% of respondents in the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys respectively). The next most common time of immediate supervisor reinforcement was during post-incident reviews (~38% and 44% of respondents), followed by during roll call (~28% of respondents across surveys), and during the respondent's monthly review (~13% and 22% of respondents).

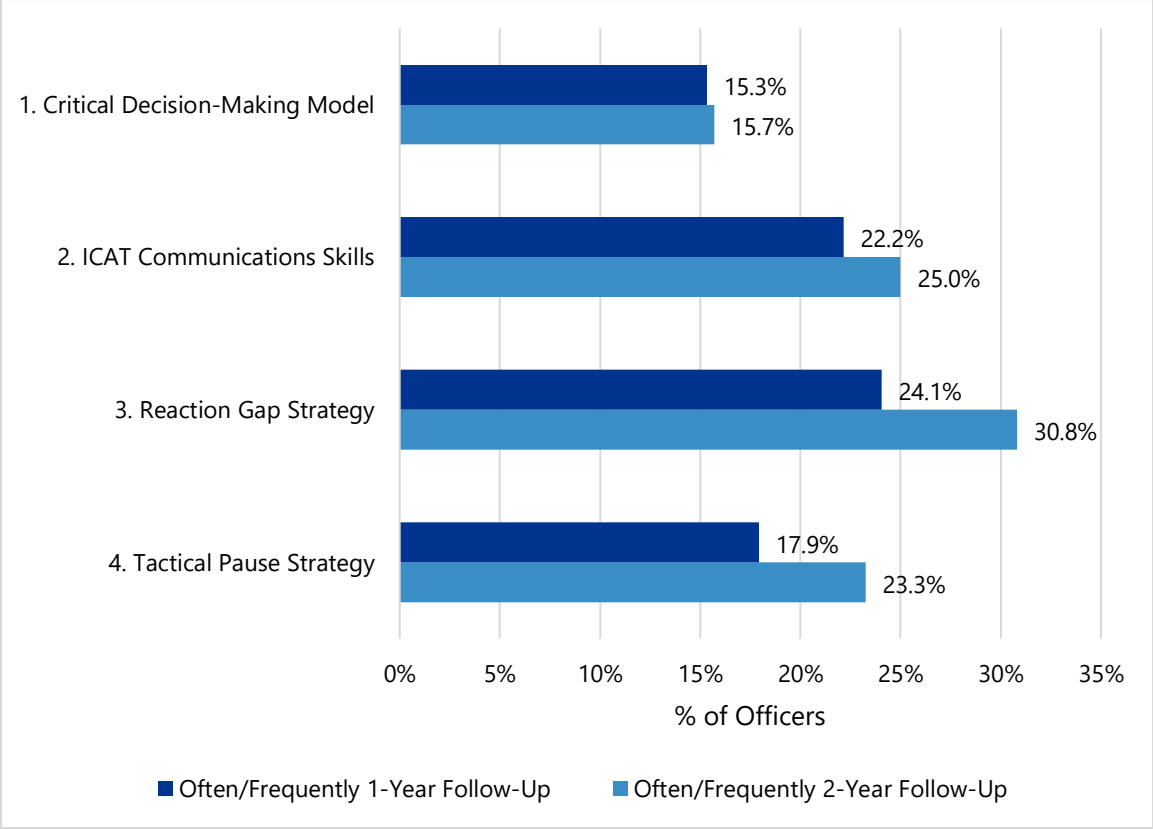
Table 9. ICAT Training Supervisor Reinforcement

	One-year Follow-Up (*N* = 327)	Two-year Follow-Up (*N* = 131)
ICAT training is reinforced by my immediate supervisor...	**% (*n*)**	**% (*n*)**
1. ...in conversations with me	44.7 (146)	42.8 (56)
2. ...during roll call	27.8 (91)	27.5 (36)
3. ...during my monthly review	13.46 (44)	22.1 (29)
4. ...during post-incident reviews	37.9 (124)	44.3 (58)

Next, responding officers were asked to report their use of specific types of ICAT skills in the previous 60 days, including the CDM, communication skills, the reaction gap strategy, and the tactical pause strategy. The frequency of officers' use of these skills was measured on a five-point scale in which 1 = Never (0 times), 2 = Seldom (1 per month), 3 = Sometimes (2-3 times per month), 4 = Often (1 per week), and 5 = Frequently (more than 2-3 times per week). Figure 28 displays the percentage of officer responses to each of the individual items. To simplify the displaying of results, the percentage of officers who responded to these survey items with *often* and *frequently* are presented only. The full results can be viewed in Appendix A.

Officers' responses indicate that the Reaction Gap Strategy was the most frequently used ICAT skill in the last 60 days, followed by ICAT Communication Skills, Tactical Pause, and the CDM. Overall, the reporting of *often* or *frequent* use of any ICAT skills in the last 60 days was low and the majority of officers reported either *never* or *seldom* using such skills. It should be noted, however, that non-use of skills could be related to officers' specific assignments of duty. For instance, given the increased frequency of citizen contact, patrol officers are likely to have more opportunities to use ICAT skills. Yet, among the officers who responded to our follow-up surveys, non-patrol officers were overrepresented. Low reporting of ICAT skills use, therefore, may reflect the composition of the sample.

*Figure 28. Officer Self-Reported Use of ICAT Skills in the Last 60 Days**



* Only Often/Frequently responses are shown; responses may not add up to 100%.

Finally, officers were asked whether they had responded to an incident involving a person in crisis since they were trained in ICAT and, if so, whether they used ICAT strategies in their response. Approximately 79% of one-year follow-up respondents and 87% of two-year follow-up respondents indicated they had responded to an incident involving a person in crisis. **Of those who responded to such an incident, approximately 80% and 87% of one-year and two-year follow-up respondents, respectively, indicated they had used ICAT strategies in their response.** As such, the vast majority of responding officers indicated they have used ICAT strategies while responding to a person in crisis since they participated in training.

SUMMARY

This section detailed survey responses collected from the five New Jersey counties where one-year and two-year follow-up training surveys were administered. In total, 593 one-year follow-up and 213 two-year follow-up surveys were collected. When

appropriate, follow-up responses were compared to 3,887 pre-training and 3,205 post-training survey responses from those same counties. Responses to all waves of survey data collection were used to measure officer attitudes, perceptions of ICAT training, and use of ICAT skills following their participation in training.

In examining officer views of the utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM), we found that most officers found the CDM useful. While these perceptions decreased with time, many officers continued to hold positive views towards the CDM one and two years after ICAT training. Despite these views, responses from the one- and two-year follow-up training surveys suggest officers' infrequent use of the CDM in their day-to-day work. Specifically, we found that the number of officers who reported often or frequently using any ICAT skills, including the CDM, in the last 60 days was low, and the majority of officers reported either never or seldomly using such skills. This non-use of skills could be related to officers' specific assignments of duty. Among the officers who responded to the follow-up surveys, non-patrol officers—that is, officers with fewer opportunities to apply ICAT skills in their day-to-day—were overrepresented.

We also measured officers' self-reported engagement in various de-escalation-oriented activities reinforced in ICAT training when encountering a person in crisis. The findings demonstrate that the officers responding to the follow-up surveys—especially the two-year follow-up survey—use the actions and tactics taught in ICAT training more frequently than they did before the training. Further supporting this finding, of the officers who reported responding to a crisis-related incident since their ICAT training (nearly 80% and 90% of respondents to the one- and two-year follow-up survey, respectively), approximately 80% and 87% indicated using ICAT strategies in their response.

Finally, the follow-up surveys were used to assess officers' long-term impressions of the ICAT training. Most officers agreed that ICAT strategies were useful and they would recommend this training to others one and two years later. Further, nearly 40% of respondents in both surveys agreed they would benefit from ICAT refresher training. Officers also perceived great support for ICAT from their commanders and supervisors and, to a lesser degree, their peer officers. Despite perceiving this support, respondents reported infrequent reinforcement of ICAT from their supervisors, with the majority of respondents in both follow-up surveys indicating this seldom happened (once per month) or never (~57% and ~52% in the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively). When immediate supervisors reinforced ICAT principles, this was typically during direct conversations with officers and during post-incident reviews.

VII. IMMEDIATE IMPACTS OF ABLE TRAINING ON OFFICER ATTITUDES

In addition to the evaluation of ICAT training, training surveys were administered to officers immediately before and after participation in ABLE training. Both surveys were administered through a QR code that was linked to a web-based questionnaire in *Qualtrics*. The training surveys included questions grouped within nine conceptual areas. Many of the items were designed to measure officer attitudes that might be affected by the active bystander training program, while others were used to capture officer demographics and characteristics. The survey items presented to officers differed across the waves of the training survey. The inclusion of specific items across periods of measurement was determined by the need to collect specific information across multiple points in time, as well as by the desire to shorten the surveys to avoid survey fatigue and increase response rates. The nine sections of the ABLE training surveys include:

- *Prior Intervention Activity* – Included in the pre- and post-training survey, officers responded to the best of their ability (0 = No; 1 = Yes) whether they had engaged in any intervention activity with other officers during the past three months. An "intervention" was defined as an action taken to prevent, reduce, or stop harm. An intervention could be verbal, non-verbal (e.g., gesture), or physical. It could be subtle or obvious. An intervention could be made prior to, during, or following an incident in which unnecessary harm may be inflicted.

- *Perceptions of Police Misconduct* – Included in the pre-training and post-training survey, 14 survey items were used to measure officer perceptions of police misconduct, officer wellness, and active bystandership. "Active bystandership" refers to intervening, when there is the need and opportunity to do so, to prevent another officer from making a harmful mistake or committing misconduct, or to protect another officer's health and wellbeing. "Misconduct" is defined as an intentional violation of policy and/or law. A "mistake" is defined as the unintentional violation of policy, law, and/or safety standards. For each survey item, officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree).

- *Attitudes Toward Active Bystandership* – Included in the pre-training and post-training surveys, 21 items were used to gauge officers' attitudes toward active bystandership, including intervening with other officers and accepting intervention from another officer. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement to each item on a five-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree).

- *General Perceptions of Agency* – Included in the pre-training survey, seven survey items were used to assess the officers' general perceptions of their agency and mechanisms to prevent misconduct. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement to each survey item on a five-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree).

- *Active Bystandership within Agency* – Included in the pre-training survey only, officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement about the use and reinforcement of active bystandership within their agency. Six statements were provided and level of agreement was measured using a five-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree).

- *Likelihood of Peer Intervention* – Included in the pre-training and post-training survey, seven survey items were measured to determine the perceived likelihood of various intervention activities occurring within the respondent's agency. Respondents were asked to indicate the likelihood using a five-point scale (1 = Very Unlikely; 5 = Very Likely).

- *ABLE Skill Application* – Included in the post-training survey, respondents were asked to indicate their confidence in performing seven skills taught during the ABLE training based on a five-point scale (1 = Not at all Confident; 5 = Very Confident).

- *ABLE Training Program Receptivity* – Included in the post-training survey, officers' perceptions of the ABLE training program – including the content and delivery – were assessed using seven items where respondents indicated their level of agreement on a five-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree).

- *Demographics* – Included in the pre-training survey, 10 survey items measured respondents' demographics, including contact with community members on shift, and whether patrol duties are performed alone or with another officer.

In total, 15,142 pre-training and 12,623 post-training surveys were collected.[26] The response rate for officer training surveys was calculated using the number of officers who attended training as reflected in the ABLE training rosters shared with the research team by training coordinators (28,674 officers, as of December 2022). **These response rates are 52.8% for the pre-training survey and 44.0% for the post-training survey.**

DATA ANALYSES

The statistical approach to assess the immediate impact of ABLE training on officers' attitudes includes (1) descriptive analyses of survey items presented in a single wave of measurement (e.g., reactions to ABLE training measured in the post-training survey only) and (2) independent *t*-test comparisons of survey items measured in pre- and post-training surveys. Independent samples *t* test compares the mean (average) score across two waves of measurement to test for statistically meaningful differences. To test the robustness of the *t*-test results, Mann-Whitney *U* tests are conducted.[27] The Mann-Whitney *U* test is the nonparametric equivalent to the parametric *t* test. As such, fewer assumptions about the underlying population distributions are required.

Taken together, findings from analyses of the officer training survey data are produced from both descriptive analyses and statistical comparisons of officers' average responses on survey items across the pre-training and post-training surveys. Specifically, statistical comparisons of pre-training to post-training survey responses are intended to examine potential changes in officers' attitudes affected by the ABLE training program. In this report, the research team considers tests with *p*-values lower than the conventional 0.05 level to be statistically meaningful. These differences are denoted in all tables with an asterisk (*) for parametric analyses and a dagger (†) for nonparametric analyses. For figures presenting score comparisons, those that are statistically significant are followed by an asterisk (*).[28]

OFFICER DEMOGRAPHICS AND BASELINE MEASURES

This section presents survey respondents' demographic characteristics and pre-ABLE training views of policing. Table 10 presents the characteristics of the officers who

[26] A breakdown of response counts by county for both surveys can be found in Appendix B.

[27] See Methodology for additional information.

[28] Figures presenting comparisons using the one-way ANOVA do not include asterisks indicating statistical significance.

completed the pre-training survey. As shown, the officers who attended the ABLE training were largely male (82.5%), White (62.4%), and patrol officers (50.3%). Officers were fairly evenly distributed in terms of age and law enforcement tenure. Almost half (44.9%) had a Bachelor's degree or higher. When estimating how many contacts an officer has with community members during an average shift, nearly one-third (32.2%) of respondents reported having 10 or more contacts. Finally, 43.1% of responding officers reported they typically perform their patrol duties by themselves, 13.0% patrol with the same officers most shifts, 6.3% patrol with different officers from shift to shift, and 31.0% do not perform patrol duties.

Table 10. Pre-Training Sample Demographics (N = 14,792)

	%	(*n*)		%	(*n*)
Gender			**Rank**		
Male	82.5	(12,201)	Patrol Officer	50.3	(7,444)
Female	9.7	(1,434)	Detective	3.0	(437)
Other	1.3	(191)	Corporal	3.1	(465)
Unknown	6.5	(966)	Sergeant	15.7	(2,323)
Age			Lieutenant	6.1	(900)
18 - 20 years old	0.3	(48)	Captain or Above	3.2	(474)
21 - 24 years old	4.2	(627)	Recruit	0.7	(99)
25 - 29 years old	15.0	(2,212)	Civilian	0.1	(13)
30 - 34 years old	17.8	(2,638)	Retired	0.9	(125)
35 - 39 years old	16.1	(2,385)	Other*	10.4	(1,537)
40 - 44 years old	15.2	(2,244)	Unknown	6.6	(975)
45 - 49 years old	12.2	(1,797)	**Additional Agency Roles**		
50+ years old	12.7	(1,885)	Detective	19.0	(2,811)
Unknown	6.5	(956)	Field Training Officer	18.1	(2,683)
Race			Academy Instructor	5.9	(872)
White	62.4	(9,231)	Peer Supporter	3.0	(449)
Black	9.5	(1,401)	Not Applicable	56.1	(8,312)
Latino/Hispanic	10.8	(1,595)	**Avg. # of Community Contacts per Shift**		
Asian/Pacific Islander	1.6	(237)	None	5.5	(820)
Indian/Middle Eastern	0.1	(11)	1-3	17.5	(2,586)
Native American	0.2	(25)	4-6	18.9	(2,799)
Other	8.7	(1,288)	7-9	12.5	(1,850)
Unknown	6.8	(1,004)	10+	32.2	(4,758)
LE Tenure			**Patrol Duty Characteristics**		
Less than 1 year	5.0	(741)	Alone	43.1	(6,377)
1 – 4 years	15.9	(2,348)	Same Officer	13.0	(1,918)
5 – 9 years	21.2	(3,128)	Officer Varies by Shift	6.3	(927)
10 – 14 years	11.9	(1,765)	Do Not Do Patrol	31.0	(4,585)

	%	(*n*)		%	(*n*)
15 – 19 years	16.6	(2,459)	Unknown	6.7	(985)
20 or more years	22.9	(3,392)			
Unknown	6.5	(959)			
Education					
GED / HSED	0.8	(113)			
High School	10.7	(1,578)			
> 2 years college	20.4	(3,010)			
Associate's Degree	16.7	(2,464)			
Bachelor's Degree	36.8	(5,445)			
Graduate Degree	8.1	(1,204)			
Unknown	6.6	(978)			

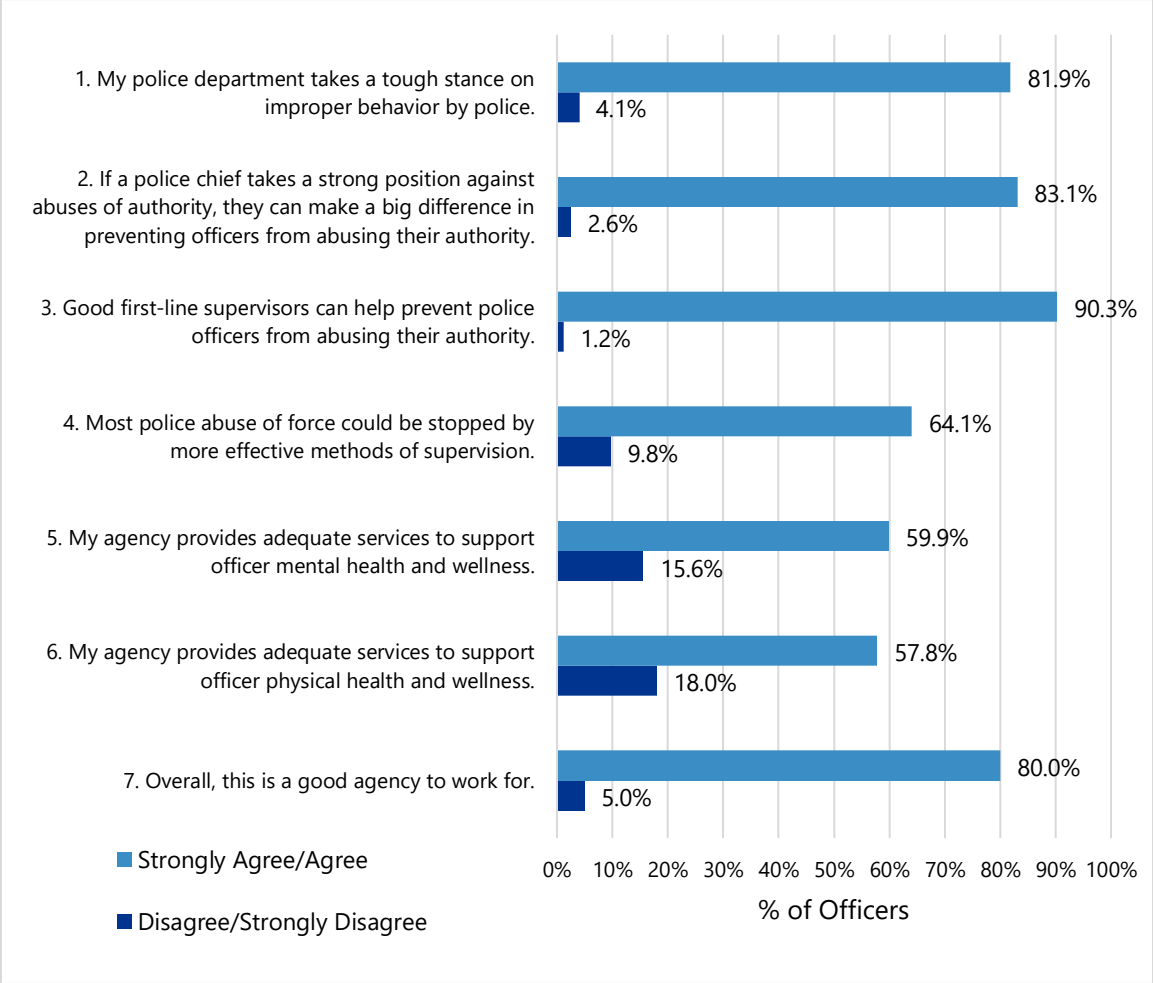
* For list of "other" rank responses, please refer to Appendix B.

Figure 29 presents officers' general perceptions of their agency and mechanisms to prevent misconduct obtained from the pre-training survey (a table of full results can be found in Appendix B). Officers were asked about their department's stance on police misbehavior and willingness to support officer health and wellness, as well as their personal satisfaction with their department. Respondents indicated their level of agreement using a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree) to seven survey items. Figure 29 displays the percentage of officers who indicated they agree (combining "Agree" and "Strongly Agree" response categories) or disagree (combining "Disagree" and "Strongly Disagree" response categories) with each statement.

As shown in Figure 29, responding officers reported generally positive views of their agencies (see Items 1, 5–7). Most officers (81.9%) agreed that their agency takes a tough stance against improper police behavior (Item 1). A slight majority reported that their agency provides adequate mental health and wellness (59.9%) and physical health and wellness (57.8%) services (Items 4 and 5). Overall, 80.0% of responding officers suggested satisfaction with the agency they work for (Item 7).

Officers also expressed general beliefs about the capacity of agency leadership and effective supervision to prevent police officers' abuse of authority (see Items 2–4). For example, 83.1% of officers suggested that the Chief of Police can make a significant difference in preventing officers from abusing their authority (Item 2). An overwhelming majority of officers (90.3%) agreed that officers' abuse of authority can be prevented by good first-line supervisors (Item 3). Finally, 65.1% of responding officers suggested that most police abuse of force could be stopped through effective supervision.

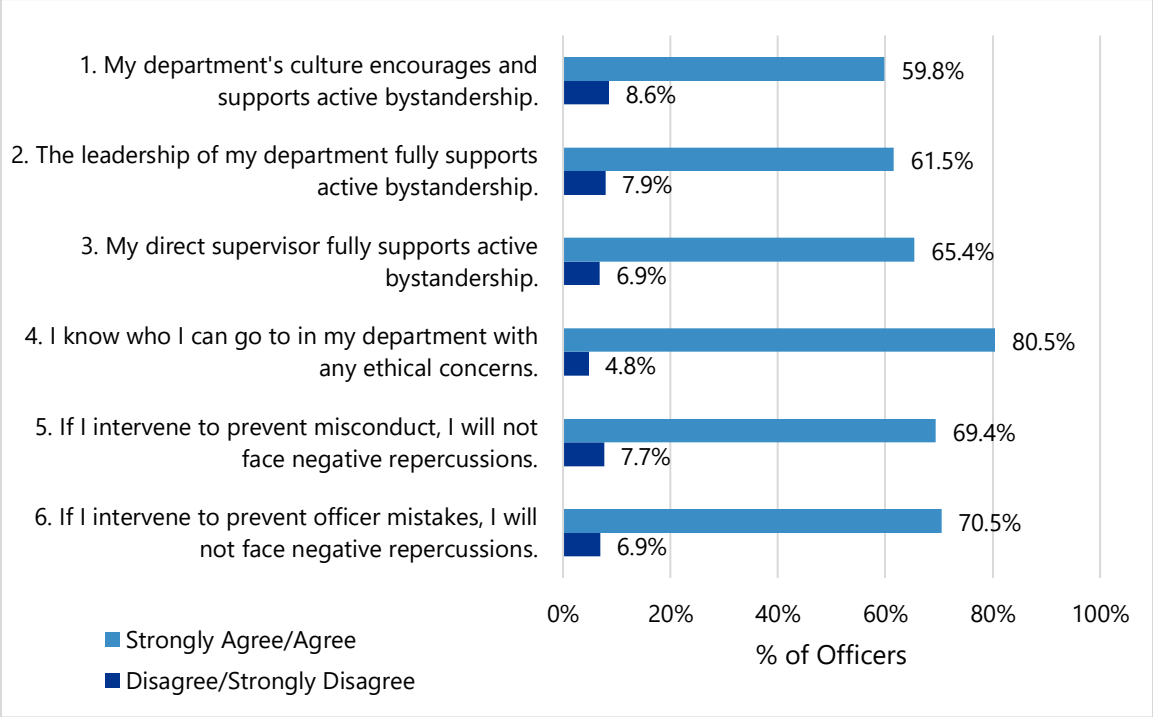
*Figure 29. Pre-Training Perceptions of Officers' Agencies**



* Neutral responses are excluded; responses may not add up to 100%.

Officers were also asked to report their level of agreement to statements related to active bystandership within their agency, including support for active bystandership (Items 1-3), perceived repercussions for intervening to prevent officer misconduct or mistakes (Items 5 and 6), and knowledge of where to go with ethical concerns (Item 4). As seen in Figure 30 the majority of surveyed officers agreed that their department encourages a culture of active bystandership and that negative repercussions would not be faced if an officer intervened with a colleague. Additionally, 80.5% of officers suggested they knew who to go to in their agency if they had ethical concerns. Notably, fewer than 10% of survey respondents expressed disagreement across these survey items. Taken together, these findings suggest officers perceived considerable support for active bystandership by their respective agencies.

*Figure 30. Pre-Training Views of Active Bystandership within Agency**



* Neutral responses are excluded; response may not add up to 100%.

Prior to participating in the ABLE training, officers were asked to report their experiences with peer intervention in the past three months, including experiences where they have personally intervened with a colleague and/or have had a colleague intervene with them. As shown in Table 11, officers reported that intervention of any kind was quite rare (see Items 1–6). The most common type of intervention reported by officers was intervening to prevent a mistake by a colleague (Item 1, 29.9%) and intervening to protect a colleague's health and wellbeing (Item 6, 20.6%). Notably fewer officers reported instances in the past three months where a colleague intervened on their behalf. For example, only 14.5% of officers reported a colleague intervening with them to prevent a work-related mistake (Item 4). Only 8.5% of officers reported a colleague intervening to protect their health and wellbeing (Item 6). Finally, only 2.2% of officers suggested a colleague had intervened with them to prevent harm or significant policy violation (Item 5).

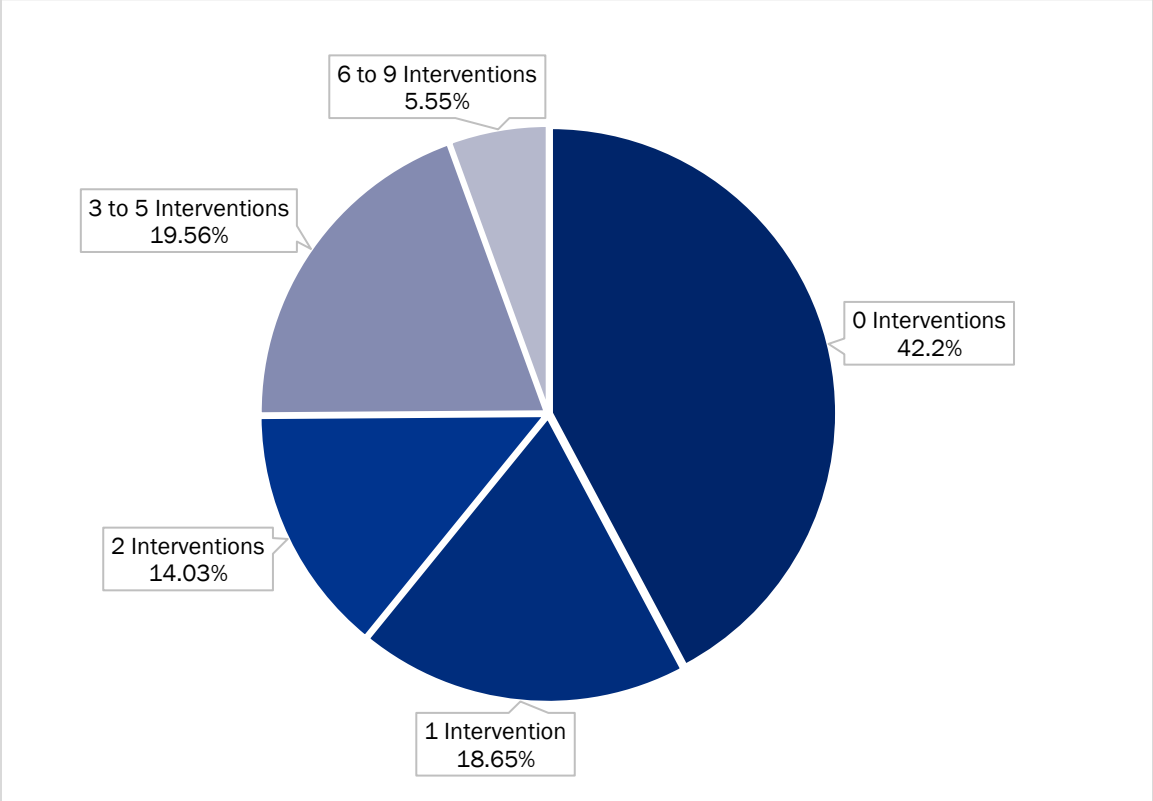
Other intervention-related activities appeared to be more common among officers, including self-regulation through tactical breathing or other self-calming techniques (Item 7, 30.2%) and discussing effective forms of intervention with their field partner (Item 9, 27.0%).

Table 11. Officer Prior Intervention Activity, Pre-Training Survey

Over the past 3 months …		No	Yes
1. Have you intervened to prevent a mistake by a colleague?	Freq.	10,355	4,409
	Percent	**70.1**	**29.9**
2. Have you intervened to prevent an act of misconduct by a colleague?	Freq.	13,705	1,058
	Percent	**92.8**	**7.2**
3. Have you intervened to protect a colleague's health and wellbeing?	Freq.	11,722	3,040
	Percent	**79.4**	**20.6**
4. Has a colleague intervened to prevent you from making a work-related mistake?	Freq.	12,617	2,146
	Percent	**85.5**	**14.5**
5. Has a colleague intervened to prevent you from causing harm to another or from committing a significant policy violation?	Freq.	14,434	328
	Percent	**97.8**	**2.2**
6. Has a colleague intervened in a situation with you to protect your health and wellbeing?	Freq.	13,505	1,256
	Percent	**91.5**	**8.5**
7. Other than during training, have you used a quality/tactical breath, or other self-calming technique, while on duty?	Freq.	10,302	4,457
	Percent	**69.8**	**30.2**
8. Have you spoken with your partner in the field about your known triggers in the field?	Freq.	12,025	2,736
	Percent	**81.5**	**18.5**
9. Have you spoken with your partner in the field about how best to intervene with you if necessary?	Freq.	10,784	3,978
	Percent	**73.1**	**27.0**

The average number of intervention activities reported by officers is examined using an additive scale summing officers' "yes" responses to the nine survey items presented in Table 11. Officers' average number of intervention activities reported in the three months before the ABLE training was 1.59 (SD = 2.0) with a median that was equal to 1. As shown in Figure 31, 42.2% of officers did not engage in any intervention activity in the past 3 months, 18.7% participated in 1 activity, and 14.0% participated in 2 intervention activities. A total of 110 officers (0.8%) reported participating in all nine activities.

Figure 31. Officer Intervention Activity Counts Over Past Three Months, Pre-Training Survey



OFFICER REACTIONS TO ABLE TRAINING

This section presents officers' perceptions of the ABLE training (i.e., Receptivity to ABLE Training) and self-reported confidence in using the skills taught during the course (i.e., Confidence in ABLE Skill Application). These perceptions were captured in the post-training survey immediately following officers' training participation.

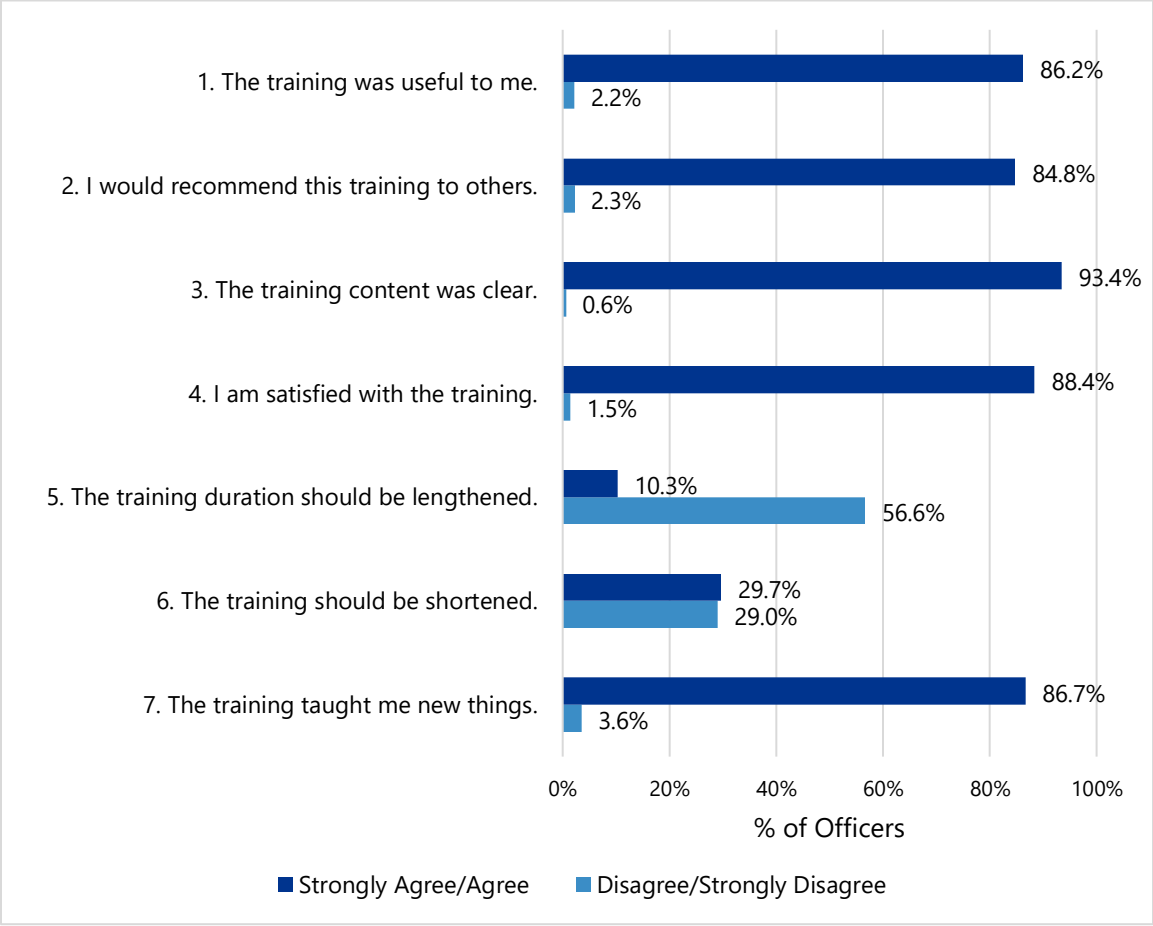
Officer Receptivity to ABLE Training

Seven survey items were designed to assess officers' receptivity to the ABLE training. Officers were asked to provide their agreement to seven statements related to their perceptions of the delivery and value of the training using a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Figure 32 presents officers' responses across these items. Within this Figure, response categories have been collapsed to represent officers' agreement (i.e., "Agree" and "Strongly Agree) and disagreement (i.e., "Disagree"

and "Strongly Disagree") to the statements. Full results breaking down findings across the individual response categories can be found in Appendix B of this report.

As shown in Figure 32, 86.2% of officers reported the training was useful to them and 86.7% reported the training taught them new things. Further, 88.4% expressed satisfaction with the training and 84.8% suggested they would recommend the training to others. Altogether, the findings demonstrate that the majority of officers were highly receptive to the ABLE training, expressing positive views of its content and delivery.

*Figure 32. Officer Receptivity to ABLE Training**

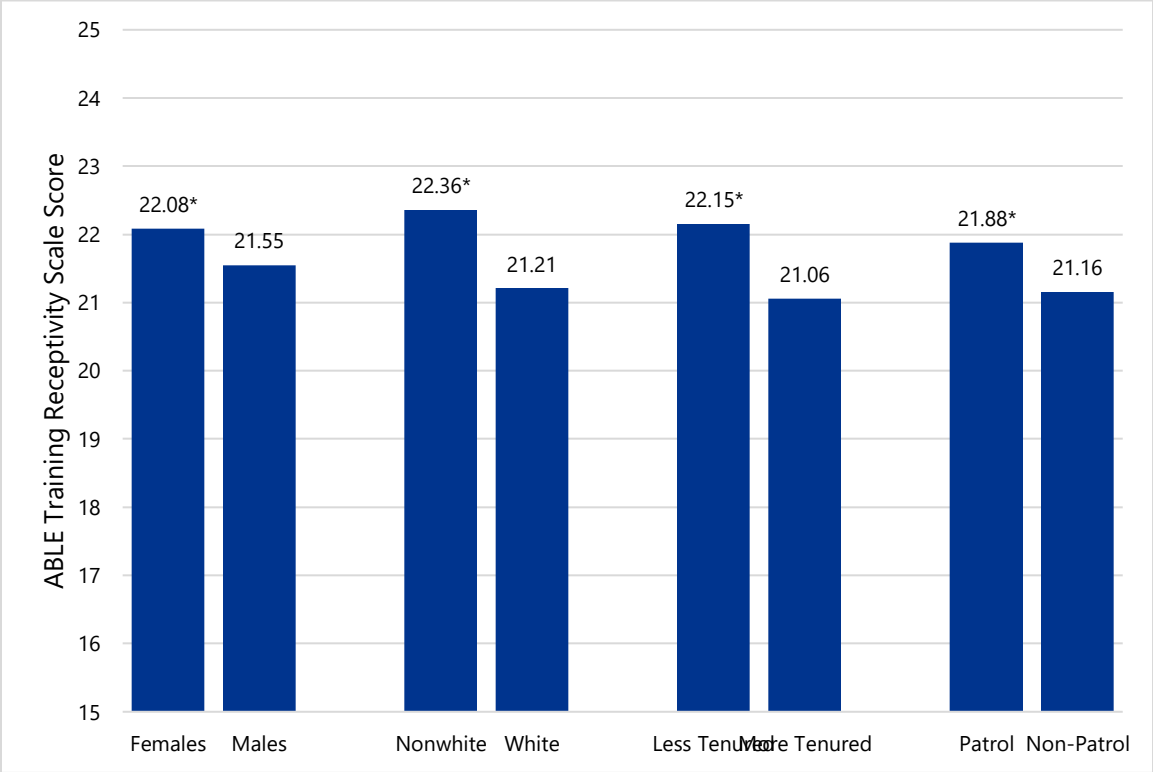


* Neutral response are excluded; responses may not add up to 100%.

To examine differences in training receptivity across different groups of officers, t tests and one-way ANOVA analysis are used to assess variation in the *ABLE Training Receptivity Scale*—an additive scale comprising five of the training receptivity survey items (Items 5 and 6 were excluded). Scores on this scale may range from five to 25.

Comparisons of officers' receptivity to training across demographic characteristics, including gender, race, law enforcement tenure, and assignment, suggest that female (22.08 vs. 21.55), Non-White (22.36 vs. 21.21), and less-tenured (22.15 vs. 21.06) officers are more receptive to ABLE training than their male, White, more-tenured counterparts. Additionally, as shown in Figure 33, patrol officers reported greater receptivity to the ABLE training than officers in non-patrol assignments (21.88 vs. 21.16). Notably, the observed differences across these groups are all statistically significant (*p < .05).

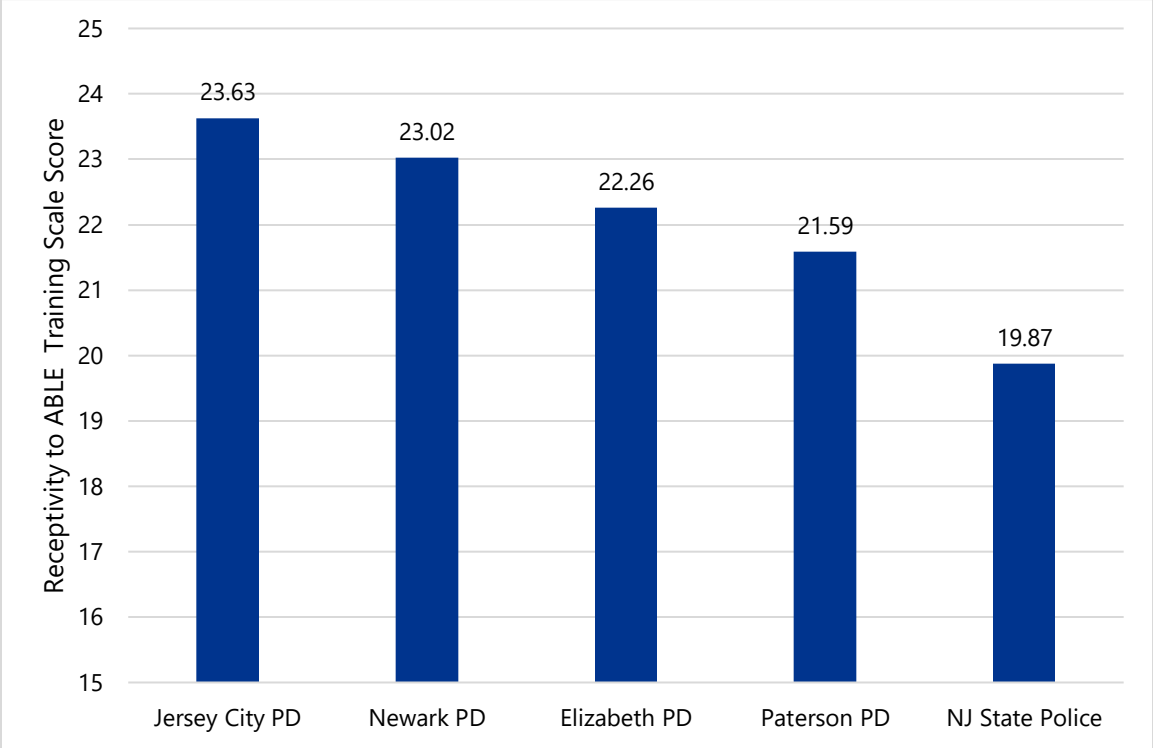
*Figure 33. Officer Demographic Comparisons for Receptivity to ABLE Training**



* An asterisk (*) indicates significance at the $p < 0.05$ level.

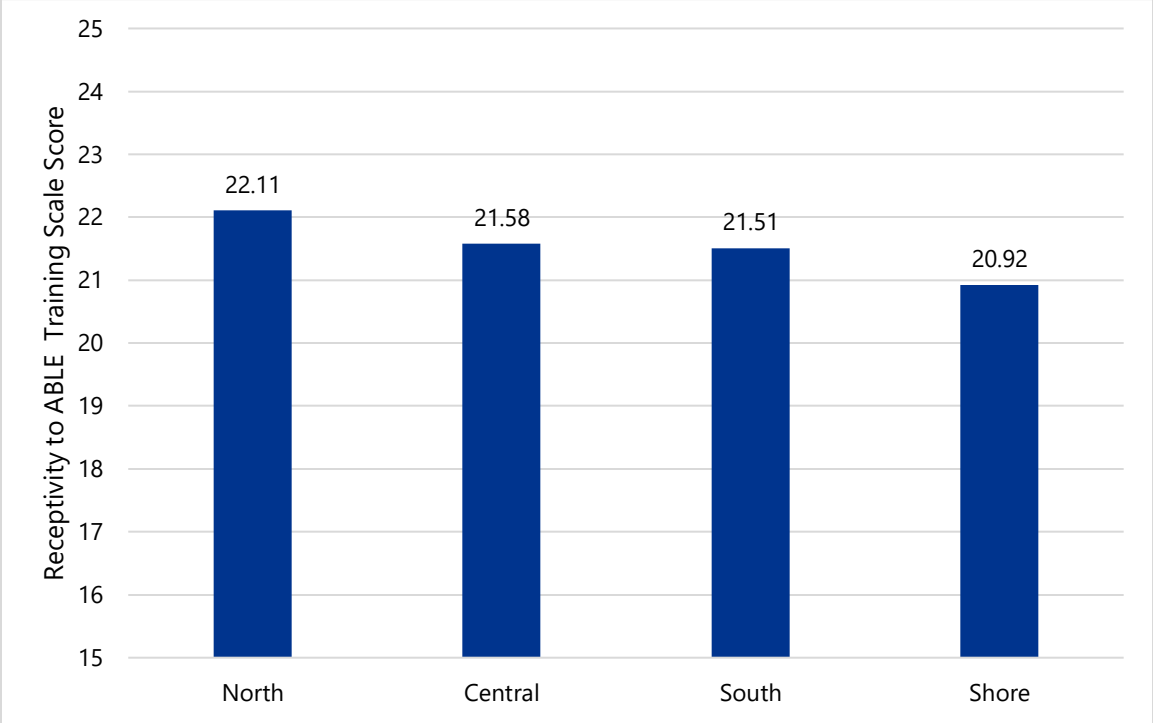
Anova analyses comparing officers' receptivity to the ABLE training across the five largest police departments in New Jersey (New Jersey State Police, Newark Police Department, Jersey City Police Department, Paterson Police Department, and Elizabeth Police Department) suggest that Jersey City officers were significantly more receptive to ABLE training than officers in the four comparison departments. Officers from the Newark Police Department were also significantly more receptive to ABLE training than Paterson and Elizabeth Police Department officers. In contrast, officers from the New Jersey State Police reported significantly lower receptivity to the training.

Figure 34. Departmental Comparisons for Receptivity to ABLE Training



Finally, we examined geographic regions in New Jersey for differences in officers' receptivity to ABLE training. All New Jersey counties were divided into four regions: North, South, Central, and Shore. The average receptivity scores across these regions are presented in Figure 34. The one-way ANOVA analyses suggest that officers in departments within the Northern region of New Jersey report greater receptivity to the ABLE training compared to officers working in the other three regions. Analyses also suggest that officers on the Shore are significantly less receptive to ABLE training than officers working in the Central, Northern, and Southern regions of New Jersey. However, officer receptivity to ABLE training in the Central and Southern regions are similar.

Figure 35. Regional Comparisons for Receptivity to ABLE Training



Officer Confidence in ABLE Skill Application

Seven post-training survey items were used to measure officers' self-reported confidence in applying skills taught as part of the ABLE training, including two new skills taught during ABLE: the 3D's Model (Direct, Distract, and Delegate)[29] and PACT (Probe, Alert, Challenge, Take Action).[30] Skills also included quality breathing, the ability to recognize the need and timing for intervention with colleagues, and noticing excessive stress in self and others. Officers were asked to indicate their level of confidence in their ability to apply different skills using a five-point scale (1 = Not at All Confident; 5 = Very Confident).

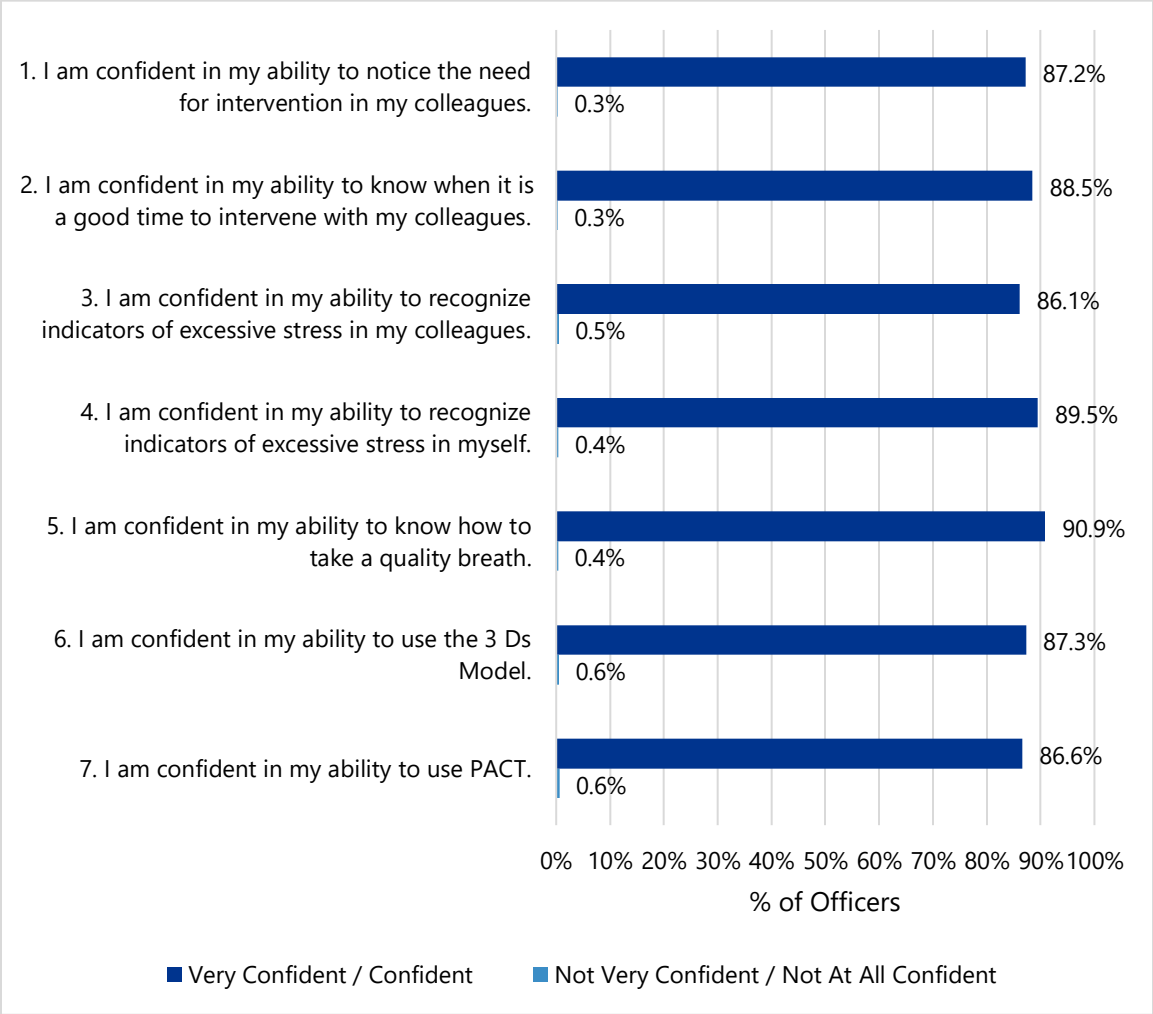
Figure 36 presents officers' responses across these items. Responses have been collapsed to show low confidence (i.e., "Not at All Confident" and "Not Very Confident") and high confidence (i.e., "Confident" and "Very Confident") responses. Complete findings across these items are available in Appendix B of this report. As shown in

[29] This is a model taught in the US Marine Corps to prevent sexual assault through bystander intervention.

[30] This is a framework used by the military and airline industry to help officers intervene with someone of a higher rank.

Figure 36, officers were overwhelmingly confident in their ability to use the seven ABLE skills referenced in the post-training survey, with more than 86% of surveyed officers reporting they were either "confident" or "very confident" in their ability to use each skill.

*Figure 36. Officer Confidence in ABLE Skill Application**



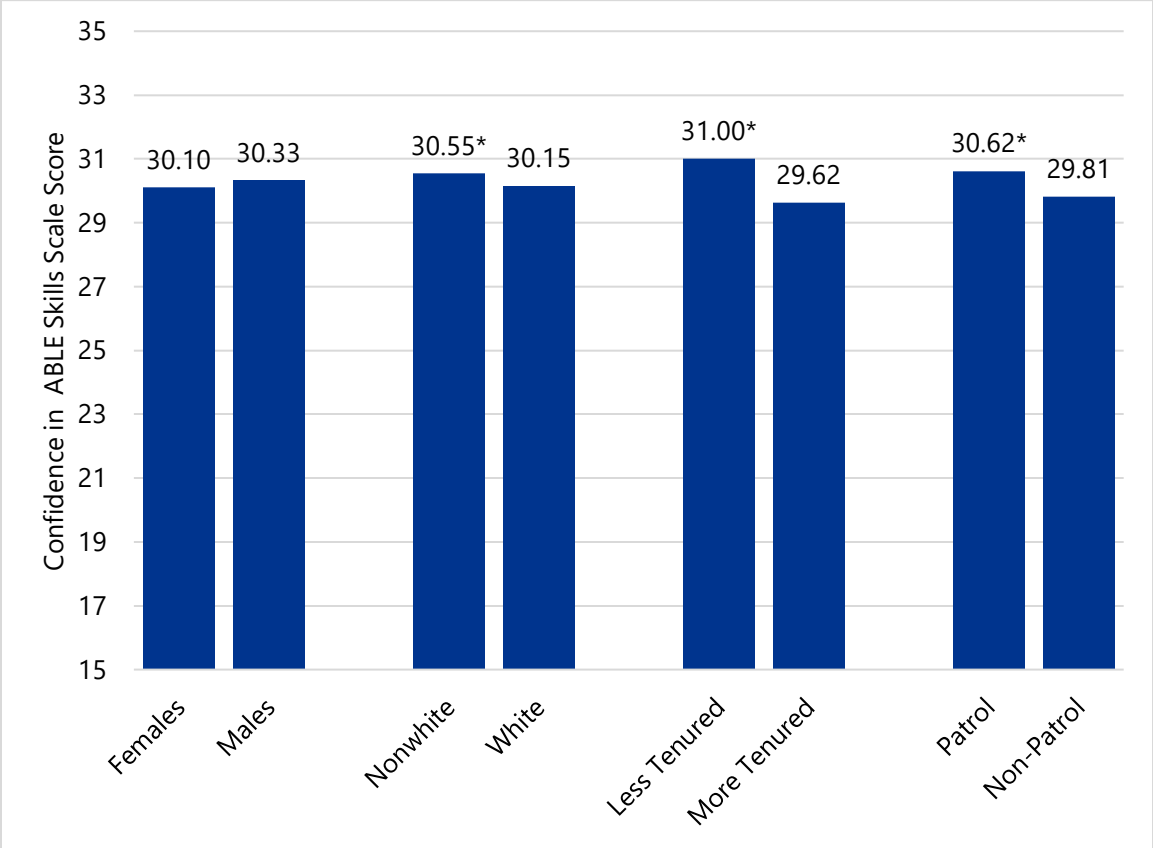
* Neutral responses are excluded; responses may not add up to 100%.

To assess differences in officers' self-reported confidence in using ABLE skills, t tests and one-way ANOVA analysis are used to assess variation in the *Confidence in ABLE Skills Scale*—an additive measure comprised of the seven survey items presented in Figure 36. Scores on this additive scale range from 7 to 35.

Differences in officers' self-reported confidence in skill use by officer demographic characteristics are presented in Figure 37. The findings suggest no significant

differences in confidence in ABLE skill use between female and male officers (30.10 vs. 30.33). However, nonwhite officers were significantly more confident in their ability to use ABLE skills than white officers (30.55 vs. 30.15), as were less tenured officers compared to more tenured officers (31.0 vs. 29.62). Additionally, patrol officers were significantly more confident in their ability to use ABLE skills than nonpatrol officers (30.62 vs. 29.81).

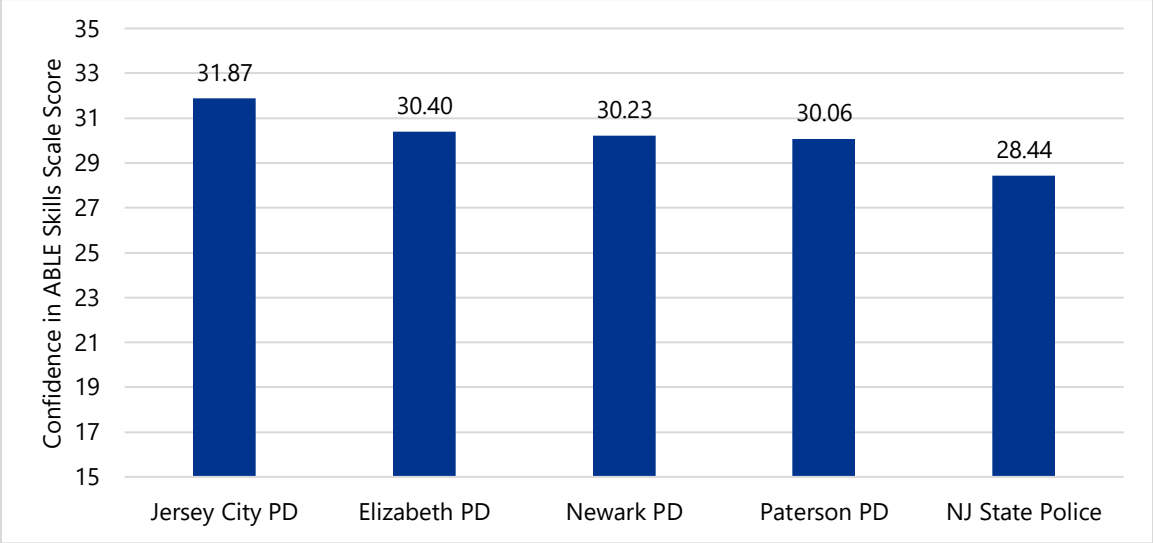
Figure 37. Officer Demographic Comparisons for Confidence in ABLE Skills[†]



[†] An asterisk (*) indicates significance at the $p < 0.05$ level.

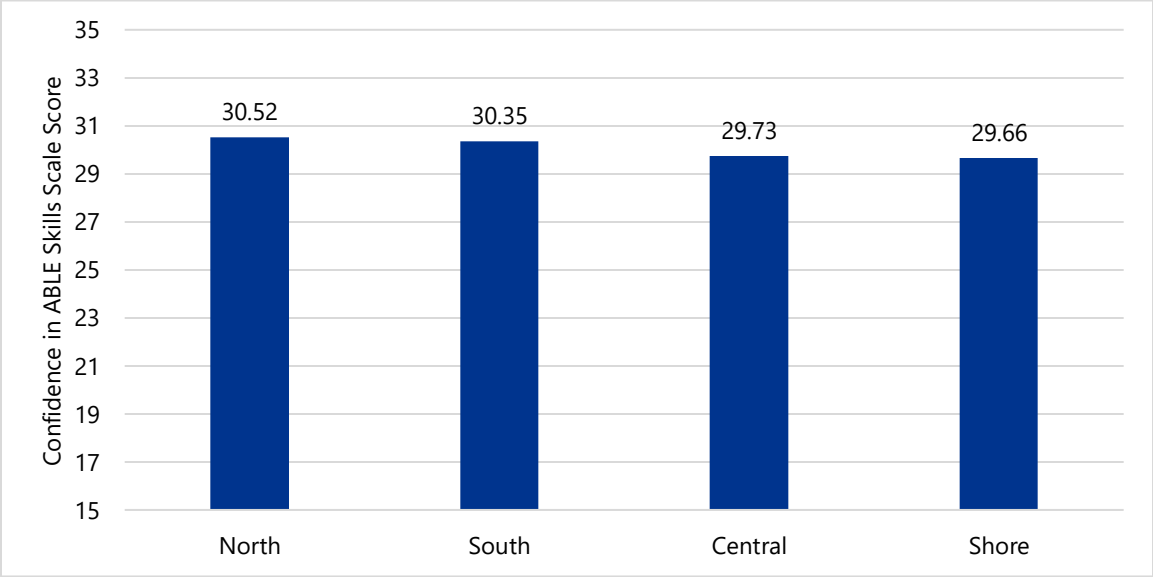
One-way ANOVA analyses comparing officers' confidence in using ABLE skills across the five largest departments in New Jersey (see Figure 38) suggest that Jersey City officers were significantly more confident in their ability to apply ABLE skills following training than officers in the four comparison departments. Additionally, officers from the New Jersey State Police were significantly less confident in their skill use following training when compared to the other four departments. There were no statistically significant differences in officers' confidence scores across the Elizabeth, Newark, and Paterson Police Departments.

Figure 38. Departmental Comparisons for Confidence in ABLE Skills Acquired



Finally, we examined differences in officers' self-reported confidence in ABLE skill use across the four regions of New Jersey. The average scores on the Confidence in ABLE Skills Scale are presented in Figure 39. Findings from the one-way ANOVA analysis suggest that officers from Northern and Southern New Jersey were significantly more confident in their ability to use ABLE skills following training compared to officers in Central and Shore regions of New Jersey. Officers in Northern and Southern New Jersey were similarly confident in acquired skills, as were officers in Central New Jersey compared to officers in the Shore region.

Figure 39. Regional Comparisons for Confidence in ABLE Skills Acquired



DIFFERENCES IN OFFICER PERCEPTIONS, ATTITUDES, AND LIKELIHOOD OF PEER INTERVENTION

This section of the report details the differences in officer perceptions, attitudes, and self-reported behavior (i.e., likelihood of peer intervention) from pre- to post-ABLE training.[31] Specifically, immediate training impacts are considered by comparing pre-training to post-training responses and scores. This change is measured using the *t* test, which assesses statistical differences in the mean score of survey items across the two time points.[32] For each survey item, the tables below display the average or mean scores ("$\bar{x}$"), the standard error ("SE"), the number of respondents ("*N*"), and the *t* statistic with an asterisk (*) demonstrating values that correspond to a *p* value less than 0.05. A dagger (†) is used to identify the Mann-Whitney *U* test sensitivity analyses that have a *p*-values below 0.05. Therefore, an asterisk and a dagger indicate a statistically significant change in responses from pre-training to post-training.

Perceptions of Police Misconduct

Table 12 displays the first set of survey items assessing officers' perceptions related to officer mistakes, misconduct, and health and wellness. This table compares pre- to post-training scores. Fourteen survey items related to officers' perceptions were measured using a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree) to assess officers' level of agreement with each statement. If the ABLE training is effective, it is expected that the items will show an increase in the level of agreement, with the exception of item 7 (i.e., there isn't much need for me to think about police misconduct; that is the job of Internal Affairs) where a decrease in the level of agreement should be observed.

As shown in Table 12, all 14 survey items achieved statistically significant differences between pre-training and post-training scores and all the differences are in the expected direction. For example, greater agreement was observed at post-training compared to pre-training for items such as "I should learn more about how I can prevent police misconduct and mistakes" (Item 8) and "I think there are things I can do to prevent police misconduct by my colleagues" (Item 3). Additionally, a significant

[31] Below we present mean comparisons of survey items. For the complete breakdown of percentages and frequencies for responses to each survey item, please refer to Appendix B.

[32] Inconsistent reporting of identifying information in the surveys (e.g., agency and badge number) largely reduced the number of available responses in which pre- and post-training surveys could be matched. Because of this, we have decided to present and discuss the results obtained from the independent samples t tests to retain the greatest number of responses. The dependent samples t-test results, however, can be found in Appendix B. The results from both methods were largely the same.

decrease in agreement was observed for the one item that was phrased negatively according to the tenets of ABLE (i.e., Item 7, "there isn't much need for me to think about police misconduct; that is the job of Internal Affairs"). Of note, while Item 14—"all officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from using excessive force"—obtained statistical significance when using the *t* test, the significance was not replicated with the Mann-Whitney *U* test. As such, we express caution when interpreting the pre/post difference in this item. The lack of a significant change for this item, however, should not be interpreted as the training not affecting officer perceptions on preventing colleagues from using excessive force. Rather, the lack of a meaningful difference is because officers highly agreed with this statement before participating in ABLE training (95.1% agreed/strongly agreed before training and 95.5% agreed/strongly agreed after training).

The 14 items were combined to create a single additive scale: the *Perceptions of Police Misconduct Scale*. Item 7—which was negatively phrased according to the teachings of ABLE—was reverse-coded so higher values represent greater agreement. In examining this scale, officers' overall perceptions of police misconduct reported in the post-training survey were statistically significantly more aligned with ABLE training tenets than those obtained in the pre-training survey. It appears that officers' perceptions about their ability to impact police mistakes, misconduct, and wellbeing improve after participation in ABLE training.

Table 12. Changes in Officer Perceptions of Police Misconduct

	Pre-Training			Post-Training			*t* Value
	$\bar{x}$	SE	*N*	$\bar{x}$	SE	*N*	
1. I think police misconduct is a problem.	3.33	.01	14511	3.57	.01	12065	16.48*†
2. I think police mistakes are a problem.	3.38	.01	14507	3.64	.01	12061	20.01*†
3. I think there are things I can do to prevent police misconduct by my colleagues.	4.10	.01	14509	4.34	.01	12058	25.69*†
4. I think officer wellness is a problem.	3.63	.01	14497	3.91	.01	12060	22.19*†
5. I think there are things I can do to prevent mistakes by my colleagues.	4.13	.01	14507	4.33	.01	12062	22.50*†
6. I think there are things I can do to prevent officer suicides.	4.08	.01	14509	4.27	.01	12061	19.85*†

7. There isn't much need for me to think about police misconduct; that is the job of Internal Affairs.	1.86	.01	14509	1.84	.01	12064	-2.13*†
8. I should learn more about how I can prevent police misconduct and mistakes.	4.05	.01	14511	4.19	.01	12059	13.87*†
9. I should learn more about how to respond when I see other officers struggling with health or wellness issues.	4.14	.01	14512	4.26	.01	12058	12.69*†
10. All officers have a responsibility to protect a member of the public from physical misconduct by an officer.	4.53	.01	14514	4.56	.01	12061	3.54*†
11. All officers have a responsibility to protect one another from doing something that is likely to have an adverse impact on the officer's own career.	4.45	.01	14512	4.51	.01	12060	7.86*†
12. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from conducting an improper search.	4.45	.01	14512	4.50	.01	12063	6.74*†
13. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from making an improper arrest.	4.47	.01	14515	4.51	.01	12060	5.27*†
14. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from using excessive force.	4.56	.01	14510	4.57	.01	12062	1.99*
Perceptions of Police Misconduct Scale	**57.45**	**.06**	**14483**	**59.34**	**.07**	**12027**	**20.95*†**

* Statistically significant at p < .05 using independent sample *t* test.

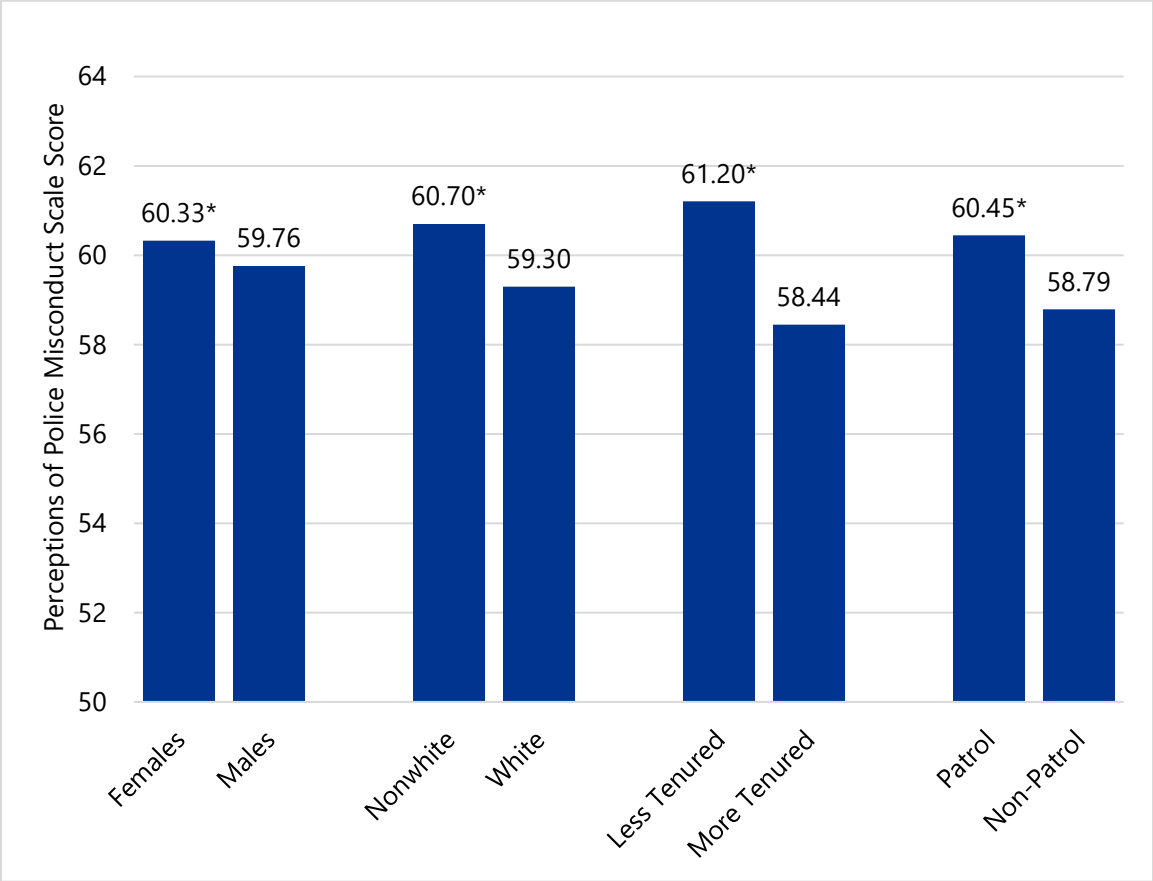
† Statistically significant at p < .05 using non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Our research team also assessed differences in officer perceptions of police misconduct across officer demographics, large departments, and geographic regions in New Jersey. Using the composite *Perceptions of Police Misconduct Scale*, we performed *t* tests and one-way ANOVA analyses to assess meaningful differences across these groups. Higher scores on this scale indicate greater alignment with the ABLE training.

Figure 40 compares officer groupings by gender, race, tenure, and assignment to display differences in these perceptions. Analyses confirm that female officers score significantly higher on this measure compared to male officers (60.33 vs. 59.76, *p < .05), as did nonwhite officers compared to white officers (60.70 vs. 59.30, *p < .05). Less tenured officers held higher scores than more tenured officers (61.20 vs. 58.44, *p <

.05). Additionally, patrol officers had higher scores on the composite measure of perceptions of police misconduct than non-patrol officers (60.45 vs. 58.79, *p < .05). All differences were statistically significant using independent *t*-test analyses; full test results can be found in Appendix B.

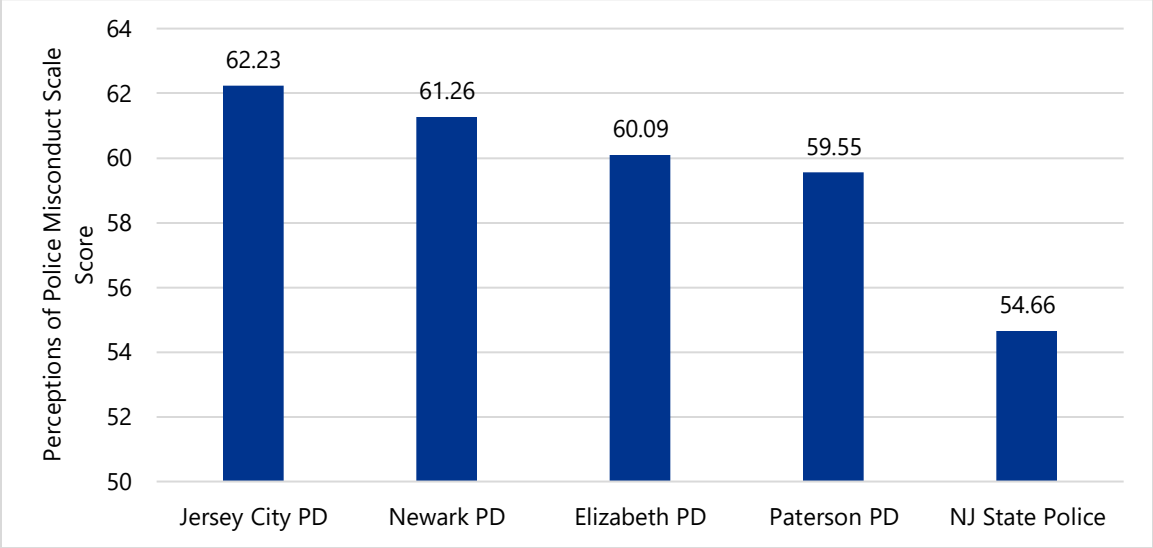
Figure 40. Demographic Comparisons of Perceptions of Police Misconduct After ABLE Training[†]



[†]An asterisk (*) indicates significance at the $p < 0.05$ level.

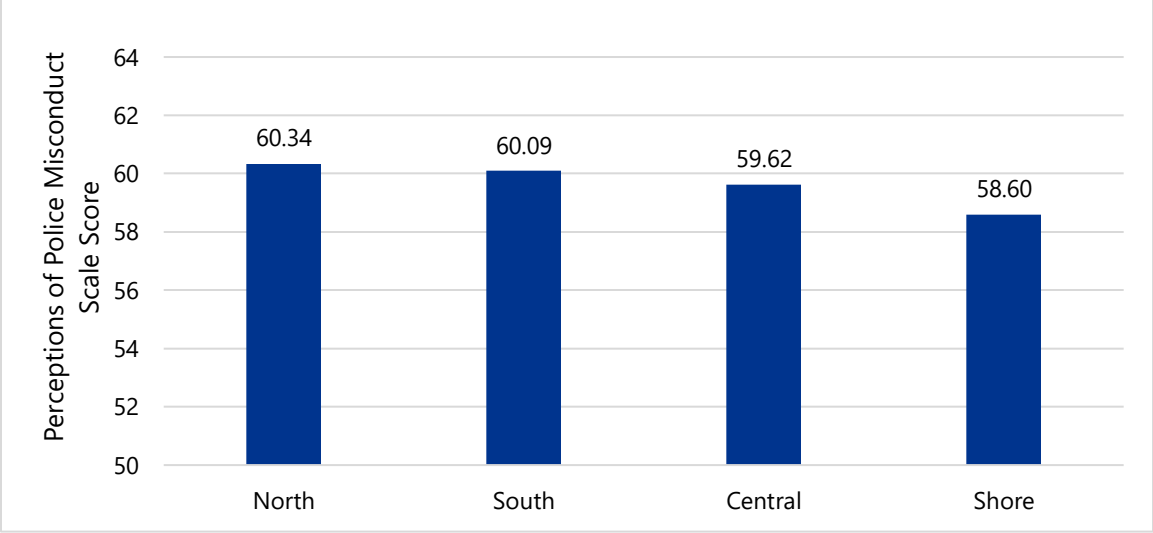
Next, we explored differences in officers' perceptions of police misconduct in the five largest police departments in New Jersey. These average scores are presented in Figure 41. Analyses suggest officers in Jersey City Police Department had significantly higher scores on this measure than Elizabeth Police Department, Paterson Police Department, and New Jersey State Police. Officers from Newark Police Department, Elizabeth Police Department, and Paterson Police Department had similar scores on this measure. Officers from the New Jersey State Police had significantly lower scores on this measure than all four comparison departments.

Figure 41. Departmental Comparisons of Perceptions of Police Misconduct After ABLE Training



Lastly, we compared average officer scores on perceptions of police misconduct for the four regions of New Jersey, shown in Figure 42. Officers in Northern New Jersey had significantly higher scores than those in the Central and Shore regions. Officers from the Shore region had significantly lower scores than officers from all other regions. There were no meaningful differences in scores between officers in the North and South and between the South and Central regions.

Figure 42. Regional Comparisons of Perceptions of Police Misconduct After ABLE Training in New Jersey



Attitudes Towards Active Bystandership

Results for the *t* test for the survey items related to officer attitudes towards active bystandership are shown in Table 13. Twenty-one survey items were used to assess officer attitudes related to ABLE. If the ABLE training is effective, it is expected that some items will show an increase in the level of agreement (e.g., "My colleagues will respect me if I intervene"; "I can make a difference in helping to prevent officer misconduct and mistakes"), while others will show a decrease in the level of agreement (e.g., "Intervening might cost me friendships"; "I could get reprimanded for intervening").

All but one of the 21 items achieved statistically significant differences from pre-training to post-training in the *t*-test analysis (all but Item 7: "Intervening might cost me friendships"). When replicating the results with the Mann-Whitney *U* test, Item 17 ("The concern of being shunned by my colleagues would prevent me from telling another officer that he or she is doing something wrong") joined Item 7 in not reaching a statistically significant difference. As for the statistically significant differences, all were in the direction expected based on the training curricula. For example, officers in the post-training survey reported greater agreement that they "believe their colleagues would listen to them if they spoke out against police misconduct" (Item 19), that they "would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from other officers (regardless of rank)" (Items 12-14), and they "would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with other officers (regardless of rank)" (Items 1-3) compared to the pre-training survey. They also reported significantly less agreement that "the fear of misreading a situation is likely to keep me from intervening" (Item 10) and "the fear of being reprimanded would prevent me from telling a supervising officer that he or she is doing something wrong" (Item 18).

These 21 items were combined to create a single additive scale, ranging from a low of 21 to a high of 105. All items that were phrased in the direction where greater agreement went against the ABLE training curricula (i.e., Items 6-8, 10, and 11) were reverse-coded. Higher values, therefore, represent greater overall agreement with ABLE. For the pre- to post-training comparison, the *Officer Attitudes Towards Bystander Intervention Scale* demonstrates a statistically significant difference where officers reported attitudes that were more aligned with the tenets of ABLE training in the post-training survey compared to the pre-training survey.

Table 13. Changes in Officer Attitudes Towards Bystander Intervention

	Pre-Training			Post-Training			*t* Value
	$\bar{X}$	SE	*N*	$\bar{X}$	SE	*N*	
1. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of the same rank as myself.	4.22	.01	14198	4.34	.01	11803	13.76*†
2. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of a lower rank than myself.	4.22	.01	14194	4.34	.01	11801	13.64*†
3. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of a higher rank than myself.	3.84	.01	14194	4.08	.01	11801	21.79*†
4. My colleagues will respect me if I intervene.	3.80	.01	14187	3.96	.01	11800	17.06*†
5. I will feel like a leader in my police agency if I intervene.	3.38	.01	14188	3.70	.01	11803	26.00*†
6. Intervening with my colleagues might make them angry with me.	3.06	.01	14195	2.98	.01	11802	-6.03*†
7. Intervening with my colleagues might cost me friendships.	2.83	.01	14194	2.83	.01	11798	-.17
8. I could get reprimanded for intervening.	2.34	.01	14191	2.24	.01	11805	-7.41*†
9. I would feel comfortable intervening if I thought a colleague was experiencing a mental health crisis.	4.28	.01	14195	4.36	.01	11801	9.08*†
10. The fear of misreading a situation is likely to keep me from intervening.	2.41	.01	14189	2.36	.01	11799	-4.65*†
11. I have the skills to intervene with a colleague who is engaging in misconduct.	4.07	.01	14191	4.29	.01	11799	26.43*†
12. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of the same rank as myself.	4.17	.01	14193	4.32	.01	11803	17.69*†
13. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of a lower rank than myself.	4.02	.01	14189	4.21	.01	11803	20.23*†
14. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of a higher rank than myself.	4.16	.01	14196	4.30	.01	11801	16.49*†
15. Even people who are not involved in misconduct can do things that help prevent misconduct.	4.17	.01	14194	4.31	.01	11800	17.28*†

16. I would feel comfortable intervening to protect the health and well-being of a colleague.	4.34	.01	14189	4.40	.01	11804	7.98*†
17. The concern of being shunned by my colleagues would prevent me from telling another officer that he or she is doing something wrong.	2.05	.01	14194	2.09	.01	11799	3.43*
18. The fear of being reprimanded would prevent me from telling a supervising officer that he or she is doing something wrong.	2.25	.01	14195	2.18	.01	11799	-5.78*†
19. I believe my colleagues would listen to me if I speak out against police misconduct.	3.95	.01	14192	4.14	.01	11800	19.72*†
20. I have the confidence to say something to a colleague who is acting inappropriately.	4.30	.01	14194	4.37	.01	11802	8.72*†
21. I can make a difference in helping to prevent officer misconduct and mistakes.	4.13	.01	14192	4.30	.01	11802	19.82*†
Attitudes Towards Bystander Intervention Scale	**82.11**	**.09**	**14151**	**84.75**	**.10**	**11781**	**20.09*†**

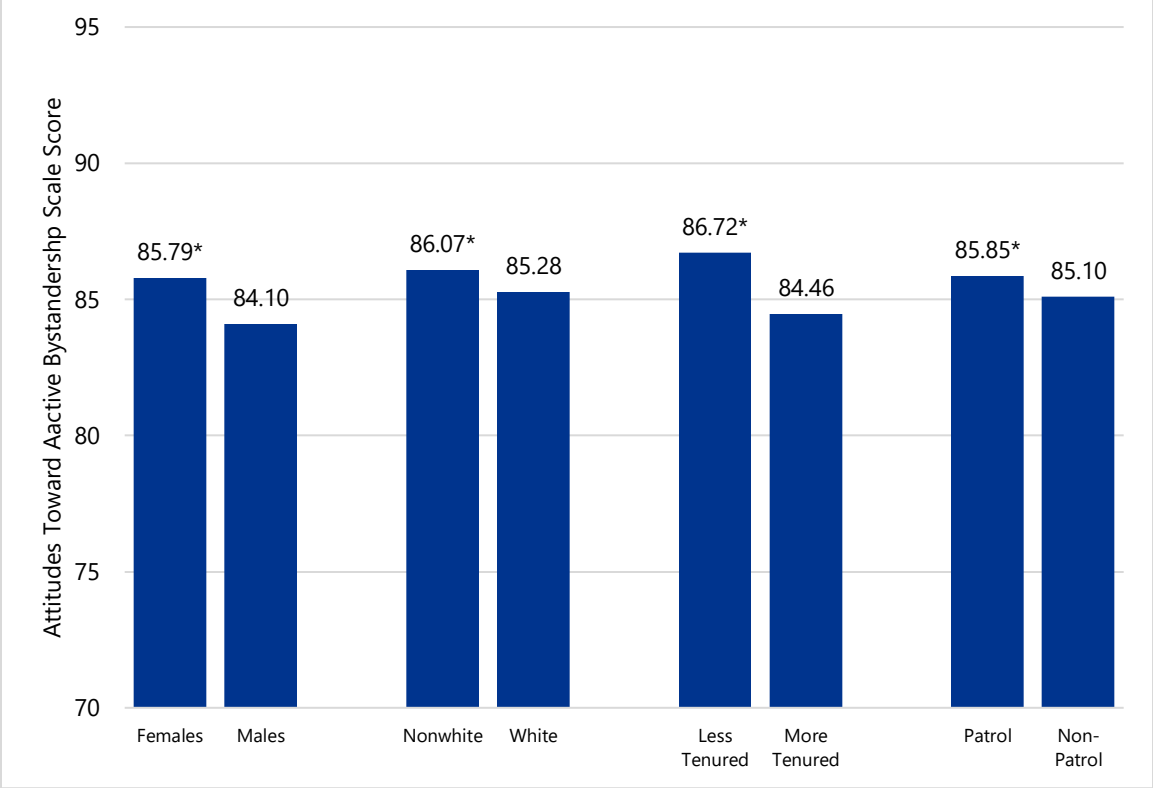
* Statistically significant at p < .05 using independent sample *t* test.

† Statistically significant at p < .05 using non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

In line with our efforts to understand differences in training impacts across officer groups, we used *t* tests for demographic comparisons and one-way ANOVAs for agency and regional comparisons of officer responses to the *Attitudes Toward Bystander Intervention Scale*. The full results of these analyses can be found in Appendix B.

Figure 43 displays the demographic comparisons of officers' scores on the *Attitudes Toward Bystander Intervention Scale* by gender, race, tenure, and assignment. Female officers reported a higher score compared to male officers (85.79 vs. 84.10), and Non-White officers reported a higher score compared to their White counterparts (86.07 vs. 85.28). Additionally, less tenured officers had a higher score than more tenured officers (86.72 vs. 84.46), and patrol officers had a higher score than non-patrol officers (85.85 vs. 85.10). All differences shown in Figure 43 are statistically significant (*p < .05).

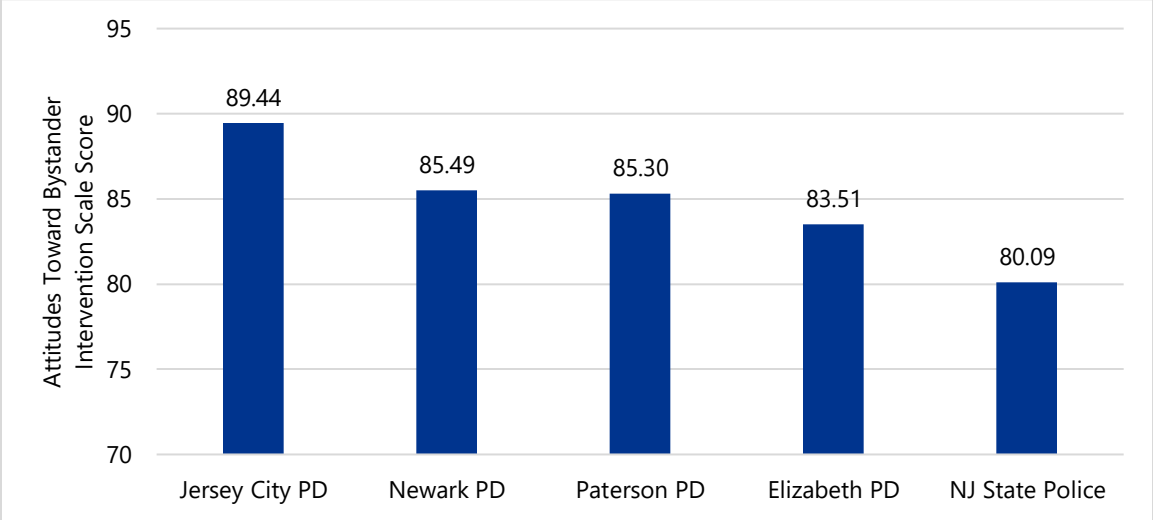
Figure 43. Demographic Comparisons of Attitudes Toward Bystander Intervention After ABLE Training[†]



[†]An asterisk (*) indicates significance at the $p < 0.05$ level.

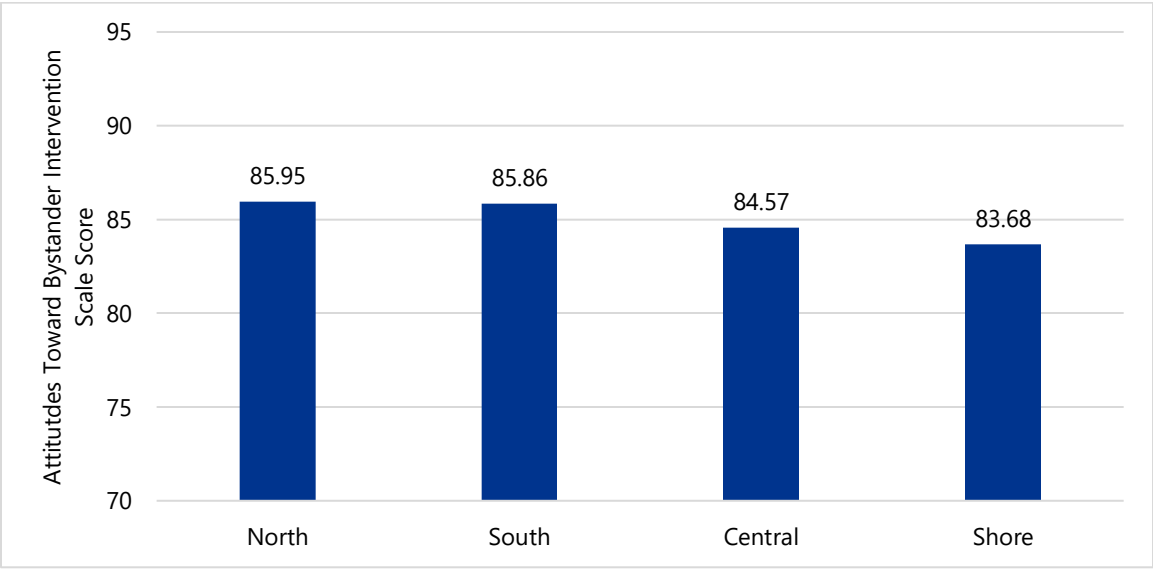
Second, we explored differences in officers' attitudes toward active bystandership after ABLE training for the five largest police departments in New Jersey. Officers' average scores on this composite measure are presented in Figure 44. One-way ANOVA analyses demonstrate that officers from Jersey City Police Department had significantly higher scores than the four comparison police departments. Alternatively, officers from the New Jersey State Police had significantly lower scores than all four comparison departments. Attitudes from officers in Newark, Paterson, and Elizabeth Police Departments were not statistically different.

Figure 44. Departmental Comparisons of Attitudes Toward Bystander Intervention After ABLE Training



The final grouping compared for differences in officers' attitudes toward bystander intervention was geographic regions in New Jersey. Figure 45 shows average scores across these regions. Results of these comparisons suggest that officers in Northern and Southern New Jersey had significantly higher scores on this measure than officers in the Central and Shore regions. Officers in the Shore region scored significantly lower than officers in the other three regions. There were no meaningful differences in scores from North and South New Jersey officers.

Figure 45. Regional Comparisons of Attitudes Toward Bystander Intervention After ABLE Training



Changes in the Likelihood of Peer Intervention within Agencies

Lastly, we measured officers' perceptions of the likelihood of different peer intervention situations occurring in their agency. Seven survey items were included in the pre- and post-training surveys to assess these perceptions. Officers indicated the likelihood of each situation occurring on a five-point scale (1 = Very Unlikely; 5 = Very Likely). The likelihood of each situation occurring within an agency is expected to increase due to ABLE training, with the exception of Item 7 ("in your agency, how likely do you think it is that an officer who intervened would be ostracized, punished, or otherwise retaliated against?"). As shown in Table 14, a statistically significant difference is observed across all seven items from pre- to post-training in both the *t* test and Mann-Whitney *U* test analyses. For Items 1-6, the perceived likelihood of intervention was greater in the post-training survey than at pre-training, while the likelihood for Item 7 was greater in the pre-training survey than at post-training.

An additive scale was created by taking the sum of all seven items (Item 7 was reverse-coded). The *Likelihood of Peer Intervention Scale* was, on average, greater at post-training than pre-training, suggesting that officers believed peer intervention to be more likely to occur in their agency after their completion of the ABLE training compared to before ABLE training.

Table 14. Changes in Likelihood of Peer Intervention within Agency

	Pre-Training			Post-Training			t Value
	$\bar{X}$	SE	N	$\bar{X}$	SE	N	
1. In your agency, how likely do you think it is that another officer would intervene to prevent a mistake by an officer of the same or lower rank?	4.22	.01	13864	4.30	.01	11618	8.39*†
2. In your agency, how likely do you think it is that another officer would intervene to prevent a mistake by an officer of a higher rank?	3.75	.01	13860	3.92	.01	11613	13.65*†
3. In your agency, how likely do you think it is that another officer would intervene to prevent an act of misconduct by an officer of the same or lower rank?	4.22	.01	13862	4.31	.01	11616	9.28*†
4. In your agency, how likely do you think it is that another officer would intervene to prevent an act of misconduct by an officer of a higher rank?	3.80	.01	13858	3.98	.01	11619	14.17*†
5. In your agency, how likely do you think it is that another officer would intervene to protect the health and wellbeing of an officer of the same or lower rank?	4.23	.01	13862	4.33	.01	11619	9.65*†
6. In your agency, how likely do you think it is that another officer would intervene to protect the health and wellbeing of an officer of a higher rank?	3.99	.01	13857	4.12	.01	11617	11.06*†
7. In your agency, how likely do you think it is that an officer who intervened would be ostracized, punished, or otherwise retaliated against?	2.41	.01	13859	2.36	.01	11618	-3.45†
Likelihood of Peer Intervention Scale	**27.80**	**.04**	**13844**	**28.62**	**.05**	**11605**	**12.80*†**

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using independent sample *t* test.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test.

SUMMARY

This section detailed survey responses from 15,142 (pre-training) and 12,623 (post-training) law enforcement officers from New Jersey. The officers completed pre- and post-training surveys that were used to measure training receptivity and attitudes related to the tenets of the ABLE training.

Overall, officer reactions to the training show the ABLE training was positively received by the vast majority of officers in New Jersey. Of those who completed the post-training survey, 86.2% reported the training was useful to them, 86.7% said the training taught them new things, and 84.8% agreed they would recommend the training to others. Furthermore, officers were overwhelmingly confident in their ability to use the skills that were acquired during the training.

We also observed differences in officer attitudes and perceptions from pre-training to post-training. Findings from these analyses showed several positive and significant differences regarding these attitudes when comparing pre-training and post-training responses. The majority of items across all concepts (and the created additive scales/indices) showed statistically significant differences from pre-training to post-training in the expected direction according to the tenets of the ABLE training curricula. As such, these findings demonstrate that the training may lead to attitudinal changes that align with the goals of the training.

It is important to note that these results only represent the initial reactions of officers immediately following completion of the training. It will be important to observe whether the favorable views continue to be held months after the training. We will next turn to the results from two follow-up surveys—one that was completed approximately one-year after ABLE training and one completed approximately two-years after training—to assess how the tenets of ABLE are perceived with time.

VIII. LONG-TERM ABLE IMPACTS ON OFFICER ATTITUDES, PERCEPTIONS, AND SKILL USE

To observe the long-term impact of the ABLE training, the research team administered two follow-up surveys to officers. The first was administered approximately one year after most officers completed ABLE training (Feb/March 2023), and the second was administered approximately two years after most officers completed the training (Feb/March 2024).[33] Both surveys were administered through emails to officers, which included a link to a web-based questionnaire in *Qualtrics*. The surveys included questions related to the ABLE training that were grouped within six different conceptual areas. The survey items presented to officers were the same across the two follow-up surveys. The six sections of the follow-up surveys included:

- *Prior Intervention Activity* – Officers responded to whether they had engaged in any intervention activity with other officers during the past three months (0 = No; 1 = Yes). In total, nine intervention activities were addressed. Here, an intervention is defined as an action taken to prevent, reduce, or stop harm. An intervention may be verbal, non-verbal (e.g., gesture), or physical. It may be subtle or obvious. An intervention can be made prior to, during, or following an incident in which unnecessary harm may be inflicted. Survey items assessing officers' prior intervention activity were also included in the pre-training survey.

- *Likelihood of Peer Intervention* –Seven survey items were measured to determine the perceived likelihood of various intervention activities occurring within the respondent's agency. Respondents were asked to indicate the likelihood using a five-point scale (1 = Very Unlikely; 5 = Very Likely). These items mirror those included in the pre- and post-training surveys.

- *ABLE Skill Application* – Officers were asked to indicate their confidence in performing seven skills taught during the training based on a five-point scale (1 = Not at all Confident; 5 = Very Confident). The same survey items were included in the post-training survey that was administered to officers immediately after the completion of the training.

[33] Follow-up surveys were administered at a single point in time; therefore, some officers may have had less than one year from their initial training to the first follow-up survey, and some officers may have had more than one year. The one-year and two-year labels are approximate and not exact.

- *Follow-Up Reactions to ABLE Training* – 12 survey items assessed respondents' reactions to, perceptions of, and experiences with ABLE training, based on their level of agreement on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree).

- *Use and Reinforcement of ABLE Skills* – Five items were included that addressed how often immediate supervisors reinforce ABLE training and how often ABLE-specific de-escalation skills were used by officers in the last 60 days. Responses were based on a five-point scale (1 = Never; 2 = Seldom; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Frequently).

- *Demographics* – Eight items were used to capture officer demographic characteristics.

As noted in the Section IV, Methodology, only five counties in New Jersey were selected to participate in the follow-up surveys. In total, 593 one-year follow-up and 213 two-year follow-up surveys were collected.[34] The response rates for officer training surveys were calculated using the number of officers in attendance based on ABLE training rosters from the participating counties (7,463 officers). The response rate for the one-year follow-up survey was 7.9%, and 2.9% for the two-year follow-up survey.

Table 15 describes the demographic characteristics of the officers who participated in each wave of survey data collection. The pre-training sample shown here is reduced from the full sample to the five counties where the follow-up surveys were administered.[35] Of note, meaningful differences in demographic characteristics were observed across waves. In particular, when it comes to race and ethnicity, fewer Non-White officers participated in the one-year follow-up than would have been expected if the demographics for all surveys were equal. Furthermore, the follow-up participants were older and had a longer law enforcement tenure than the pre-training participants. Similarly, a greater proportion of non-patrol officers and officers with at least a bachelor's degree completed the follow-up surveys than the pre-training survey.

[34] A breakdown of response counts by county for both surveys can be found in Appendix B.

[35] All comparisons of follow-up surveys are limited to the pre/post responses from the five counties where the follow-up surveys were administered. This enhances our confidence that our comparison groups are more equivalent than comparing pre/post responses from the full sample.

Table 15. Pre-Training, One- and Two-year Follow-Up Sample Demographics

	Pre-Training (*N* = 3,776)		One-Year Follow- Up (*N* = 590)		Two-Year Follow- Up (*N* = 210)	
	%	(*n*)	%	(*n*)	%	(*n*)
Gender						
Male	11.17	(384)	9.11	(39)	15.79	(27)
Non-male	88.83	(3,054)	90.89	(389)	84.21	(144)
Age						
18-20 years old	0.49	(17)	0.47	(2)	0.58	(1)
21-24 years old	5.81	(200)	2.34	(10)	0.58	(1)
25-29 years old	18.37	(632)	9.84	(42)	9.30	(16)
30-34 years old	18.60	(640)	13.82	(59)	13.95	(24)
35-39 years old	15.29	(526)	17.56	(75)	14.53	(25)
40-44 years old	14.51	(499)	16.16	(69)	12.79	(22)
45-49 years old	12.35	(425)	18.97	(81)	23.84	(41)
50+ years old	14.56	(501)	20.84	(89)	24.42	(42)
Race/Ethnicity						
White	69.35	(2,374)	81.41	(346)	69.09	(114)
Non-white	30.65	(1,049)	18.59	(79)	30.91	(51)
LE Tenure						
Less than 1 year	5.03	(173)	0.47	(2)	1.75	(3)
1 – 4 years	18.86	(649)	9.22	(39)	5.85	(10)
5 – 9 years	23.19	(798)	17.26	(73)	14.04	(24)
10 – 14 years	11.71	(403)	12.29	(52)	12.28	(21)
15 – 19 years	14.82	(510)	18.44	(78)	21.64	(37)
20 or more years	26.39	(908)	42.32	(179)	44.44	(76)
Education						
Less than Bachelor's Degree	59.33	(2,038)	45.50	(192)	44.71	(76)
Bachelor's Degree or Greater	40.67	(1,397)	54.50	(230)	55.29	(94)
Rank						
Patrol Officer	59.62	(2,049)	40.76	(172)	26.79	(45)
Non-Patrol Officer	40.38	(1,388)	59.24	(250)	73.21	(123)

Note: Missing responses have been removed for percent calculation. For a complete list of demographic responses, refer to Appendix B.

DATA ANALYSES

The statistical approach to assess the follow-up survey data include: (1) descriptive analyses of survey items presented in the follow-up surveys, (2) one-way analysis-of-variance (ANOVA) models for comparison of survey items measured across three waves of officer surveys (i.e., pre-training, one-year follow-up, and two-year follow-up), and (3) independent *t*-test comparisons of survey items presented across two waves of

measurement (e.g., one-year follow-up and two-year follow-up).[36] Taken together, findings are produced from both descriptive analyses and bivariate statistical comparisons. Of note, the assumptions of the parametric methods used in our analyses—specifically, that the underlying population distributions are normal and continuous—are violated for many of the survey items assessed here. Although the analytic methods are quite robust to such violations (see Agresti et al., 2016), we test the robustness of the results using the nonparametric equivalent for each parametric method (i.e., Mann-Whitney *U* test for independent *t* test and Kruskal-Wallis *H* test for one-way ANOVA). While nonparametric methods have less statistical power, statisticians have shown that nonparametric tests are nearly as good as their parametric counterparts even when parametric assumptions are met (Agresti et al., 2016). In this report, the research team considers tests with *p* values lower than the conventional 0.05 level to be statistically meaningful. These differences are denoted in all tables with an asterisk (*) for parametric analyses and a dagger (†) for nonparametric analyses.

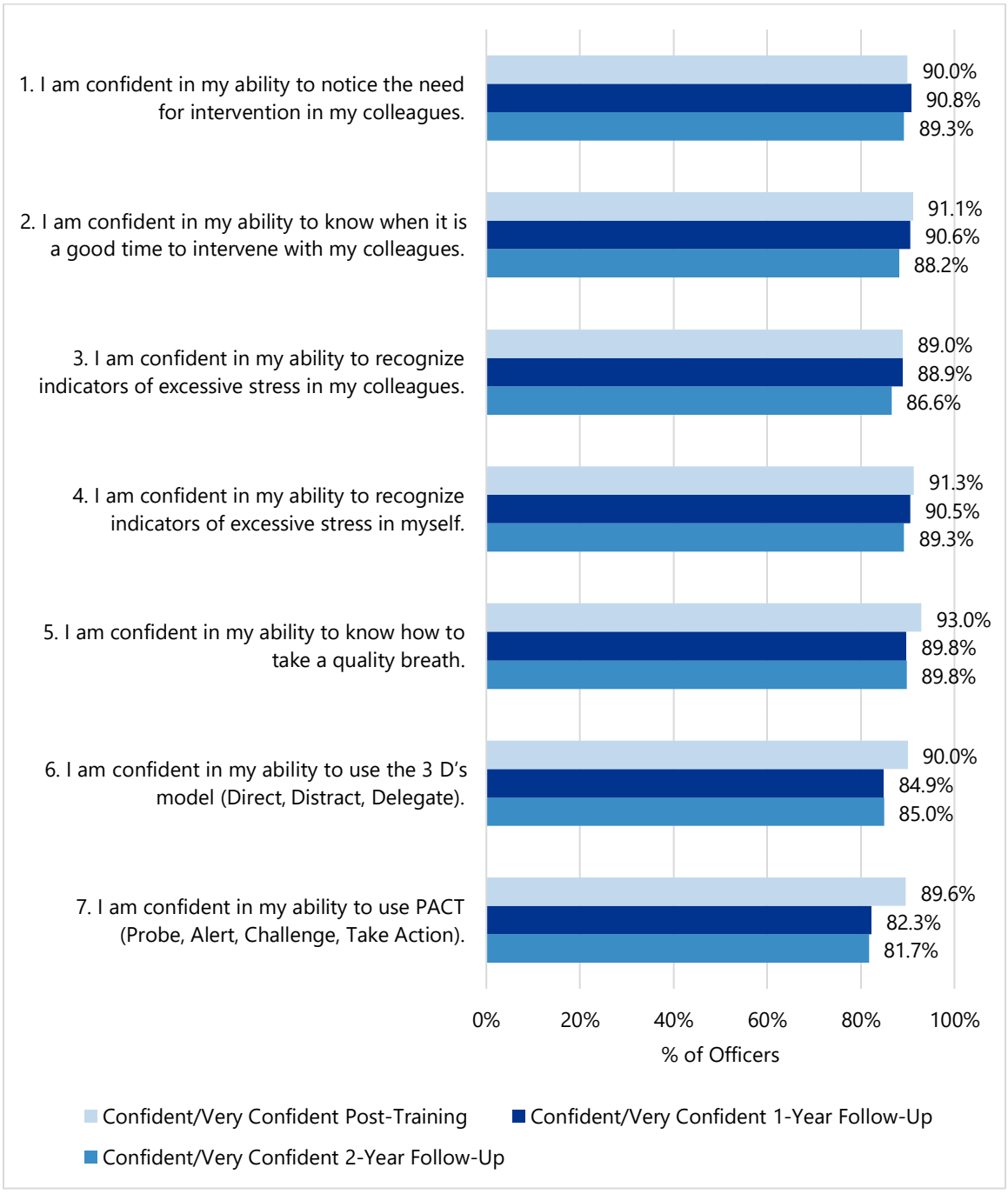
OFFICER CONFIDENCE IN ABLE SKILL USE

Seven items within the post-training and follow-up training surveys were designed to assess officers' self-reported confidence in using skills taught in the ABLE curriculum. Officers reported their confidence in their ability to apply these skills using a five-point scale (1= Not at All Confident; 5 = Very Confident) at the three points of measurement. An additive *Confidence in ABLE Skills* scale was constructed by summing together officers' responses across the individual items. Scores on this additive scale range from 7 to 35.

Figure 46 presents the percentage of officer responses to each of the items assessing their confidence in their ability to use the ABLE skills. Specifically, the percentage of officers responding that they are "Confident" or "Very Confident" in their ability to use ABLE skills is shown. Full results across these survey items are available in Appendix B. The findings outlined in Figure 46 suggest that, although their confidence in their ability to apply ABLE skills decreased slightly over time, officers maintained high levels of confidence one and two years after training.

[36] We did not ask participants to provide individual-level identifying information (e.g., names, badge numbers). As a result, we were unable to match follow-up survey responses to other waves of data collection. Within-individual across-wave comparisons were, therefore, not possible.

*Figure 46. Self-Reported Confidence in ABLE Skills**



* Only Confident/Very Confident responses are shown; responses may not add up to 100%.

As shown in Table 16, findings produced from statistical comparisons of officers' responses across the post-training and follow-up surveys were inconsistent. In the one-way ANOVA analyses, Items 6 and 7 were found to have mean differences across

surveys that were statistically significant. Yet, these significant differences *were not* replicated with the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* test. As such, we encourage caution in interpreting the observed differences obtained in the ANOVA analyses.

Kruskal-Wallis *H* test analyses reveal a significant difference in officers' responses across the survey waves for Items 1, 2, and 4. Post-hoc comparisons demonstrate statistically significant differences between the scores reported in the post-training survey and the one-year follow-up survey, where those reporting in the follow-up survey had greater confidence. **However, when reviewing the composite *Confidence in ABLE Skills Scale,* there were no statistically meaningful changes across the waves of the survey.**

Table 16. Comparisons of Officer Self-Reported Confidence in ABLE Skills

I am confident…		$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*F*	*H*
1. Noticing the need for intervention in my colleagues.	Post	4.34 (.01)	1.31	11.99†
	FU1	4.40 (.04)		
	FU2	4.38 (.06)		
2. Knowing when it is a good time to intervene with my colleagues.	Post	4.37 (.01)	2.25	17.80†
	FU1	4.43 (.04)		
	FU2	4.42 (.06)		
3. Recognizing indicators of excessive stress in my colleagues.	Post	4.32 (.01)	.26	3.67
	FU1	4.34 (.04)		
	FU2	4.30 (.06)		
4. Recognizing indicators of excessive stress in myself.	Post	4.39 (.01)	2.26	14.10†
	FU1	4.45 (.04)		
	FU2	4.35 (.06)		
5. Knowing how to take a quality breath.	Post	4.45 (.01)	.27	3.04
	FU1	4.43 (.04)		
	FU2	4.45 (.06)		
6. Using the 3 D's model (Direct, Distract, Delegate).	Post	4.36 (.01)	5.32*	0.52
	FU1	4.25 (.04)		
	FU2	4.28 (.07)		
7. Using PACT (Probe, Alert, Challenge, Take Action).	Post	4.36 (.01)	12.56*	4.20
	FU1	4.21 (.04)		
	FU2	4.18 (.07)		
Confidence in ABLE Skills Scale	**Post**	**30.60 (.08)**	**.29**	**0.80**
	FU1	**30.51 (.23)**		
	FU2	**30.38 (.39)**		

Pre = Pre-Training; FU1= one-year follow-up; FU2 = two-year follow-up.

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using One-way ANOVA.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

The differences observed in the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test analyses are masked in Figure 16 because of the data reduction used to simplify the visual. For example, the Figure shows the percent of officers who responded with "Confident" or "Very Confident" to all three items was either nearly equivalent with or slightly greater in the post-training survey than the one-year follow-up survey (i.e., the opposite of the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test results).

Within the uncollapsed categories, however, differences exist in the percentage of officers who were "Confident" or "Very Confident." For example, approximately 45% of post-training respondents and 53% of one-year follow-up survey respondents reported being "Very Confident" in their ability to notice the need for intervention in their colleagues (Item 1). Furthermore, the differences in reports of being "Very Confident" were approximately 46% and 57% for knowing when it is a good time to intervene with their colleagues (Item 2) and approximately 48% and 59% for being able to recognize indicators of excessive stress in themselves (Item 4) (see Appendix B). **This suggests officers are moving from confident to very confident in their ability to use several ABLE skills over time.**

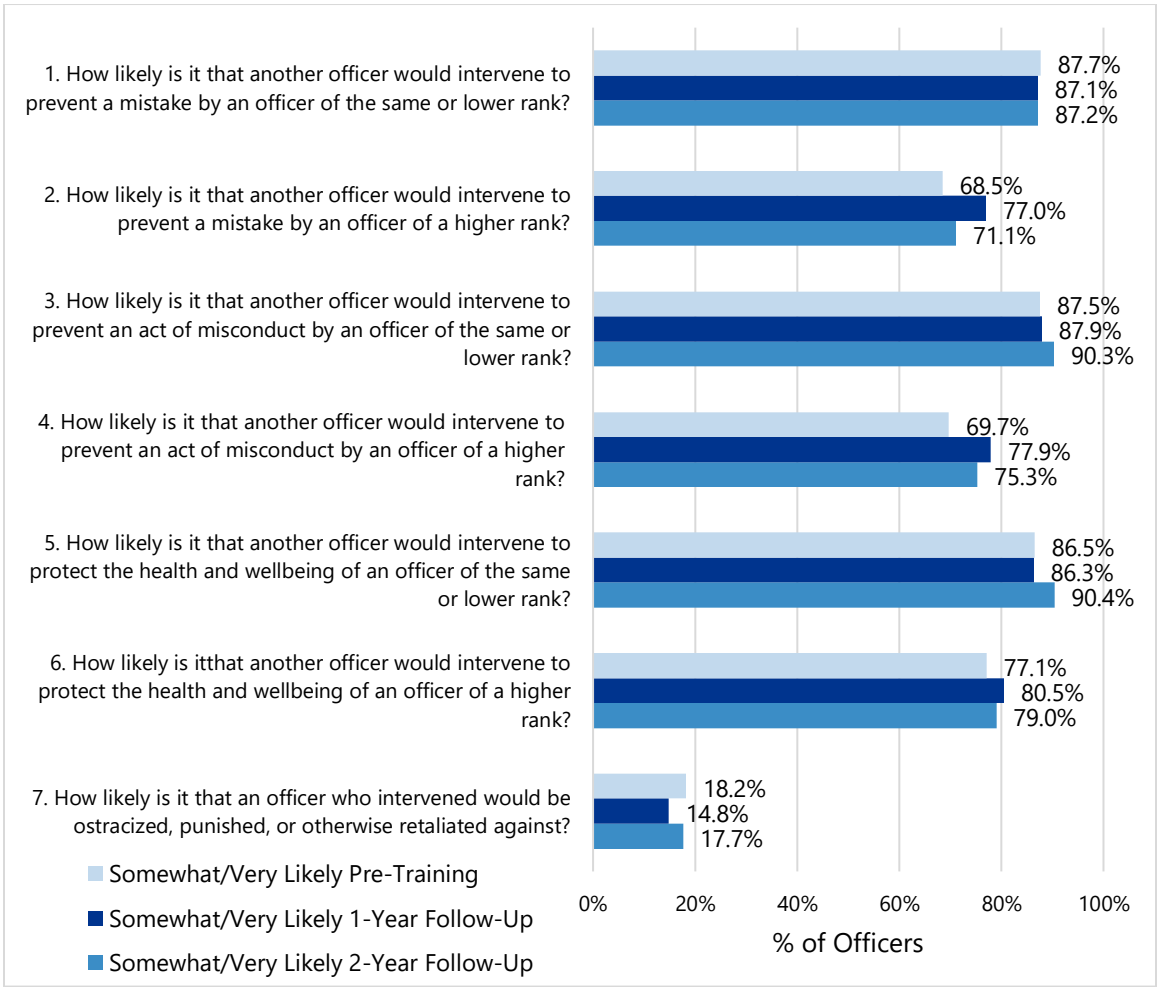
LIKELIHOOD OF PEER INTERVENTION WITHIN AGENCY

To assess officers' perceptions of the likelihood of peer intervention within their agencies, seven survey items were included in the pre-, post-, and follow-up training surveys. These items presented different intervention-related situations and asked officers to indicate the likelihood (1 = very unlikely; 3 = neither likely nor unlikely; 5 = very likely) of the situation occurring in their agency. With the exception of Item 7 ("In your agency, how likely do you think it is that an officer who intervened would be ostracized, punished, or otherwise retaliated against?"), the perceived likelihood of each situation occurring with an agency is expected to increase following ABLE training. In addition to the individual items, an additive scale was created by taking the sum of officers' responses across the seven items (Item 7 was reverse-coded).

This section considers officers' responses that were collected in the pre-training survey and both follow-up surveys. Such comparisons allow for the observation of differences in officers' perceptions of the likelihood of peer intervention before training and approximately one and two years after training. Figure 47 displays the percentage of officer responses to each of the individual items. To simplify the displaying of results, we only show the percent of officers who provided a response of either "Somewhat Likely" or "Very Likely." Full results across these survey items are available in Appendix B.

Six of the seven items (all but Item 6) were found to have a mean difference in the pre-training and follow-up surveys that reached statistical significance using the parametric one-way ANOVA test, yet all items were found to have a statistically significant difference when using the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* test. The observed differences for all items were in the expected direction, where officers noted a greater likelihood of intervention over time. Of note, some of these differences are masked in Figure 47 due to the data reduction (i.e., the collapse of response categories) to simplify the visual. For example, the figure shows that the percentage of officers who responded with "Somewhat Likely" or "Very Likely" to Item 1 were nearly equivalent across each wave of survey collection. Variation, however, is observed within the individual categories. Specifically, approximately 44% responded to Item 1 with "Very Likely" in the pre-training survey, while approximately 61% and 63% responded with "Very Likely" in the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys (see Appendix B).

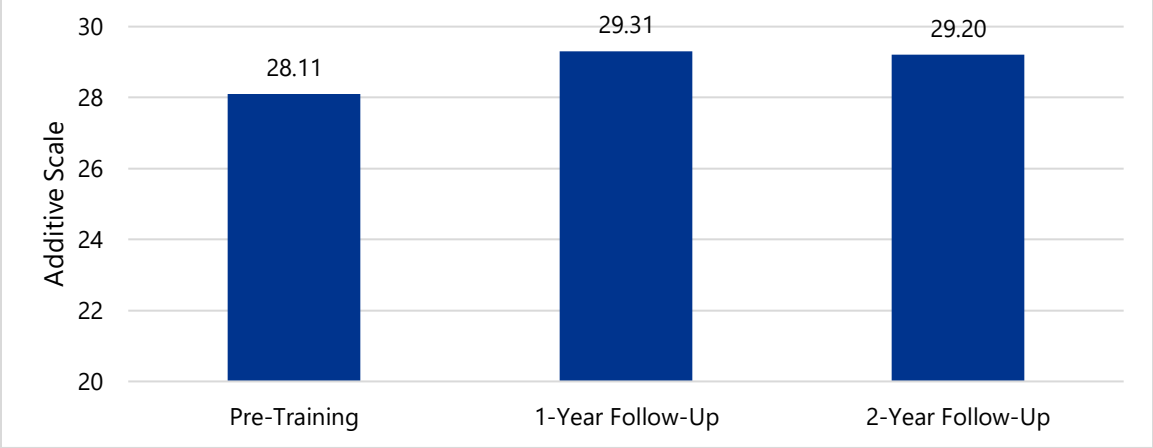
*Figure 47. Likelihood of Peer Intervention within Agency**



* Only Somewhat Likely/Very Likely responses are shown; responses may not add up to 100%.

In addition to the statistically significant differences observed across the individual items, mean differences were observed with the additive scale. On average, the respondents to the one-year follow-up survey indicated the greatest likelihood of peer intervention ($\bar{x}$= 29.31), followed by the respondents to the two-year follow-up ($\bar{x}$= 29.20). On average, officers expressed fewer perceptions of the likelihood of intervention in the pre-training survey ($\bar{x}$ = 28.11). Post-hoc analyses demonstrate that the comparisons between the pre-training survey scores and both follow-up survey scores were statistically significant, while no statistical difference was observed between the two follow-up surveys. **Altogether, these results suggest that the officers may perceive a greater likelihood of peer intervention occurring within their agency over time.** (See Figure 48.)

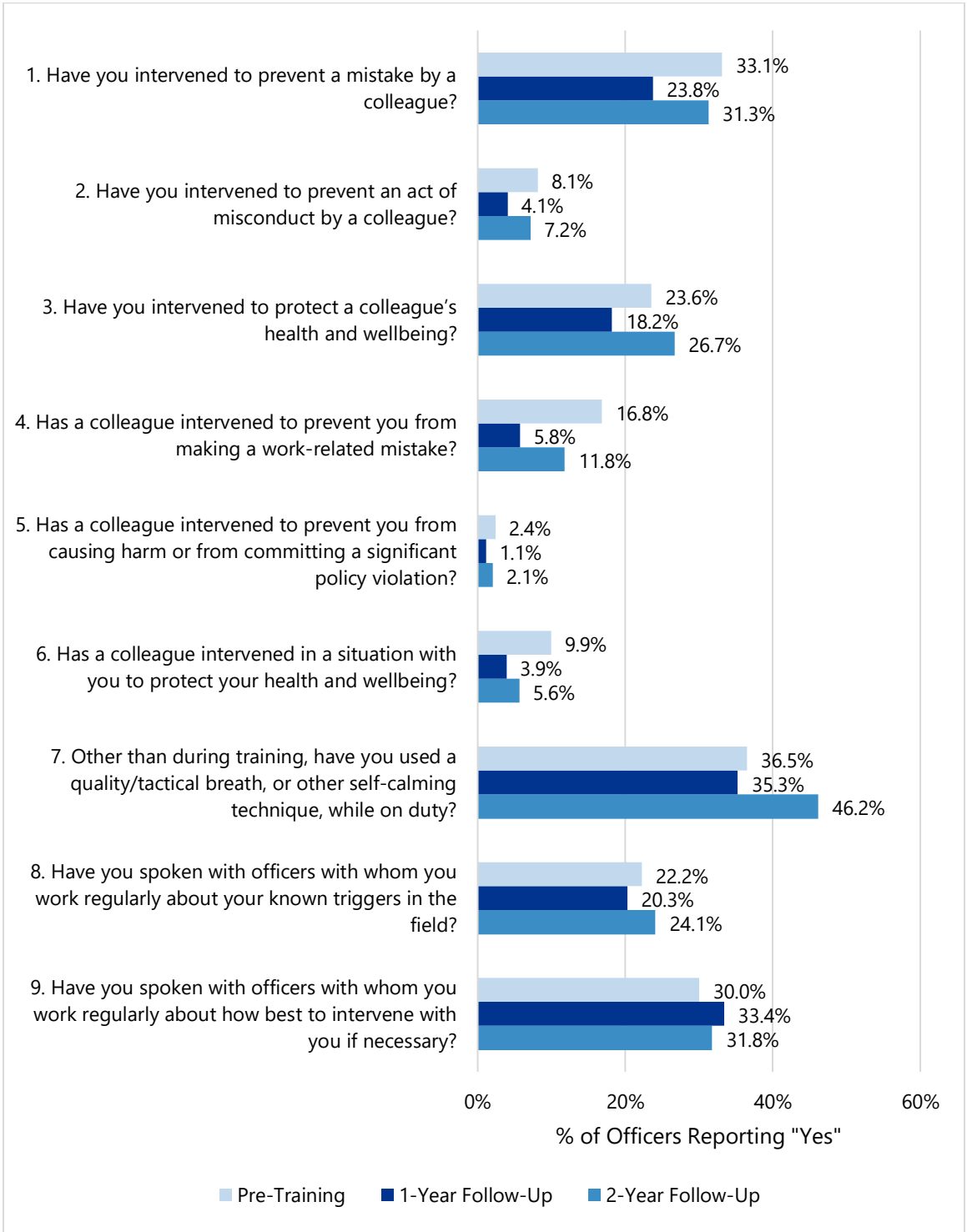
Figure 48. Likelihood of Peer Intervention Scale Response Over Time



SELF-REPORTED ACTIVE BYSTANDERSHIP AND PEER INTERVENTION

The previous sections demonstrated officers who responded to the follow-up training surveys were overwhelmingly confident in their abilities to use the skills taught in ABLE and perceived a high likelihood of peer intervention occurring within their agency. Next, analyses examined officers' self-reports of their involvement in active bystandership and peer intervention. Officers were asked—yes or no—if they had participated in nine different intervention activities within the past three months. The percentage of officers who responded "yes" to each of the bystander intervention-related actions are presented in Figure 49.

Figure 49. Self-Reported Active Bystandership and Peer Intervention in the Past Three Months



As shown, intervention activity among these officers is relatively limited. The most common intervention activities in all three surveys were using a quality/tactical breath or other self-calming technique while on duty (Item 7), intervening to prevent a mistake by a colleague (Item 1), and telling a partner in the field about how best to intervene with you if necessary (Item 9). Self-reports of several intervention activities performed by officers were quite rare in each survey. Actions such as having a colleague intervene to protect you from causing harm to another or from committing a significant policy violation (Item 5), intervening to prevent an act of misconduct by a colleague (Item 2), and having a colleague intervene with you to protect your health and well-being (Item 6) were rarely reported. To gain a further understanding of the use of intervention activities by the surveyed officers, an additive scale was created by taking the total sum of the number of activities where an officer provided a "yes" response. **The average number of intervention activities officers reported in the three months prior to the pre-training survey was 1.83. Officers reported an average of 1.46 activities in the three months preceding the one-year follow-up survey and 1.87 activities in the three months prior to the two-year follow-up survey**. The median number of activities in all three surveys was one action of peer intervention. Looking at a more complete breakdown, 36.2% of officers did not engage in any intervention activity in the past three months in the pre-training survey. In the follow-up surveys, 40.8% and 35.4% reported no intervention activity in the one-year and two-year follow-up survey, respectively.

To compare self-reported intervention activities across the different surveys, the χ^2 test of independence is used. This bivariate test is appropriate when comparing the frequency values within two categorical measures. The analyses demonstrate that the prevalence of peer intervention activity was statistically significantly different across the three surveys for all activities except Items 5, 8, and 9. In most cases (i.e., Items 1-4, and 6), the observed difference was due to fewer peer intervention activities being reported in the one-year follow-up survey. **This finding—of less intervention activity being reported in the one-year follow-up—was also observed in comparisons of the additive scale.**

The one-way ANOVA results shown in Table 17 demonstrate that the average number of peer intervention activities was significantly different across the waves, with the average number of activities reported in pre-training and the two-year follow-up being greater than the number of activities reported in the one-year follow-up. No differences were observed between pre-training and the two-year follow-up. The difference between the activities reported in the pre-training survey and the one-year follow-up were also

replicated in the post-hoc comparison analysis to the Kruskal-Wallis *H* test (Dunn's pairwise comparison).

Table 17. Comparisons of Self-Reported Intervention Activities Over Time

Over the past 3 months, …		Yes	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	$\chi^2/F/H$
1. Have you intervened to prevent a mistake by a colleague?	Pre	33.12	-	19.05*
	FU1	23.75	-	
	FU2	31.28	-	
2. Have you intervened to prevent an act of misconduct by a colleague?	Pre	8.13	-	11.04*
	FU1	4.08	-	
	FU2	7.18	-	
3. Have you intervened to protect a colleague's health and wellbeing?	Pre	23.56	-	9.07*
	FU1	18.22	-	
	FU2	26.67	-	
4. Has a colleague intervened to prevent you from making a work-related mistake?	Pre	16.83	-	46.54*
	FU1	5.75	-	
	FU2	11.79	-	
5. Has a colleague intervened to prevent you from causing harm to another or from committing a significant policy violation?	Pre	2.40	-	3.61
	FU1	1.12	-	
	FU2	2.05	-	
6. Has a colleague intervened in a situation with you to protect your health and wellbeing?	Pre	9.94	-	23.72*
	FU1	3.90	-	
	FU2	5.64	-	
7. Other than during training, have you used a quality/tactical breath, or other self-calming technique, while on duty?	Pre	36.48	-	8.06*
	FU1	35.25	-	
	FU2	46.15	-	
8. Have you spoken with your partner in the field, or other officers with whom you work regularly, about your known triggers in the field?	Pre	22.23	-	1.55
	FU1	20.26	-	
	FU2	24.10	-	
9. Have you spoken with your partner in the field, or other officers, about how best to intervene with you to prevent mistakes or misconduct, or promote your health and wellbeing, if necessary?	Pre	30.04	-	2.66
	FU1	33.40	-	
	FU2	31.79	-	
Intervention Activity Scale	**Pre**	**-**	**1.83 (.03)**	**8.09*** **9.45†**
	FU1	**-**	**1.46 (.07)**	
	FU2	**-**	**1.87 (.14)**	

Pre = Pre-Training; FU1= one-year follow-up; FU2 = two-year follow-up.

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using the χ^2 test of independence or one-way ANOVA for scale.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis H test for scale.

Overall, the reporting of peer intervention activity in the last three months was low, most officers reported limited participation in such activities. It should be noted, however, that the limited use of intervention activities may not be indicative of a limited utility of ABLE training. Rather, intervention activity requires *the need for intervention*. It may be that responding officers have experienced few opportunities to intervene. It is possible that the simultaneous ICAT de-escalation and ABLE peer intervention training could have contributed to fewer incidents that required intervention, due to their emphasis on situational awareness and self-care. Furthermore, the lack of intervention activity could be related to officers' specific assignments of duty, and low reporting of peer intervention may reflect the composition of the sample.

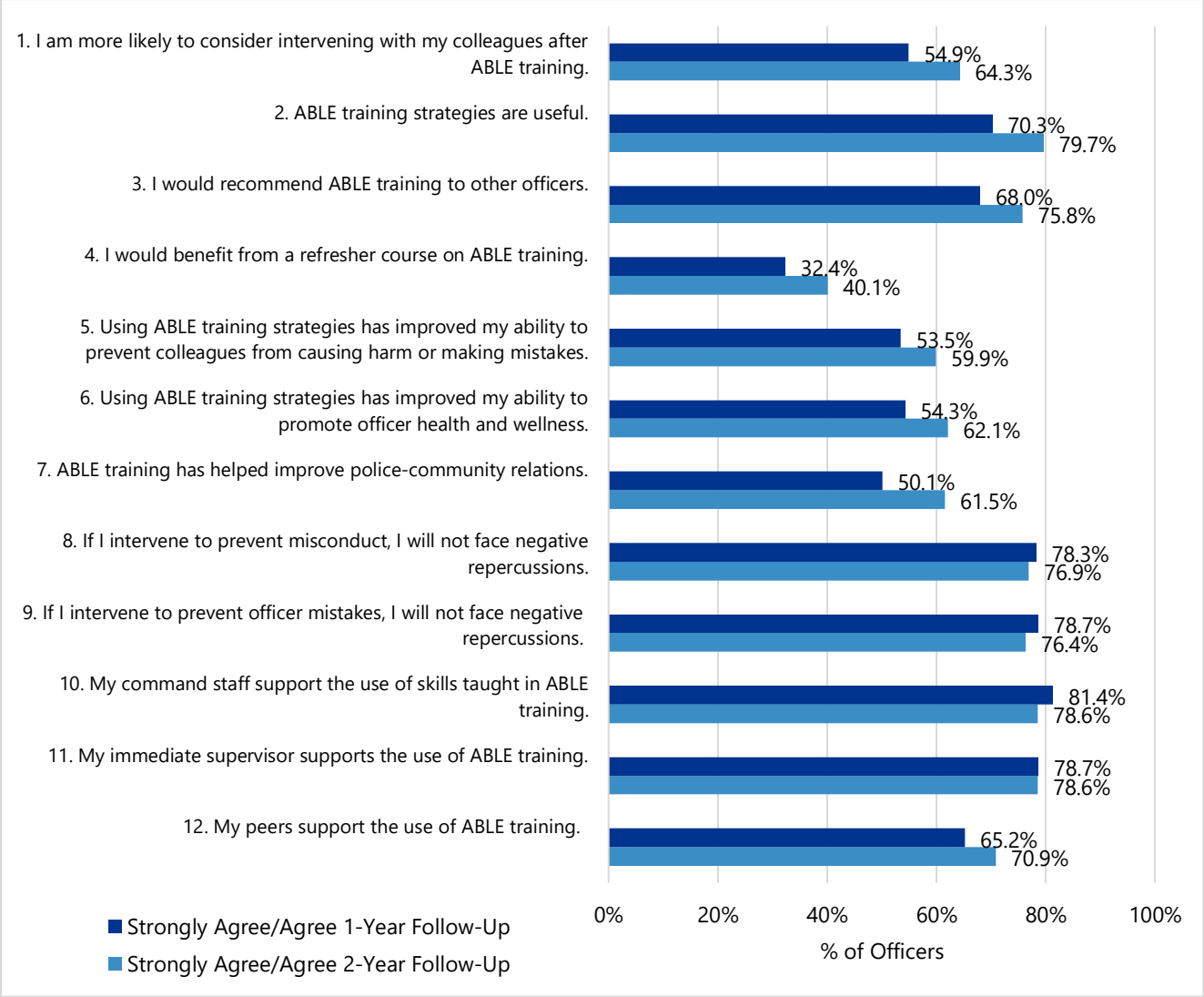
LONG-TERM REACTIONS TO THE ABLE TRAINING

Both follow-up surveys asked officers about their perceptions of the impact of ABLE training on their work. In total, 12 survey items were used to assess officer perceptions of the training program. For each item, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). In addition to each individual item, we created an additive scale of overall experiences with ABLE training by summing together individual responses to all items except for "I would benefit from a refresher course on ABLE Training) (scores range from a minimum of 11 to a maximum of 55). Figure 50 displays the percentage of officers who expressed agreement with the individual items. To simplify the displaying of results, we only show the percentage of officers who responded with "Agree" or "Strongly Agree." The full results can be found in Appendix B.

These results demonstrate that officers continue to feel—approximately one to two years after their participation—that ABLE is a useful training. For instance, the clear majority in both follow-up surveys agreed or strongly agreed that the ABLE strategies are useful (Item 2, ~77% and 78% for one-year and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively) and that they would recommend the training to other officers (Item 3, ~76% and 79%). Officers also believe there is much support for ABLE training across their agency (Items 10-12). The clear majority of responding officers in both follow-up surveys agreed that the skills taught in ABLE are supported by their command staff (~79% and 81%), immediate supervisor (~79% and 79%), and peer officers (~71% and 65%). Furthermore, the clear majority agreed they would not face negative repercussions within their agency if they intervened to prevent misconduct (Item 8, ~77% and 78%) or intervened to prevent officer mistakes (Item 9, ~76% and 79%).

While officers agree that ABLE is a useful training, there was less agreement that the training improved skill development. For example, only a near or slight majority of responding officers agreed the training made them more likely to consider intervening with their colleagues (Item 1, ~64% and 55%), improved their ability to prevent colleagues from causing harm or making mistakes (Item 5, ~60% and 54%), improved their ability to promote officer health and wellness (Item 6, ~62% and 54%), or helped improve police-community relations (Item 7, ~62% and 50%). Nevertheless, around one-third of officers believe they would benefit from a refresher course (Item 4, ~40% and 32%).

*Figure 50. Follow-Up Reactions to the Experiences of ABLE Training**



* Only Agree/Strongly Agree responses are shown; responses may not add up to 100%.

As shown in Table 18, statistically significant differences between the responses to some of the items in the follow-up surveys were observed. For example, statistically significant differences were observed for six of the 12 items with the *t*-test analysis (Items 1, 2, and 4-7), and seven of the 12 items (Items 1-7) reached significant differences in the Mann-Whitney *U* test analysis. Additionally, while not reaching statistical significance in the *t* test, the Mann-Whitney *U* test results show a significant difference in officers' perceptions of ABLE training in both follow-up surveys. **These differences suggest that the responses from the two-year follow-up were more favorable to ABLE training than the responses from the one-year follow-up**.

Although the exact reasons are uncertain, officers may develop more favorable views of ABLE over time if they do not encounter the unintended consequences they initially feared (e.g., an increase in being "intervened on" for mistakes or facing negative repercussions for intervening). Additionally, they may come to recognize the long-term benefits of the training.

Table 18. Follow-Up Differences in Experiences with ABLE Training

			N	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*U*
1.	I am more likely to consider intervening with my colleagues after ABLE training.	FU1 FU2	488 182	3.52 (.05) 3.73 (.09)	2.05*	2.56†
2.	ABLE training strategies are useful.	FU1 FU2	488 182	3.83 (.05) 4.07 (.08)	2.68*	3.20†
3.	I would recommend ABLE training to other officers.	FU1 FU2	488 182	3.81 (.05) 3.97 (.08)	1.71	2.25†
4.	I would benefit from a refresher course on ABLE training.	FU1 FU2	488 182	2.94 (.06) 3.18 (.09)	2.19*	2.22†
5.	Using ABLE training strategies has improved my ability to prevent colleagues from causing harm or making mistakes.	FU1 FU2	488 182	3.56 (.05) 3.74 (.08)	2.01*	2.23†
6.	Using ABLE training strategies has improved my ability to promote officer health and wellness.	FU1 FU2	488 182	3.55 (.05) 3.79 (.08)	2.58*	2.92†
7.	ABLE training has helped improve police-community relations.	FU1 FU2	489 182	3.48 (.05) 3.71 (.09)	2.37*	2.66†
8.	If I intervene to prevent misconduct, I will not face negative repercussions.	FU1 FU2	489 282	4.09 (.05) 4.09 (.09)	-.06	.70
9.	If I intervene to prevent officer mistakes, I will not face negative repercussions.	FU1 FU2	488 182	4.11 (.05) 4.12 (.09)	.01	.82
10.	My command staff support the use of skills taught in ABLE training.	FU1 FU2	488 182	4.21 (.04) 4.21 (.07)	-.00	.30
11.	My immediate supervisor supports the use of ABLE training.	FU1 FU2	488 182	4.14 (.04) 4.20 (.07)	.76	1.44
12.	My peers support the use of ABLE training	FU1 FU2	489 182	3.75 (.05) 3.85 (.08)	1.05	1.63
Experiences with ABLE Training Scale		**FU1** **FU2**	**488** **182**	**42.06 (.40)** **43.47 (.75)**	**1.75**	**2.44†**

SD = "Strongly Disagree"; D = "Disagree"; N = "Neutral"; A= "Agree"; SA = "Strongly Agree"

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using independent t test.

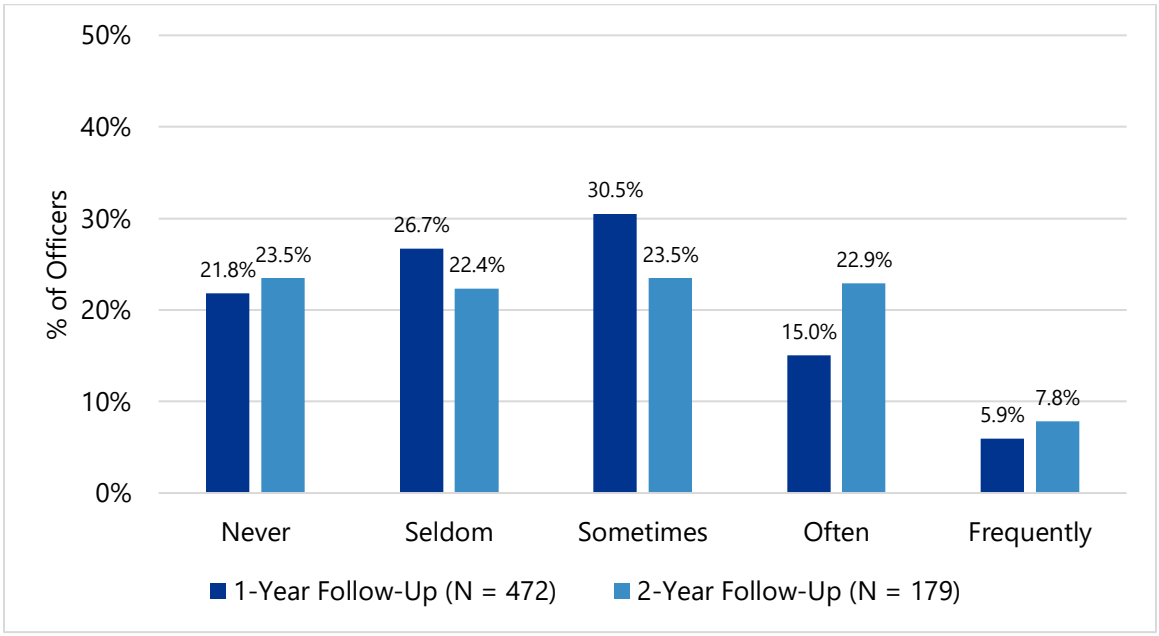
† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test.

USE AND REINFORCEMENT OF ABLE SKILLS

This section presents findings on officers' self-reported use and reinforcement of ABLE training skills in the field. These findings rely on survey items that were included in both follow-up surveys. Officers were asked to respond to a series of survey items that were related to supervisor reinforcement and application of ABLE training in the previous 60 days.

As shown in Figure 51, when asked about how frequently immediate supervisors reinforced ABLE training, a near-majority of respondents in both follow-up surveys indicated this happened seldom (once per month) or never (~49% and 46% in the one- and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively). In contrast, only approximately 21% and 31% of one-year and two-year follow-up survey respondents indicated that immediate supervisor reinforcement of ABLE skills occurred often (once per week) or frequently (more than 2-3 times per week).

Figure 51. Frequency of Immediate Supervisor Reinforcement of ABLE Training



In addition to the frequency of reinforcement, officers were asked about the ways their immediate supervisor may reinforce ABLE training. Respondents were directed to select all responses that applied to the reinforcement of ABLE training they experience by their immediate supervisor. The results—separated by follow-up survey—are shown in Table 19. Of those who indicated their supervisor reinforced ABLE training at least seldomly, the most common times of reinforcement were in direct conversation with

the responding officers (~44% and 42% of respondents in the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys respectively) and during post-incident reviews (~42% and 48% of respondents). Reinforcement during roll call (~24% and 26% of respondents) and during the respondent's monthly review (~11% and 18% of respondents) were less common modes of immediate supervisor reinforcement.

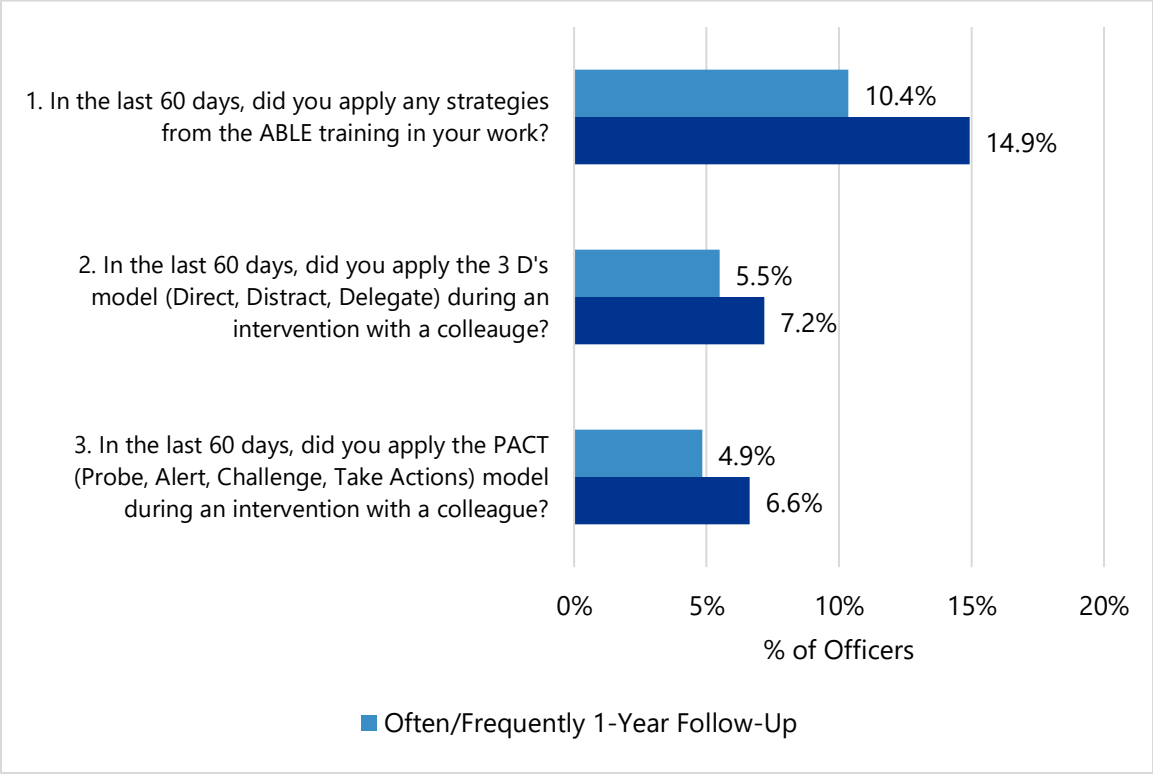
Table 19. ABLE Training Supervisor Reinforcement

	One-Year Follow-Up (*N* = 369)	Two-Year Follow-Up (*N* = 137)
ABLE training is reinforced by my immediate supervisor…	% (*n*)	% (*n*)
…in conversations with me	44.4 (164)	41.6 (57)
…during post-incident reviews	41.5 (153)	47.5 (65)
…during roll call	24.4 (90)	25.6 (35)
…during my monthly review	10.8 (40)	18.3 (25)

Officers were also asked to report their use of specific types of ABLE skills or strategies in the previous 60 days. The frequency of these activities was measured on a five-point scale in which 1 = Never (0 times), 2 = Seldom (1 per month), 3 = Sometimes (2-3 times per month), 4 = Often (1 per week), and 5 = Frequently (more than 2-3 times per week). Figure 52 displays the percentage of officer responses to each of the individual items. To simplify the displaying of results, we only show the percentage of officers who responded with *often* and *frequently*. The full results, however, can be viewed in Appendix B.

As shown in Figure 52, approximately 10% of the one-year follow-up survey respondents and 15% of the two-year follow-up survey respondents indicated they had applied strategies from the ABLE training in their work within the last 60 days. Yet reporting of the "Often" or "Frequent" use of specific ABLE skills was quite low, and the majority of officers reported either never or seldomly using such skills. Specifically, approximately 83% and 73% reported never or seldomly using the 3 D's model, and approximately 85% and 76% reported never or seldomly using the PACT model within the last 60 days in the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively. It should be noted, however, that the non-use of skills could be related to officers' specific assignments of duty and the availability of opportunities to intervene. As such, low reporting of ABLE skills use may reflect the composition of the sample and responding agencies.

*Figure 52. Officer Self-Reported Use of ABLE Skills in Past 60 Days**



* Only Often/Frequently responses are shown; responses may not add up to 100%.

SUMMARY

This section detailed survey responses collected from five counties in New Jersey that participated in the follow-up ABLE training surveys. In total, 593 one-year follow-up and 213 two-year follow-up surveys were collected. When appropriate, follow-up responses were compared to 3,776 pre-training and 3,346 post-training survey responses from those same counties. Responses to all waves of survey data collection were used to measure officer attitudes, confidence, reactions, and use of ABLE skills in the field one to two years after participation in the training.

We explored changes in officer confidence in their use of ABLE skills, perceptions of peer intervention with their agency, self-reported activities around peer intervention, reactions to ABLE training, and the use and reinforcement of ABLE skills. We found that responding officers felt very confident immediately after ABLE training in the skills measured. There were no significant changes in these confidence levels over time, as officers' reported confidence remained relatively high one and two years after participation in ABLE training.

Considering the likelihood of peer intervention within officers' departments, we found significant differences in pre-training scores compared to follow-up scores in the expected directions. The respondents to the one-year follow-up survey indicated the greatest likelihood of peer intervention based on the additive scale, followed by the respondents to the two-year follow-up, and the pre-training survey had the lowest perceived likelihood.

We examined officers' self-reporting of involvement situations of active bystandership and peer intervention within the past three months. We found intervention activity was somewhat limited, with the most common intervention activities in all three surveys being the use of a quality/tactical breath or other self-calming technique while on duty, intervening to prevent a mistake by a colleague, and telling a partner in the field about how best to intervene with you if necessary. Of interest, self-reported activity in both follow-up surveys was typically lower than in the pre-training survey.

Regarding officers' long-term perceptions of ABLE training, survey results demonstrate that officers continue to feel—approximately one-to-two years after their participation—that ABLE is a useful training. While officers agree that ABLE is a useful training, there was less agreement that the training improved skill development. However, most officers perceived that command staff and immediate supervisors, and to a lesser extent, peer officers, supported using ABLE training skills. Of the statistically significant differences found, the findings suggested that the responses from the two-year follow-up were more favorable to ABLE training than those from the one-year follow-up.

Finally, officers were asked about their views on supervisor reinforcement and the direct application of ABLE training during the previous 60 days. Officer responses revealed that most immediate supervisors rarely reinforced ABLE training. When ABLE was reinforced, it was typically through direct conversations or during post-incident reviews. Approximately 10% of the one-year follow-up survey respondents and 15% of the two-year follow-up survey respondents indicated they had applied strategies from the ABLE training in their work within the last 60 days. Yet, reporting of the often or frequent use of specific ABLE skills was quite low, and the majority of officers reported either never or seldomly using such skills. It is very possible that the low reporting of ABLE skill use may reflect an officer's job assignment or the lack of opportunities to intervene.

IX. DISCUSSION

This study presents findings from the analysis of officer surveys administered in law enforcement agencies across the state of New Jersey immediately before, immediately after, and one and two years following their participation in both de-escalation (Integrating Communications, Assessment, and Tactics or ICAT) and peer intervention (Active Bystandership for Law Enforcement or ABLE) training. This study contributes important findings to the field, being one of the first to gather feedback from an entire state population of law enforcement officers. To our knowledge, no other studies have attempted this, nor has another research study gathered responses from over 17,000 law enforcement officers to a single survey. Further, this study is one of the first independent assessments of ABLE peer intervention training and the first statewide assessment of ICAT training. This study employs one- and two-year follow-up periods to provide a longer examination of lasting impacts compared to most studies of police training programs.

Notably, we found evidence that the ICAT and ABLE training programs, while mandated by the state, were still received very positively by officers who, in turn, perceived strong support for these programs from their commanders and supervisors. Analyses demonstrate that officers showed statistically significant shifts in attitudes and perceptions that were aligned with the goals of the ABLE and ICAT programs, including those around the use of force, interactions with persons in crisis, police misconduct, and active bystandership.

This report presents dozens of pages of analyses and findings, employing different analytical techniques and samples. A full summary of findings, organized across specific research questions, is presented below. Following this summary, Table 20 outlines the comparisons of composite measures used in the study.

RESEARCH QUESTION 1: HOW RECEPTIVE ARE OFFICERS TO ICAT AND ABLE TRAINING, AND DOES THIS VARY ACROSS OFFICER DEMOGRAPHICS, DEPARTMENTS, AND TRAINING TOPICS?

The post-ICAT training surveys revealed that officers were very receptive to the ICAT program. Most officers agreed the training was useful and taught them new things (87.5% and 82.9%, respectively). Similarly, 86.2% of the sample agreed that they would recommend this training to others. This is important because previous research has

demonstrated that officers with greater receptivity to the ICAT program were significantly more likely to self-report using ICAT skills in the field, with the most receptive officers having a greater probability of reporting the use of de-escalation skills in their most recent encounter with a person in crisis (49.5% probability compared to 4.5% among less receptive officers; see Engel et al., 2021).

Current findings demonstrate differences in the officers who are most receptive to ICAT training. Female, Non-White, and less-tenured officers were significantly more receptive to ICAT than their male, White, and more-tenured counterparts. Similarly, patrol officers were more receptive to ICAT than officers of other positions and ranks. These findings are similar to previous demographic comparisons found in the Louisville Metro Police Department, where female, minority, and less-tenured officers were significantly more receptive to ICAT than their peers (Engel et al., 2021).

When comparing officer receptivity across the five largest departments in the state, analyses revealed that officers from the Jersey City Police Department were significantly more receptive to ICAT training than officers in the Newark, Elizabeth, and Paterson Police Departments, as well as the New Jersey State Police. We also found that officers from the New Jersey State Police were significantly less receptive to ICAT than the four comparison police departments. A similar trend was observed for regional comparisons, with officers in Northern New Jersey having the highest level of receptivity to ICAT.

The vast majority of surveyed officers agreed that the Critical Decision-Making Model (CDM) taught during ICAT was a useful and necessary tool to fulfill their duties as members of law enforcement. Moreover, like the receptivity to ICAT, there were significant differences across groups in their perceived utility of the CDM. Following the same trends of ICAT receptivity, officers who were female, Non-White, less tenured, and working on patrol all reported greater perceptions of the utility of the CDM. Similarly, officers from the Jersey City Police Department held the most positive views of the CDM, while officers from New Jersey State Police held the least positive views among officers from the five police departments that were examined. There were few differences in perceptions of the utility of the CDM when comparing different regions of New Jersey. However, officers in the Northern region reported statistically higher scores than those in the South and Shore regions.

The post-ABLE training surveys revealed similar findings for officers' receptivity to the ABLE program. Most officers agreed the training was useful and taught them new things (86.2% and 86.7%, respectively). A similar percentage of officers agreed they would recommend this training to others (84.8% of respondents). Regarding demographic

differences, we found that female, Non-White, less tenured, and patrol officers were significantly more receptive to the ABLE training than their male, White, more tenured, non-patrol counterparts. Like ICAT receptivity, officers in the Jersey City Police Department had significantly higher scores on ABLE receptivity compared to all four comparison departments, and officers from the New Jersey State Police had significantly lower scores than the other departments.

RESEARCH QUESTION 2: WHAT ARE THE OFFICER PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES REGARDING THE RESPECTIVE TRAINING PROGRAMS ONE TO TWO YEARS FOLLOWING PARTICIPATION?

Both follow-up surveys asked officers about their perceptions of ICAT and ABLE one and two years after most officers participated in the training program. We hypothesized that, following their participation in the ICAT training, officers would recognize the value of the training, and those perceptions would be maintained or even increase with the application of training tenets and skills over time. Most of the responding officers agreed both one and two years later that ICAT training strategies are helpful and that they would recommend ICAT training to others. Roughly half of the officers agreed that ICAT strategies had improved their interactions with persons in crisis (51.3% and 59.2% for the one-year and two-year follow-up, respectively) and that ICAT strategies have improved interactions with all community members (49.7% and 59.2% for the one-year and two-year follow up, respectively). Finally, over one-third of officers indicated they would benefit from a refresher ICAT training (~36% and ~37% in the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively). In general, these findings suggest officers hold positive perceptions of the ICAT program, and many officers agree they would benefit from additional training on the topic to enhance their skills.

Findings related to officers' perceptions of the utility of the CDM taught in ICAT, however, show the opposite. Before ICAT training, the CDM was most likely an unfamiliar concept to officers. Previous research has observed that officers view the CDM as an intuitive decision-making approach (Isaza, 2020). Post-training survey findings support this notion. The majority of officers agreed that the CDM was a valuable and necessary tool for fulfilling their duties as members of law enforcement. Nevertheless, similar to prior research, this perceived utility was observed to decrease one-year post-training (Engel et al., 2020b; Isaza et al., 2019). Notably, however, responses to the two-year follow-up training survey demonstrated an increase in perceptions of the utility of the CDM—though this finding may have been a function of the sample of officers surveyed and those who elected to participate. Altogether, these findings suggest that while officers may view the CDM as a helpful tool when first trained, some practice may be required to sustain familiarity and comfort level with applying this framework.

Regarding ABLE training, most officers agreed that the training strategies were helpful and they were more likely to consider intervening with colleagues after participating in the program in the one- and two-year follow-up surveys. More than half of the respondents agreed that using ABLE strategies has improved their ability to prevent colleagues from causing harm or making mistakes and improved their ability to promote officer health and wellness. Notably, a large majority in both surveys agreed that if they intervene to prevent misconduct, they will not face negative repercussions (78.3% and 76.9% in the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively). Given prior research examining police culture—including officers' loyalty to one another and a shared code of silence around misconduct (Sierra-Arevalo, 2021; Skolnick, 2002, 2011)—these findings are encouraging. Specifically, it seems most officers support the concept of peer intervention and express limited concerns that intervention may cause officers to be ostracized for their actions. Finally, just over one-third of each follow-up sample agreed they would benefit from additional training on ABLE strategies.

RESEARCH QUESTION 3: DOES THE TRAINING CHANGE OFFICERS' PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES ABOUT THE USE OF FORCE, PERSONS IN CRISIS, POLICE MISCONDUCT, AND BYSTANDER INTERVENTION?

As part of the present study, we examined officers' attitudinal differences from pre- and post-training across survey items that related to perceptions of community interactions, interactions with persons in crisis, and attitudes toward the use of force. These perceptions and attitudes were expected to shift following training to align with the core tenets and content of the ICAT program. Differences in officers' responses across survey waves were examined across individual survey items and three additive scales. Most items included in the scales showed statistically significant differences from pre-training to post-training in the expected direction. Specifically, officers' pre- to post-training responses demonstrated enhanced understanding of persons in crisis, greater confidence in creating positive outcomes through the use of effective communication and tactics, and reduced reliance on the use of force.

Through ABLE training, officers are taught that they have a responsibility to look out for each other and the public and are encouraged to intervene to prevent misconduct and mistakes. Specific survey items are used to tap into attitudes and perceptions around the concepts of police misconduct and active bystander intervention. After participating in the ABLE program, officers were expected to hold less permissive views of police misconduct, improve their beliefs that preventing misconduct and mistakes is a part of their responsibilities, and show greater support for using active bystandership in law enforcement. Along with examining changes in individual survey items after ABLE participation, we examined changes in composite measures designed to capture these constructs. Most individual items, as well as both composite measures, demonstrated

significant changes in the expected directions. For example, analyses revealed a significant increase in score for the statement "I believe my colleagues would listen to me if I speak out against police misconduct," moving from an average of 3.95 (neutral) to 4.14 (agree). Further, when asked about confidence in their acquired ABLE skills for effective intervention, we found officers were confident in their ability to use two new skills taught during ABLE: the 3D's Model (Direct, Distract, and Delegate)[37] and PACT (Probe, Alert, Challenge, Take Action).[38] This suggests that participation in the ABLE training may lead to attitudinal shifts aligned with the ABLE program's goals.

RESEARCH QUESTION 4: DO CHANGES IN OFFICERS' PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES ON USE OF FORCE AND BYSTANDER INTERVENTION VARY ACROSS OFFICERS, DEPARTMENTS, AND GEOGRAPHIC AREAS?

We explored variations in attitudes toward the use of force by officer demographics, departments, and geographic regions in New Jersey using the *Attitudes Toward Use of Force Scale.* We did not identify significant differences in officers' attitudes toward the use of force across officer demographics such as gender, race, law enforcement tenure, and rank. However, significant differences emerged when we compared average responses to this scale across the five largest police departments in New Jersey. Analyses suggest officers in Jersey City held the highest scores on this composite measure, showing the greatest alignment with the goals of ICAT training. Officers in Jersey City Police Department had significantly higher scores on this measure than the four comparison departments. In contrast, officers from New Jersey State Police held significantly lower scores on this measure compared to officers from all four comparison departments. Comparisons of average scores across the four regions of New Jersey identified minor differences, with only officers in the Shore region having significantly lower scores than those in the other regions.

Through ABLE training, officers were taught about active bystandership, a concept where individuals actively intervene in the actions of another to prevent or mitigate unnecessary harm. To assess differences in these attitudes after ABLE training, we compared average scores on the officers' *Attitudes Toward Bystander Intervention Scale* by demographics, departments, and regions. Higher scores on this scale reflect greater acceptance and commitment to active bystandership. We found that female, nonwhite, less tenured, and patrol officers held significantly higher scores on this measure than their peer officers. Officers from Jersey City Police Department ($\bar{X}$ = 62.23) also had significantly higher scores than those from Elizabeth Police Department, Paterson Police

[37] This is a model taught in the US Marine Corps to prevent sexual assault.

[38] This is a framework to help officers intervene with someone of a higher rank, used by the military and airline industry.

Department, and New Jersey State Police. New Jersey State Police officers, on average, scored significantly lower than the four comparison departments ($\bar{X}$=54.66). Lastly, we found that officers in Northern New Jersey had significantly higher scores on the *Attitudes Toward Bystander Intervention Scale* than those in the Central and Shore regions.

RESEARCH QUESTION 5: DO OFFICERS PERCEIVE THAT PEERS, SUPERVISORS, AND COMMANDERS SUPPORT USING DE-ESCALATION AND PEER INTERVENTION TACTICS? DOES THIS CHANGE OVER TIME?

Both follow-up surveys assessed officers' perceived support for ICAT and ABLE tenets by their command staff, immediate supervisor, and peer officers. Specific to ICAT, the one-year follow-up survey demonstrated that 74.8% of officers perceived that command staff supported using ICAT skills. This percentage stayed stable in the two-year follow-up, where 74.1% of officers agreed that command staff supported ICAT. Similar, minor changes were demonstrated in perceptions of immediate supervisor and peer support for ICAT. 73.9% of officers agreed that their immediate supervisor supported using ICAT in the one-year follow-up survey, increasing slightly to 74.7% of officers in the two-year follow-up survey. There was also a minor increase in agreement from officers about perceived peer support for using ICAT, moving from 63.6% of officers in the one-year follow-up to 67.2% of officers in the two-year. However, no statistically significant differences emerged in these changes over time.

The one-year follow-up survey found that 81.4% of officers agreed that command staff supported using ABLE skills. The level of agreement dropped slightly to 78.6% the following year. There was slightly less agreement about immediate supervisors supporting the use of ABLE skills, which stayed stable through the two-year follow-up (78.7% to 78.6% agreement). Perceived peer support for using ABLE skills grew from 65.2% of officers perceiving this support to 70.9% the following year. However, we found no significant differences between the first and second follow-up surveys in mean score changes for these three groups.

Overall, more officers expressed perceived support for ABLE skills compared to ICAT skills. However, differences in perceptions of support for ICAT and ABLE across different groups of officers were similar. Officers perceived the greatest support for ICAT and ABLE came from command staff (74% to 81% reporting perceived support), followed by support from immediate supervisors (ranging from 73% to 78%), and peer officers (ranging from 63% to 70%). Given the mandated nature of ICAT and ABLE training in New Jersey law enforcement agencies, the findings demonstrating officers' perceptions of support for the training among their colleagues, supervisors, and command staff are particularly encouraging.

RESEARCH QUESTION 6: IN WHAT WAYS DO SUPERVISORS REINFORCE DE-ESCALATION AND PEER INTERVENTION?

Consistent with previous research on supervisory reinforcement of ICAT training principles (Engel et al., 2022b), survey findings demonstrated that officers reported limited reinforcement of ICAT and ABLE training tenets by their immediate supervisors. When asked how frequently their supervisors reinforce ICAT training, most respondents in both follow-up surveys indicated this seldom (once per month) or never happened (~57% and ~52% in the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively). When ICAT training is reinforced, respondents reported it was most commonly reinforced through direct conversations and post-incident reviews.

This study was the first to examine the frequency and nature of the reinforcement of ABLE training by immediate supervisors in law enforcement agencies. In the follow-up surveys, most officers indicated that reinforcement seldom or never occurred (~49% and ~46% in the one-year and two-year follow-up surveys, respectively). Still, officers reported slightly greater reinforcement of ABLE training by their immediate supervisors compared to ICAT training. Like ICAT reinforcement, however, ABLE was most often reinforced through direct conversations and post-incident reviews.

RESEARCH QUESTION 7: ARE THERE DIFFERENCES IN OFFICER SELF-REPORTED CONFIDENCE IN PERFORMING THE SKILLS TAUGHT IN THE TRAINING CURRICULA?

Across the post- and follow-up waves of the ICAT training survey, officers were asked about their confidence in using the CDM during an encounter with a person in crisis. Immediately following ICAT training, a majority (85.2%) of officers in the statewide sample agreed they were confident using the CDM.

The examination of post-training responses from officers in the five counties that implemented the follow-up training surveys shows comparable levels of self-reported confidence post-training (89.3%). However, responses in the one-year follow-up training survey demonstrate a decline in confidence (59.1%) followed by a slight increase in confidence in the two-year follow-up survey (65%). These findings mirror results from prior studies that show reductions in officers' confidence in using the CDM several months after training (Engel et al., 2020b; Isaza et al., 2019).

Post- and follow-up ABLE training surveys measured officers' self-reported confidence in ABLE skills application. Respondents had a high degree of confidence in their ability to use skills taught in ABLE, and those confidence levels were maintained for one- and two-years following participation in the training. For example, 90.0% of respondents felt confident or very confident in their ability to notice the need for intervention in their colleagues immediately after training, and this finding remained stable, with 90.8% of

one-year respondents and 89.3% of two-year respondents reporting confidence in this same measure. Notably, however, officers' self-reported confidence remained highest for the use of peer intervention more generally when compared to other, more specific ABLE skills (i.e., 3D's model, PACT).

RESEARCH QUESTION 8: DOES THE TRAINING INCREASE OFFICERS' SELF-REPORTED USE OF DE-ESCALATION AND PEER INTERVENTION SKILLS, AND DO THESE SELF-REPORTED BEHAVIORS CHANGE OVER TIME?

Survey findings confirm officers' self-reported use of de-escalation tactics increased following their participation in training. Specifically, officers' self-reported use of ICAT tactics increased from an average of 3.70 before ICAT training to 3.78 by the first follow-up survey and to 3.90 in the second follow-up survey. Officers were also asked whether they had responded to an incident involving a person in crisis since they were trained in ICAT and, if so, whether they used ICAT strategies in their response. Most officers reported responding to an incident involving a person in crisis. Of those officers, approximately 80% and 87% of one-year and two-year follow-up respondents, respectively, indicated they had used ICAT strategies in their response. When asked generally about using ICAT skills during the last 60 days, few officers self-reported frequent use of these skills (ranging from ~15% to ~31% per tactic). These findings suggest that the vast majority of responding officers have used ICAT skills while responding to a person in crisis since they participated in the training—the events just may not occur very often.

When asked about previous experiences with peer intervention in the pre-ABLE training survey, approximately 33% of officers reported intervening to prevent a mistake by a colleague, and roughly 8% intervened to prevent an act of misconduct. Surprisingly, these percentages dropped in the one-year follow-up but then increased in the second follow-up to values still slightly lower than the pre-training values. The only self-reported ABLE tactic that demonstrated increases over time was whether officers had spoken with their colleagues about the best ways to intervene with them (~30% at pre-training, increasing to 33% and 32% in the first and second follow-up). A similar upward trend was observed in taking a tactical breath and speaking with colleagues about known triggers in the field. The additive *Intervention Activity Scale* demonstrated that the average number of intervention activities was 1.83 before training, 1.46 in the one-year follow-up, and 1.87 in the two-year follow-up. The significant reduction in self-reported activities in the one-year follow-up survey was unexpected by our research team. It is possible that officers already felt confident in their abilities to recognize and intervene to prevent mistakes and misconduct in their agency. However, they can only do so when presented with an opportunity for intervention (which may have occurred outside of the

three-month window used in the survey). Speaking with a colleague about triggers and ways to intervene is a proactive effort, so it is possible that ABLE influences more conversations about intervention as opposed to the intervention itself, which requires the right opportunity. Further, it is also possible that the simultaneous ICAT de-escalation and ABLE peer intervention training could have contributed to fewer incidents that required intervention due to their emphasis on situational awareness and self-care. The characteristics of the follow-up survey samples require caution in the interpretation of these findings, however. Non-patrol officers—that is, those officers who have fewer opportunities to apply ABLE skills in their day-to-day work—were overrepresented.

RESEARCH QUESTION 9: DO OFFICERS REPORT CHANGES IN THEIR PEERS' BEHAVIORS?

Officers were asked about the likelihood of peer intervention in their agency, especially amongst their peer officers, across seven different situations. Comparing pre-training responses to those collected in the first and second follow-up surveys, we find evidence that ABLE training enhances officers' perceptions of the likelihood of peer intervention, though these increases are minor. There were statistically significant increases in the additive scale measuring the likelihood of peer intervention in both follow-up surveys compared to the pre-training survey. Specifically, the respondents to the one-year follow-up survey indicated the greatest likelihood of peer intervention ($\bar{x}$= 29.31), followed by the respondents to the two-year follow-up ($\bar{x}$= 29.20), whereas the pre-training additive score was 28.11. Altogether, these results suggest that the officers perceive a greater likelihood of peer intervention occurring within their agency one to two years after ABLE training completion than before ABLE training.

SUMMARY OF COMPOSITE MEASURE COMPARISONS

As reviewed above, several important findings were demonstrated in this study as we compared various changes in knowledge, attitudes, and self-reported behaviors before and after participation in ICAT and ABLE training. Several composite measures were created to better conceptualize attitudes and self-reported activities. Table 10 below summarizes the scale measures that were compared across certain waves of the survey. A green plus sign (+) is indicative of a significant increase in score, whereas a red negative sign (-) is indicative of a significant decrease in score. Those comparisons that did not achieve statistical significance are shown with an "NS".

Notably, several measures achieved statistical increases as expected, but some changes were counter to our expectations. Those changes, including the reductions in the

perceived utility of the CDM and reduction in intervention activities over time, were not anticipated by our research team.

Table 20. Summary of Composite Measure Comparisons

Composite Measure		Pre to Post	Pre to 1Year	Pre to 2year	Post to 1 Year	Post to 2 Year	1 Year to 2Year
ICAT	Views on Citizen Interactions Scale*	+					
	Views on Interactions with Persons in Crisis Scale*	+					
	Attitudes Towards Use of Force Scale*	+					
	Encounters with Persons in Crisis Index		+	+			+
	Utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model Scale				-	-	+
	Experiences with ICAT Training Scale						NS
ABLE	Perceptions of Police Misconduct Scale*	+					
	Attitudes Towards Bystander Intervention Scale*	+					
	Intervention Activity Scale		-	NS			+
	Likelihood of Peer Intervention Scale	+	+	+			NS
	Confidence in ABLE Skills Scale				NS	NS	NS
	Experiences with ABLE Training Scale						+

*Only measured in the pre-training and post-training surveys.

+ = significant increase; - = significant decrease; **NS** = non-significant change.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As New Jersey representatives continue to explore ways to enhance the safety of community and law enforcement interactions, we expect training will continue to be central to these enhancements. Indeed, training is often one of the primary methods of enacting change in police departments. It is imperative to continue to examine the impacts and implications of innovative training on officer attitudes and behaviors (Skogan et al., 2015). Our current study highlights several vital takeaways that lend themselves to recommendations for the New Jersey Office of the Attorney General, law enforcement agencies, and researchers.

Survey respondents indicated high receptivity to the ICAT and ABLE training programs, with a large majority reporting satisfaction with the training and agreement with its utility in their work. Notably, this finding suggests that mandated training, whether through state reform or other forms of oversight, can still be positively received by law enforcement and can have similar impacts on training programs that police departments select. Findings of officer receptivity are also critical because receptivity to training has been linked to officers' self-reported changes in behavior following police training (Chung et al., 2022; Engel et al., 2021; Wolfe et al., 2022).

Given the importance of training receptivity on training outcomes, it is crucial to bolster those factors that can influence participants' perceptions of the value of training in their work (Wolfe et al., 2022). Research suggests that organizational culture is critical to an individual's motivation to learn, openness to training, and application of learning to their work (Alliger et al., 1997; Alpert & MacDonald, 2001; Chung et al., 2022). Research also suggests that police executives can influence organizational culture by emphasizing the value of the training to support training application and positive behavioral changes among officers (Wolfe et al., 2022). Notably, New Jersey officers who responded to the ICAT and ABLE training surveys perceived support for each training by their command staff. Although understanding the connection between these perceptions and officers' receptivity to the training is outside the scope of the present analysis, it is possible that this perceived support bolstered officers' receptivity to and application of training tenets over time.

> ***Recommendation 1: With this context in mind, law enforcement agencies and the NJOAG should support efforts that encourage a culture where training and skill practice, including integrating new training programs, is perceived as beneficial. This includes a top-down approach to emphasizing the benefits of training to line-level officers, especially before training implementation. We***

further recommend that agency personnel clearly explain to officers why they are being asked to participate in training ahead of their attendance at the training. This can mitigate reluctance and/or cynicism among officers who may not understand why they must participate in the training or even what they are participating in.

Recommendation 2: Research suggests that police organization structures impact how officers learn and apply skills in their daily lives. Future research should consider how individual police agency cultures hinder or enhance the principles of ICAT and ABLE training. Given the wide variety of police departments across the state, it is very likely that some departments apply ICAT and ABLE training skills differently. This recommendation is particularly salient for the NJOAG given the consistent variation in officers' self-reported attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors observed across different regions of the state and across the five largest police departments that administered the follow-up training surveys. Identifying why these differences exist and the extent to which they are influenced by the culture of the organization can offer actionable steps to enhance officers' perceptions and adoption of training tenets.

We found that large proportions of officers (roughly 40%) agreed with the need for refresher training and that additional training on the CDM, in particular, would be helpful to sustain familiarity and comfort with applying this framework. This is consistent with findings from prior evaluations of training for police officers, evidencing training decay—a decline in the training's impact on officers' attitudes, confidence, and skills over time (Davidson, 2016; Engel et al., 2020b; Isaza et al., 2019; O'Neill et al., 2019; Tidmarsh et al., 2020). As a result of these declines, a recommendation is to provide additional refresher training to reinforce core training content and skills, for instance, during roll call (Engel et al., 2020; Isaza et al., 2019; O'Neill et al., 2019). Agencies and policymakers must understand that officers cannot simply be trained once and be expected to change their behaviors. Refresher training is critical for continued success.

Recommendation 3: The NJOAG should develop recommendations for law enforcement across the state regarding refresher training focused on the principles of ICAT and ABLE programs. The NJOAG should identify an annual (at a minimum) refresher program or establish standards that focus on reinforcing principles through dedicated skill practice. This will help ensure that this is a

systematic process for refresher trainings across the state, allowing for continued training.[39]

Recommendation 4: Future research should examine the optimal training dosage to ensure training skills are regularly used by officers. This includes the initial dosage of the first training delivery and the optimal length and dose of refresher training. While an annual refresher is recommended to reduce training decay, this assumption should be tested and compared with other lengths of time.

Field supervisors play a critical role in the reinforcement and promotion of training objectives among their subordinate officers. For example, the Police Executive Research Forum suggests that actions of first-line supervisors are critical in reinforcing the tenets taught during any training (PERF 2018). Previous research supports this notion more broadly, observing that supervisors play a critical role in influencing their subordinates' attitudes and behaviors (Barao et al., 2024; Owens et al., 2018; Van Craen & Skogan, 2017). For instance, supervisors may greatly impact officers' attitudes through their support of de-escalation training and by reinforcing skills taught during the training. In an evaluation of ICAT de-escalation training in the Louisville Metro Police Department, officers who perceived their supervisors as more supportive of the training had more positive views of persons in crisis and towards the CDM (Engel et al., 2021). Yet, supervisors infrequently reinforced or recognized officers' use of de-escalation skills (Engel et al., 2022). These findings highlight that supervisors are a critical, yet often untapped, resource in reinforcing training tenets and skills (McLean et al., 2023; McManus et al., 2018). Similarly, we found that officers reported infrequent direct reinforcement of ICAT and ABLE principles from their direct supervisors.

Recommendation 5: Law enforcement agencies should encourage their field supervisors to meaningfully and continually reinforce ICAT and ABLE principles during conversations, roll calls, and incident debriefs. Supervisors who actively use and promote de-escalation and peer-intervention skills and principles are likely to have officers who also emulate these behaviors. In general, supervisors should seek to reinforce to officers the use of these principles and skills across all community interactions, emphasizing how these enhance officers' own safety and wellness.

[39] Currently, the ABLE Project standards require 2 hours of annual refresher training using a curriculum approved by ABLE. While PERF encourages refresher training for ICAT, they do not have specific standards set forth for agencies.

Recommendation 6: Researchers should directly measure and test the impacts of differing amounts of supervising reinforcement of ICAT and ABLE principles on officers' attitudes and behaviors in the field. Research should also seek to uncover the ways in which officers may model the behavior of supervisors who actively use de-escalation and peer intervention.

Finally, this report is focused on the findings from a series of surveys. We find empirical support that ICAT and ABLE training can support positive changes in officer attitudes of de-escalation and peer intervention. However, it is also important to consider how officers' perceptions and attitudes influence decision-making and behavior in their day-to-day work. There is a robust body of evidence suggesting that attitudes impact behavior (Ajzen et al., 2019; Kraus, 1995). However, the exact ways that attitudes influence behavior are debated. For instance, theories of reasoned action and planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991, 2012), as well as "Motivation and Opportunity as Determinants" or MODE framework (Fazio, 1990), debate the pathways between attitudes and behaviors. Despite the differing frameworks proposed by researchers in this field and their noted shortcomings, the link between attitudes and behaviors has been subject to rigorous empirical evaluation. Contemporary studies find significant but highly varied effect sizes. For instance, behavior-focused attitudes and related behaviors find effect sizes ranging from .36 (Kraus, 1995), .49 (Eckes & Six, 1994), .51 (Glasman & Albarracín, 2006), to a high of .79 (Kim & Hunter, 1993). Overall, these findings substantiate that attitudes indeed contribute to the prediction of related behavior and that these behaviors are more likely to be attitudes when they are strongly held (Fazio, 1990).

Recommendation 7: The NJOAG and law enforcement agencies should encourage additional evaluation of the effects of the ICAT and ABLE within their departments. This research should examine the impact of training on officers' behavior, organizational culture, and community-police relations. While the NJOAG intended ICAT and ABLE training to be delivered in a standardized format, there are likely agency-level differences related to delivery, dosage, supervision, and managerial oversight, which also require testing to identify what maximizes their impact.

STUDY LIMITATIONS

As with any study, ours is not without limitations. First, this report is limited to self-reported survey data collected before and after officer participation in ICAT and ABLE training. Our treatment of the training surveys as independent samples reduces our confidence that the results are free from bias but allows for the retention of the full sample of responses. Analyses comprising the matched sample of officers across survey

waves are presented in the two appendices, which mirror findings from the independent sample analyses.

Second, our two follow-up training surveys experienced extremely low response rates (593 responses or 8.2% response rate for the one-year and 213 responses or 2.9% for the two-year). These follow-up samples appear to deviate from the pre-training and post-training sample demographics, particularly in terms of serving in a patrol capacity. It is unlikely the follow-up samples are representative of law enforcement officers across New Jersey. Although enough responses were collected to support significance testing, the generalization of results comprising these follow-up samples should be made with caution.

Finally, reliance on survey data means that we do not directly observe the "real world" impact these trainings may have. The limitations of survey data—particularly concerns related to social desirability—have been discussed elsewhere (see Chan, 2008). Although we glean an understanding of how well-received the training is by officers and their level of buy-in to training content, we are unable to capture actual behavioral change with the study's methodology. Direct observation of officer actions is needed to know whether and how skills related to de-escalation and peer intervention are used in the field following their participation in training.

CONCLUSION AND NEXT STEPS

The findings demonstrate the positive impacts of mandatory de-escalation and peer intervention training on officer attitudes and shed light on how officers self-report applying skills from what they have learned. As we continue to assess the impact of the NJOAG's use of force reduction initiative across other outcomes, these initial findings offer promising evidence for the effects of statewide police reform.

The next steps in this study will involve the examination of behavioral outcomes in the field, including changes in officers' use of force, community member injuries, officer injuries, and officer-involved shootings. We will explore differences across the state, counties, and large municipal police agencies in New Jersey. We will also engage in in-depth statistical analyses of the use of force in a few case study police agencies. Finally, we will continue to gather qualitative information through focus groups and interviews that shed light on the impacts of the use of force reduction initiatives as well as lessons learned from this implementation process. Please follow our progress at https://www.policinginstitute.org/projects/new-jersey-evaluate-use-of-force-policies-training/.

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APPENDIX A. ICAT TRAINING SURVEY RESULTS

Table 21. ICAT Survey Response Counts by County

	Pre-Training		*Post-Training*	
	Freq.	**Percent**	**Freq.**	**Percent**
Atlantic County	860	5.04	718	4.90
Bergen County	954	5.59	761	5.19
Burlington County	871	5.11	729	4.98
Camden County	653	3.83	513	3.50
Cape May County	487	2.86	472	3.22
Cumberland County	436	2.56	357	2.44
Essex County	2023	11.86	1817	12.40
Gloucester County	695	4.08	617	4.21
Hudson County	739	4.33	453	3.09
Hunterdon County	257	1.51	230	1.57
Mercer County	1038	6.09	908	6.20
Middlesex County	813	4.77	691	4.72
Monmouth County	1127	6.61	649	4.43
Morris County	155	0.91	268	1.83
Ocean County	926	5.43	731	4.99
Passaic County	1284	7.53	1082	7.39
Salem County	120	0.70	80	0.55
Somerset County	747	4.38	746	5.09
Sussex County	266	1.56	260	1.77
Union County	1085	6.36	1168	7.97
Warren County	16	0.09	4	0.03
NJ State Police	1484	8.70	1384	9.45
NJ Transit Police	2	0.01	6	0.04
Rutgers University Police	1	0.01	0	0.00
Missing	15	0.09	7	0.05
Total	**17,054**	**100.00**	**14,651**	**100.00**

Table 22. Follow-Up Survey Response Counts by County

	1-Year Follow-Up		2-Year Follow-Up	
	Freq.	**Percent**	**Freq.**	**Percent**
Atlantic County	27	4.55	0	0.00
Burlington County	88	14.84	55	25.82
Camden County	106	17.88	68	31.92
Gloucester County	83	14.00	22	10.33
Hudson County	47	7.93	41	19.25
Somerset County	239	40.30	24	11.27
Missing	3	0.51	3	1.41
Total	**593**	**100.00**	**213**	**100.00**

Table 23. ICAT Survey "Other" Rank Responses

	Freq.	Percent
Class One Special Police Officer	20	1.24
Class Three Special Police Officer	32	1.98
Class Two Special Police Officer	91	5.63
Correctional Officer	68	4.21
Other	19	1.18
School Resource Officer	18	1.11
Sheriff's Officer	152	9.40
Specialized Unit	18	1.11
Trooper	131	8.10
Missing	1068	66.05
Total	**1617**	**100.00**

Table 24. Full One-Year Follow-Up Survey Demographics (N = 545)

	%	(n)		%	(n)
Gender			**LE Tenure**		
Male	71.38	(389)	Less than 1 year	0.37	(2)
Female	5.32	(29)	1 – 4 years	7.16	(39)
Other	1.83	(10)	5 – 9 years	13.39	(73)
Unknown	21.47	(117)	10 – 14 years	9.54	(52)
Age			15 – 19 years	14.31	(78)
18 - 20 years old	0.37	(2)	20 or more years	32.84	(179)
21 - 24 years old	1.83	(10)	Unknown	22.39	(122)
25 - 29 years old	7.71	(42)	**Education**		
30 - 34 years old	10.83	(59)	GED / HSED	0.18	(1)
35 - 39 years old	13.76	(75)	High School	5.32	(29)
40 - 44 years old	12.66	(69)	> 2 years college	15.05	(82)
45 - 49 years old	14.86	(81)	Associate's Degree	14.68	(80)
50+ years old	16.33	(89)	Bachelor's Degree	33.58	(183)
Unknown	21.65	(118)	Graduate Degree	8.62	(47)
Race/Ethnicity			Unknown	22.57	(123)
Caucasian/White	63.49	(346)	**Rank**		
African American/ Black	3.49	(19)	Patrol Officer	31.56	(172)
Latino/Hispanic	5.69	(31)	Detective	4.22	(23)
Asian/Pacific Islander	1.29	(7)	Corporal	1.83	(10)
Native American	0.18	(1)	Sergeant	15.60	(85)
Two or More	1.65	(9)	Lieutenant	8.99	(49)
Other	2.20	(12)	Captain or Above	8.62	(47)
Unknown	22.02	(120)	Retired	0.55	(3)
			Other	6.06	(33)
			Unknown	22.57	(123)

Table 25. Full Two-Year Follow-Up Survey Demographics (N = 199)

	%	(n)
Gender		
Male	73.37	(146)
Female	10.55	(21)
Other	3.02	(6)
Unknown	13.07	(26)
Age		
18 - 20 years old	0.50	(1)
21 - 24 years old	0.50	(1)
25 - 29 years old	9.05	(18)
30 - 34 years old	12.06	(24)
35 - 39 years old	12.56	(25)
40 - 44 years old	11.06	(22)
45 - 49 years old	20.60	(41)
50+ years old	21.11	(42)
Unknown	12.56	(25)
Race/Ethnicity		
Caucasian/White	57.79	(115)
African American/Black	7.54	(15)
Latino/Hispanic	8.04	(16)
Asian/Pacific Islander	2.01	(4)
Two or More	4.02	(8)
Other	4.52	(9)
Unknown	16.08	(32)

	%	(n)
LE Tenure		
Less than 1 year	2.01	(4)
1 – 4 years	5.03	(10)
5 – 9 years	12.56	(25)
10 – 14 years	10.55	(21)
15 – 19 years	18.59	(37)
20 or more years	38.19	(76)
Unknown	13.07	(26)
Education		
GED / HSED	0.50	(1)
High School	7.04	(14)
> 2 years college	17.59	(35)
Associate's Degree	14.07	(28)
Bachelor's Degree	35.18	(70)
Graduate Degree	12.06	(24)
Unknown	13.57	(27)
Rank		
Patrol Officer	23.62	(45)
Detective	10.05	(20)
Corporal	2.51	(5)
Sergeant	16.08	(32)
Lieutenant	14.57	(29)
Captain or Above	10.05	(20)
Retired	1.01	(2)
Other	7.54	(15)
Unknown	14.57	(29)

Table 26. Scales Developed from ICAT Pre-, Post-, and Follow-Up Training Surveys

Construct	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
ICAT Training Scales		
Receptivity to ICAT Training	1. The training was useful to me. 2. I would recommend this training to others. 3. The training content was clear. 4. I am satisfied with the training. 5. The training taught me new things.	Post: .94
Utility of the Critical Decision-Making Model	The CDM… 1. Increases my decision-making skills during everyday situations. 2. Often take too much time to use in encounters with a person in crisis (reverse-coded). 3. May make officers hesitate to take action (reverse-coded). 4. Helps me to assess the risks in a situation. 5. Helps me identify my options for action in a situation. 6. Helps me select an option to resolve a situation. 7. Remind me to continuously gather information during a situation. 8. Is too complicated (reverse-coded). 9. Helps me review the action I took during a situation. 10. Helps me explain my decision-making after I act in a situation. 11. I am confident using the CDM during an encounter with a person in crisis.	Post: .92 FU1: .93 FU2: .94
Views on Citizen Interactions	1. I have considerable ability to control the nature of citizen interactions to create positive outcomes. 2. I am good at identifying officer safety risks in citizen encounters. 3. I am good at de-escalating encounters with citizens. 4. Officers can be trained to increase the likelihood of positive encounters with citizens. 5. Officers can be trained to improve their ability to identify officer safety risks in citizen encounters. 6. Officers can be trained to improve their ability to de-escalate citizen encounters.	Pre: .90 Post: .92
Interactions with Persons in Crisis	1. Recognizing signs that a person is in crisis can improve the outcome of the interaction with that person. 2. Unnecessary risks should be avoided in encounters.	Pre: .87 Post: .92

	3. The most important role of an officer responding to crisis is to stabilize the situation. 4. In crisis situations, it is beneficial to keep a subject talking. 5. In many cases, the use of force against a person in crisis can be avoided. 6. As a person's emotions rise, their rational thinking declines. 7. When responding as a team, it is important to designate roles in the crisis intervention. 8. The majority of the time spent communicating with a subject should be spent listening. 9. An officer's nonverbal communication, such as body language, influences how a subject reacts. 10. I know how to slow down an encounter with a person in crisis.	
Attitudes Toward Use of Force	1. It is sometimes necessary to use more force than is technically allowable. (reverse-coded) 2. Verbally disrespectful suspects sometimes deserve physical force. (reverse-coded) 3. Refraining from using force when you are legally able to puts yourself and other officers at risk. (reverse-coded) 4. It is important to have a reputation that you are an officer willing to use force. (reverse-coded) 5. Not using force when you could have makes suspects more likely to resist in future interactions. (reverse-coded) 6. Trying to talk my way out of a situation is always safer than using force. 7. It is important that my fellow officers trust my communication skills. 8. I respect officers' ability to talk suspects down rather than using force to make them comply. 9. Generally, if force has to be used, it is better to do so earlier in an interaction with a suspect, opposed to later. (reverse-coded)	Pre: .73 Post: .78
Encounters with Persons in Crisis	1. How often do you change your approach with a person in crisis after you have determined those prior approaches are ineffective? 2. How often do you deliberately wait to interact with a person in crisis who is not an imminent threat to assess the situation before taking action? 3. When responding to a person in crisis with a second officer, how often do you assign contact and cover roles? 4. When responding to a person in crisis, how often do you establish a backup plan? 5. How often do you recognize your own emotional state (i.e., having high emotions) influences your interactions with persons in crisis? 6. How often do you consider your police powers before taking action during encounters with persons in crisis?	Pre: .72 FU1: .80 FU2: .83

Experiences with ICAT Training	1. I am more likely to consider using less-lethal options after ICAT training. 2. ICAT training strategies are useful. 3. I would recommend ICAT training to other officers. 4. Using ICAT training strategies has improved my interactions with persons in crisis. 5. Using ICAT training strategies has improved my interactions with all citizens. 6. ICAT training has helped improve police-community relations. 7. My command staff support the use of skills taught in ICAT training. 8. My immediate supervisor supports the use of ICAT training. 9. My peers support the use of ICAT training.	FU1: .95 FU2: .96

Table 27. Full Results for Pre-Training Views on Policing

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1. Enforcing the law is a patrol officer's most important responsibility.	Freq.	486	3085	5588	5112	1625	15896
	Percent	3.06	19.41	35.15	32.16	10.22	100
2. Law enforcement and community members must work together to solve local problems.	Freq.	32	40	1012	7762	7074	15920
	Percent	0.20	0.25	6.36	48.76	44.43	100
3. Working with the community to solve problems is an effective means of providing services to this area.	Freq.	31	39	1099	8183	6563	15915
	Percent	0.19	0.25	6.91	51.42	41.24	100
4. I routinely collaborate with community members in my daily duties.	Freq.	191	1103	4106	7086	3420	15906
	Percent	1.20	6.93	25.81	44.55	21.50	100
5. My primary responsibility as a police officer is to fight crime.	Freq.	579	3562	5499	4915	1339	15894
	Percent	3.64	22.41	34.60	30.92	8.42	100
6. As a police officer, I have a primary responsibility to protect the constitutional rights of residents.	Freq.	31	113	1365	7507	6891	15907
	Percent	0.19	0.71	8.58	47.19	43.32	100
7. A primary responsibility of a police officer is to build trust between the department and the community.	Freq.	36	155	1465	7290	6967	15913
	Percent	0.23	0.97	9.21	45.81	43.78	100
8. As a police officer, it is important that I have non-enforcement contacts with the public.	Freq.	179	501	1480	7226	6521	15907
	Percent	1.13	3.15	9.30	45.43	40.99	100
9. As a police officer, I see myself primarily as a public servant.	Freq.	110	585	2421	8011	4779	15906
	Percent	0.69	3.68	15.22	50.36	30.05	100
10. My primary role is to control predatory suspects who threaten members of the public.	Freq.	349	2334	4424	6312	2466	15885
	Percent	2.20	14.69	27.85	39.74	15.52	100
11. The jurisdiction that I work in is dangerous.	Freq.	867	3052	6088	4056	1833	15896
	Percent	5.45	19.20	38.30	25.52	11.53	100

12. As a police officer, there is a good chance you will be assaulted on the job.	Freq.	193	1085	3322	7492	3819	15911
	Percent	1.21	6.82	20.88	47.09	24.00	100
13. Overall, I am satisfied with my job.	Freq.	180	401	2079	7658	5593	15911
	Percent	1.13	2.52	13.07	48.13	35.15	100
14. I enjoy working with my colleagues.	Freq.	58	92	1468	7630	6667	15915
	Percent	0.36	0.58	9.22	47.94	41.89	100
15. Overall, this is a good agency to work for.	Freq.	269	362	2109	6592	6579	15911
	Percent	1.69	2.28	13.25	41.43	41.35	100

Table 28. Full Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Self-Reported Actions During Encounters with Persons in Crisis

		N	Never	Seldom	Half-the-time	Usually	Always	*U*
1. How often do you change your approach with a person in crisis after you have determined those prior approaches are ineffective?	Pre	15709	0.83	4.04	13.25	53.15	28.74	9.54*
	Post	13448	0.42	2.86	11.31	52.71	32.69	
2. How often do you deliberately wait to interact with a person in crisis who is not an imminent threat to assess the situation before taking action?	Pre	15675	8.15	13.98	17.87	43.00	17.00	12.24*
	Post	13420	6.03	11.50	16.40	45.32	20.75	
3. When responding to a person in crisis with a second officer, how often do you assign contact and cover roles?	Pre	15712	4.28	14.36	16.64	40.84	23.88	17.87*
	Post	13448	1.74	9.77	15.42	42.97	30.10	
4. When responding to a person in crisis, how often do you establish a backup plan?	Pre	15710	2.81	14.33	17.42	40.53	24.91	17.86*
	Post	13445	1.08	8.84	15.53	44.12	30.44	
5. How often do you recognize your own emotional state (i.e., having high emotions) influences your interactions with persons in crisis?	Pre	15706	3.86	13.15	14.08	45.89	23.01	16.42*
	Post	13445	1.70	7.87	12.92	50.40	27.12	
6. How often do you consider your police powers before taking action during encounters with persons in crisis?	Pre	15662	4.38	14.65	16.81	38.45	25.71	15.74*
	Post	13426	2.85	11.04	14.64	39.11	32.36	

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table 29. Matched Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Self-Reported Actions During Encounters with Persons in Crisis

		Never	Seldom	Half-the-time	Usually	Always	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*W*
1. How often do you change your approach with a person in crisis after you have determined those prior approaches are ineffective? (N = 4754)	Pre	0.78	3.85	12.10	54.40	28.88	4.07 (.01)	7.66*	7.49†
	Post	0.48	3.07	10.03	52.92	33.49	4.16 (.01)		
2. How often do you deliberately wait to interact with a person in crisis who is not an imminent threat to assess the situation before taking action? (N = 4741)	Pre	7.66	15.10	16.79	43.11	17.34	3.47 (.02)	9.88*	9.45†
	Post	6.03	11.50	15.04	46.19	21.24	3.65 (.02)		
3. When responding to a person in crisis with a second officer, how often do you assign contact and cover roles? (N = 4754)	Pre	4.14	14.93	14.93	41.14	24.84	3.68 (.02)	17.98*	16.81†
	Post	1.72	10.16	13.78	42.24	32.10	3.93 (.02)		
4. When responding to a person in crisis, how often do you establish a backup plan? (N = 4748)	Pre	2.63	14.91	16.68	41.39	24.39	3.70 (.02)	19.17*	18.06†
	Post	1.03	9.06	14.79	43.37	31.76	3.96 (.01)		
5. How often do you recognize your own emotional state (i.e., having high emotions) influences your interactions with persons in crisis? (N = 4753)	Pre	3.77	13.17	12.71	46.39	23.96	3.74 (.02)	14.96*	13.79†
	Post	1.98	8.06	11.13	50.41	28.42	3.95 (.01)		
6. How often do you consider your police powers before taking action during encounters with persons in crisis? (N = 4738)	Pre	4.12	14.94	15.51	38.41	27.02	3.69 (.02)	9.96*	10.16†
	Post	3.23	12.03	13.25	39.13	32.36	3.85 (.02)		
***Encounters with Persons in Crisis Index* (*N* = 4709)**	**Pre**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**3.73 (.01)**	**23.60***	**21.93†**
	Post	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**3.92 (.01)**		

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using paired sample *t* test.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Table 30. Follow-Up Differences in Officer Self-Reported Actions During Encounters with Persons in Crisis

		N	N	S	H	U	A	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*F*	*H*
1. How often do you change your approach with a person in crisis after you have determined those prior approaches are ineffective?	Pre	3622	0.55	3.51	12.67	55.16	28.11	4.07 (.01)		
	FU1	442	3.85	8.60	10.18	46.38	31.00	3.92 (.05)	6.46*	2.07
	FU2	174	3.45	2.87	11.49	48.85	33.33	4.06 (.07)		
2. How often do you deliberately wait to interact with a person in crisis who is not an imminent threat to assess the situation before taking action?	Pre	3607	7.24	14.61	16.94	44.80	16.41	3.49 (.02)		
	FU1	441	7.71	12.02	15.19	43.31	21.77	3.59 (.06)	5.58*	12.94†
	FU2	174	5.75	7.47	17.24	45.98	23.56	3.74 (.08)		
3. When responding to a person in crisis with a second officer, how often do you assign contact and cover roles?	Pre	3624	3.45	14.98	15.40	40.98	25.19	3.69 (.02)		
	FU1	439	6.15	13.21	11.62	35.99	33.03	3.77 (.06)	3.75*	13.06†
	FU2	174	6.32	6.90	10.92	40.80	35.06	3.91 (.09)		
4. When responding to a person in crisis, how often do you establish a backup plan?	Pre	3622	3.23	18.11	17.67	38.74	22.25	3.59 (.02)		
	FU1	439	5.01	16.17	16.17	38.95	23.69	3.60 (.06)	2.23	5.28
	FU2	174	5.17	8.62	18.97	38.51	28.74	3.77 (.08)		
5. How often do you recognize your own emotional state (i.e., having high emotions) influences your interactions with persons in crisis?	Pre	3623	3.31	14.85	13.61	46.76	21.47	3.68 (.02)		
	FU1	439	5.24	10.25	9.11	44.87	30.52	3.85 (.05)	8.33*	25.33†
	FU2	174	6.32	4.60	12.07	44.87	32.18	3.92 (.08)		
6. How often do you consider your police powers before taking action during encounters with persons in crisis?	Pre	3608	4.13	16.05	15.96	38.69	25.17	3.65 (.02)		
	FU1	437	5.03	10.30	11.67	34.10	38.90	3.92 (.06)	17.17*	46.09†
	FU2	174	5.17	8.05	10.34	35.06	41.38	3.99 (.09)		
Encounters with Persons in Crisis Average	**Pre**	**3592**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**3.70 (.01)**		
	FU1	**436**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**3.78 (.04)**	**9.23***	**35.41†**
	FU2	**174**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**3.90 (.06)**		

N = "Never"; S = "Seldom"; H = "Half-the-time"; U = "Usually"; A = "Always"

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using One-way ANOVA. † Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

Table 31. Full Results for Post-Training Officer Receptivity to ICAT Training

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1. The training was useful to me.	Freq.	90	189	1407	6293	5494	13473
	Percent	0.67	1.40	10.44	46.71	40.78	100
2. I would recommend this training to others.	Freq.	109	172	1579	6017	5591	13468
	Percent	0.81	1.28	11.72	44.68	41.51	100
3. The training content was clear.	Freq.	41	60	840	6555	5974	13470
	Percent	0.30	0.45	6.24	48.66	44.35	100
4. I am satisfied with the training.	Freq.	99	154	1390	6363	5460	13466
	Percent	0.74	1.14	10.32	47.25	40.55	100
5. The training duration should be lengthened.	Freq.	2620	5223	4100	826	696	13465
	Percent	19.46	38.79	30.45	6.13	5.17	100
6. The training should be shortened.	Freq.	1002	3123	4999	2620	1729	13473
	Percent	7.44	23.18	37.1	19.45	12.83	100
7. The training taught me new things.	Freq.	134	385	1785	6234	4931	13469
	Percent	0.99	2.86	13.25	46.28	36.61	100

Table 32. Full Results for Post-Training Views on Critical Decision-Making Model Utility

The CDM …		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1. Increases my decision-making skills during everyday situations.	Freq.	44	123	1799	7429	4148	13543
	Percent	0.32	0.91	13.28	54.85	30.63	100
2. Often takes too much time to use in encounters with a person in crisis.	Freq.	2570	6641	2912	946	466	13535
	Percent	18.99	49.07	21.51	6.99	3.44	100
3. May make officers hesitate to take action when needed.	Freq.	1576	5300	3795	2194	675	13540
	Percent	11.64	39.14	28.03	16.2	4.99	100
4. Helps me to assess the risks in a situation.	Freq.	33	78	1427	7817	4188	13543
	Percent	0.24	0.58	10.54	57.72	30.92	100
5. Helps me identify my options for action in a situation.	Freq.	34	74	1472	7849	4106	13535
	Percent	0.25	0.55	10.88	57.99	30.34	100
6. Helps me select an option to resolve a situation.	Freq.	40	87	1656	7711	4047	13541
	Percent	0.3	0.64	12.23	56.95	29.89	100
7. Reminds me to continuously gather information during a situation.	Freq.	24	43	1223	7565	4686	13541
	Percent	0.18	0.32	9.03	55.87	34.61	100
8. Is too complicated.	Freq.	3167	7137	2357	571	301	13533
	Percent	23.4	52.74	17.42	4.22	2.22	100
9. Helps me review the action I took during a situation.	Freq.	40	105	1630	7919	3834	13528
	Percent	0.3	0.78	12.05	58.54	28.34	100
10. Helps me explain my decision-making after I act in a situation.	Freq.	54	149	1793	7717	3822	13535
	Percent	0.4	1.1	13.25	57.02	28.24	100
11. I am confident using the CDM during an encounter with a person in crisis.	Freq.	35	94	1878	7516	4011	13534
	Percent	0.26	0.69	13.88	55.53	29.64	100

Table 33. Follow-Up Differences in Views on Critical Decision-Making Model Utility

The CDM…		*N*	SD	D	N	A	SA	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*F*	*H*
1. Increases my decision-making skills during everyday situations.	Post	2981	0.20	0.77	8.25	56.63	34.15	4.24 (.01)		
	FU1	464	6.03	6.25	33.41	37.28	17.03	3.53 (.05)	213.70*	267.83†
	FU2	177	6.21	2.82	26.55	40.11	24.29	3.73 (.08)		
2. Often takes too much time to use in encounters with a person in crisis.	Post	2978	22.23	54.53	15.72	4.94	2.59	2.11 (.02)		
	FU1	464	7.54	22.63	49.78	12.93	7.11	2.89 (.04)	193.81*	382.69†
	FU2	177	11.30	23.16	38.42	19.21	7.91	2.89 (.08)		
3. May make officers hesitate to take action when needed.	Post	2981	13.72	44.95	23.21	14.26	3.86	2.50 (.02)		
	FU1	464	4.96	17.67	40.73	23.06	13.58	3.23 (.05)	121.73*	227.45†
	FU2	177	9.04	24.86	27.68	22.03	16.38	3.12 (.09)		
4. Helps me to assess the risks in a situation.	Post	2983	0.17	0.44	6.67	58.73	33.99	4.26 (.01)		
	FU1	464	4.53	3.88	34.05	46.34	11.21	3.56 (.04)	254.22*	353.85†
	FU2	177	3.95	2.82	25.99	50.85	16.38	3.73 (.07)		
5. Helps me identify my options for action in a situation.	Post	2980	0.10	0.34	6.31	59.23	34.03	4.27 (.01)		
	FU1	464	4.31	5.17	32.76	46.55	11.21	3.55 (.04)	274.56*	366.97†
	FU2	177	3.95	2.82	27.68	49.15	16.38	3.71 (.07)		
6. Helps me select an option to resolve a situation.	Post	2981	0.13	0.64	7.65	58.50	33.08	4.24 (.01)		
	FU1	464	4.31	4.31	36.21	43.75	11.42	3.54 (.04)	249.30*	351.80†
	FU2	177	3.95	4.52	25.99	50.28	15.25	3.68 (.07)		
7. Reminds me to continuously gather information during a situation.	Post	2983	0.07	0.30	4.86	56.89	37.88	4.32 (.01)		
	FU1	463	3.67	3.67	30.02	49.24	13.39	3.65 (.04)	249.79*	330.78†
	FU2	177	3.95	2.82	22.60	50.28	20.34	3.80 (.07)		
8. Is too complicated.	Post	2977	26.91	56.50	11.22	3.53	1.85	1.97 (.02)		
	FU1	464	7.11	36.42	42.67	8.41	5.39	2.69 (.04)	183.26*	357.86†
	FU2	177	10.17	39.55	31.64	10.17	8.47	2.67 (.08)		

9. Helps me review the action I took during a situation.	Post	2975	0.27	0.87	7.43	60.54	30.89	4.21 (.01)		
	FU1	464	4.09	3.45	37.72	43.97	10.78	3.54 (.04)	221.80*	336.10†
	FU2	177	4.52	2.82	27.12	48.59	16.95	3.71 (.07)		
10. Helps me explain my decision-making after I act in a situation.	Post	2980	0.40	1.01	8.46	58.99	31.14	4.19 (.01)		
	FU1	464	3.88	4.31	36.64	43.97	11.21	3.54 (.04)	200.19*	310.32†
	FU2	177	4.52	5.08	25.99	47.46	16.95	3.67 (.07)		
11. I am confident using the CDM during an encounter with a person in crisis.	Post	2982	0.17	0.80	9.76	57.08	32.19	4.20 (.01)		
	FU1	464	3.23	4.74	32.97	43.53	15.52	3.63 (.04)	155.18*	225.20†
	FU2	177	2.82	4.52	27.68	45.20	19.77	3.75 (.07)		
Views of the Utility of the CDM Scale	**Post**	**2959**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**45.34 (.11)**		
	FU1	**463**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**37.72 (.37)**	**345.13***	**494.79†**
	FU2	**177**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**39.10 (.66)**		

SD = "Strongly Disagree"; D = "Disagree"; N = "Neutral"; A= "Agree"; SA = "Strongly Agree"

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using One-way ANOVA. † Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

Table 34. Full Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Views on Citizen Interactions

		N	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	*U*
1. I have considerable ability to control the nature of citizen interactions to create positive outcomes.	Pre	16646	0.99	0.61	11.35	55.14	31.91	10.84*
	Post	14118	0.52	0.32	8.56	54.19	36.41	
2. I am good at identifying officer safety risks in citizen encounters.	Pre	16644	0.83	0.14	6.68	57.55	34.81	9.04*
	Post	14123	0.43	0.04	5.01	55.6	38.92	
3. I am good at de-escalating encounters with citizens.	Pre	16647	0.88	0.16	8.67	55.77	34.52	5.62*
	Post	14120	0.52	0.15	6.86	55.91	36.56	
4. In tense citizen encounters, the most important thing is that I get home safely.	Pre	16628	1.48	1.67	10.12	32.85	53.87	-17.34*
	Post	14101	1.43	4.68	12.35	36.78	44.77	
5. Officers can be trained to increase the likelihood of positive encounters with citizens.	Pre	16648	1.03	0.23	5.75	47.01	45.98	8.19*
	Post	14121	0.60	0.12	4.34	44.92	50.02	
6. Officers can be trained to improve their ability to identify officer safety risks in citizen encounters.	Pre	16651	1.13	0.07	3.90	47.17	47.72	4.13*
	Post	14119	0.59	0.08	3.56	46.01	49.76	
7. Officers can be trained to improve their ability to de-escalate citizen encounters.	Pre	16651	1.09	0.21	4.98	46.95	46.77	8.69*
	Post	14117	0.57	0.08	3.79	44.42	51.14	

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table 35. Matched Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Views on Citizen Interactions

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*W*
1. I have considerable ability to control the nature of citizen interactions to create positive outcomes. (N = 4825)	Pre	0.81	0.81	11.17	56.93	30.28	4.15 (.01)	13.32*	13.71†
	Post	0.39	0.19	7.23	54.53	37.66	4.29 (.01)		
2. I am good at identifying officer safety risks in citizen encounters. (N = 4824)	Pre	0.83	0.19	6.61	57.61	34.76	4.25 (.01)	10.08*	9.84†
	Post	0.27	0.06	4.35	55.14	40.17	4.35 (.01)		
3. I am good at de-escalating encounters with citizens. (N = 4822)	Pre	0.89	0.12	8.63	57.32	33.04	4.21 (.01)	8.47*	8.25†
	Post	0.39	0.15	6.10	56.14	37.23	4.30 (.01)		
4. In tense citizen encounters, the most important thing is that I get home safely. (N = 4817)	Pre	1.37	1.79	9.84	32.93	54.08	4.37 (.01)	-15.78*	-17.35†
	Post	1.68	5.88	12.02	36.43	43.99	4.15 (.01)		
5. Officers can be trained to increase the likelihood of positive encounters with citizens. (N = 4822)	Pre	1.10	0.25	5.18	46.58	46.89	4.38 (.01)	11.17*	12.01†
	Post	0.41	0.12	3.11	42.78	53.57	4.49 (.01)		
6. Officers can be trained to improve their ability to identify officer safety risks in citizen encounters. (N = 4822)	Pre	1.16	0.10	3.38	46.29	49.07	4.42 (.01)	7.49*	6.80†
	Post	0.33	0.10	2.51	44.23	52.82	4.49 (.01)		
7. Officers can be trained to improve their ability to de-escalate citizen encounters. (N = 4822)	Pre	1.16	0.17	4.58	46.41	47.68	4.39 (.01)	11.98*	12.19†
	Post	0.37	0.04	2.59	42.49	54.50	4.51 (.01)		
Views of Citizen Interaction Scale (N = 4818)	**Pre**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**25.81 (.05)**	**13.89***	**15.76†**
	Post	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**26.42 (.04)**		

* Statistically significant at p < .05 using dependent (paired) sample t test.

† Statistically significant at *p* < .05 using nonparametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Table 36. Full Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Attitudes Toward Persons in Crisis

		N	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	*U*
1. Recognizing signs that a person is in crisis can improve the outcome of the interaction with that person.	Pre	16360	0.32	0.09	5.21	53.55	40.82	14.24*
	Post	13884	0.22	0.05	4.35	46.29	49.09	
2. There is no explaining why persons in crisis act the way they do.	Pre	16346	9.29	41.34	26.21	17.37	5.79	7.74*
	Post	13874	10.55	36.94	23.09	20.50	8.92	
3. Noncompliance should be viewed as a threat.	Pre	16356	5.54	29.63	39.75	20.15	4.94	-33.37*
	Post	13872	12.77	40.66	30.92	11.94	3.71	
4. Unnecessary risks should be avoided in encounters.	Pre	16345	0.44	0.99	8.55	51.11	38.91	8.93*
	Post	13864	0.46	0.63	6.86	48.57	43.47	
5. The most important role of an officer responding to crisis is to stabilize the situation.	Pre	16353	0.42	0.69	7.68	55.96	35.25	11.13*
	Post	13875	0.25	0.48	6.15	52.01	41.10	
6. In crisis situations, it is beneficial to keep a subject talking.	Pre	16358	0.24	0.51	14.03	58.79	26.42	34.84*
	Post	13879	0.15	0.17	5.97	50.35	43.35	
7. In many cases, the use of force against a person in crisis can be avoided.	Pre	16353	0.64	4.10	34.4	46.18	14.69	27.63*
	Post	13874	0.32	1.56	23.92	51.02	23.17	
8. As a person's emotions rise, their rational thinking declines.	Pre	16353	0.67	1.25	8.86	56.43	32.8	22.97*
	Post	13869	0.47	0.45	5.96	47.98	45.14	
9. When responding as a team, it is important to designate roles in the crisis intervention.	Pre	16353	0.26	0.40	7.89	56.49	34.95	26.77*
	Post	13871	0.15	0.09	4.53	45.61	49.61	
10. The majority of time spent communicating with a subject should be spent listening.	Pre	16351	0.30	1.74	23.45	54.70	19.81	37.03*
	Post	13870	0.27	1.15	11.32	50.95	36.31	
11. An officer's nonverbal communication, such as body language, influences how a subject reacts.	Pre	16354	0.32	0.59	8.42	58.45	32.21	20.12*
	Post	13865	0.15	0.22	5.61	51.27	42.75	

12. I know how to slow down an encounter with a person in crisis.	Pre	16345	0.28	1.03	22.09	58.42	18.18	32.86*
	Post	13871	0.15	0.17	10.01	60.38	29.29	
13. Situational stress is no excuse for a person to act irrational.	Pre	16336	4.91	28.91	29.16	27.77	9.26	-
	Post	13854	8.32	33.21	24.63	23.26	10.58	10.78*
14. Responding to persons in crisis should not be a role of the police.	Pre	16344	21.71	46.01	21.63	6.89	3.75	-1.99*
	Post	13854	23.22	45.20	20.22	7.26	4.1	

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test

Table 37. Matched Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Attitudes Toward Persons in Crisis

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*W*
1. Recognizing signs that a person is in crisis can improve the outcome of the interaction with that person. (N = 4804)	Pre	0.40	0.06	4.04	54.54	40.97	4.36 (.01)	14.08*	15.38†
	Post	0.21	0.06	2.89	45.27	51.56	4.48 (.01)		
2. There is no explaining why persons in crisis act the way they do. (N = 4800)	Pre	9.67	42.46	25.25	17.42	5.21	2.66 (.02)	6.21*	5.67†
	Post	12.00	38.38	20.29	20.27	9.06	2.76 (.02)		
3. Noncompliance should be viewed as a threat. (N = 4805)	Pre	6.41	32.88	38.44	18.11	4.16	2.81 (.01)	-26.92*	-26.98†
	Post	15.38	44.00	27.03	10.39	3.20	2.42 (.01)		
4. Unnecessary risks should be avoided in encounters. (N = 4797)	Pre	0.54	0.85	7.40	50.82	40.38	4.30 (.01)	8.65*	9.36†
	Post	0.48	0.54	5.27	47.36	46.34	4.39 (.01)		
5. The most important role of an officer responding to crisis is to stabilize the situation. (N = 4802)	Pre	0.54	0.65	6.39	56.08	36.34	4.27 (.01)	11.42*	12.55†
	Post	0.35	0.56	4.60	49.58	44.90	4.38 (.01)		
6. In crisis situations, it is beneficial to keep a subject talking. (N = 4805)	Pre	0.35	0.58	12.72	59.29	27.06	4.12 (.01)	29.21*	28.73†
	Post	0.15	0.17	4.62	48.60	46.47	4.41 (.01)		
7. In many cases, the use of force against a person in crisis can be avoided. (N = 4803)	Pre	0.73	3.87	32.42	48.70	14.28	3.72 (.01)	27.22*	26.64†
	Post	0.29	1.31	19.53	52.24	26.63	4.04 (.01)		
8. As a person's emotions rise, their rational thinking declines. (N = 4801)	Pre	0.75	1.15	7.27	57.40	33.43	4.22 (.01)	18.67*	20.13†
	Post	0.40	0.46	4.44	46.80	47.91	4.41 (.01)		
9. When responding as a team, it is important to designate roles in the crisis intervention. (N = 4800)	Pre	0.42	0.52	6.73	56.50	35.83	4.27 (.01)	24.16*	24.15†
	Post	0.08	0.13	3.19	43.88	52.73	4.49 (.01)		
10. The majority of time spent communicating with a subject should be spent listening. (N = 4797)	Pre	0.31	1.90	21.35	56.85	19.60	3.94 (.01)	32.31*	31.60†
	Post	0.29	1.10	8.46	49.39	40.75	4.29.01)		
11. An officer's nonverbal communication, such as body language, influences how a subject reacts. (N = 4795)	Pre	0.42	0.60	6.59	60.25	32.14	4.23 (.01)	20.50*	20.96†
	Post	0.15	0.21	3.98	48.74	46.91	4.42 (.01)		

12. I know how to slow down an encounter with a person in crisis. (N = 4799)	Pre	0.42	1.04	22.32	58.78	17.44	3.92 (.01)	30.21*	29.32†
	Post	0.10	0.13	8.40	60.28	31.09	4.22 (.01)		
13. Situational stress is no excuse for a person to act irrational. (N = 4792)	Pre	5.61	31.41	27.88	26.31	8.79	3.01 (.02)	-5.99*	-6.66†
	Post	9.58	34.79	22.14	22.18	11.31	2.92 (.02)		
14. Responding to persons in crisis should not be a role of the police. (N = 4791)	Pre	22.40	47.38	20.52	6.30	3.40	2.21 (.01)	-2.44*	-4.52†
	Post	25.59	45.71	18.01	6.99	3.69	2.17 (.02)		
***Attitudes Towards Persons in Crisis Scale* (*N* = 4766)**	**Pre**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**41.33 (.07)**	**37.55***	**38.74†**
	Post	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**43.53 (.07)**		

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using paired sample *t* test.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Table 38. Full Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Attitudes Toward Use of Force

		N	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	*U*
1. Officers are not allowed to use as much force as is necessary to make suspects comply.	Pre	16051	18.55	41.45	21.64	13.17	5.20	5.00*
	Post	13648	17.24	40.45	21.87	13.92	6.52	
2. It is sometimes necessary to use more force than is technically allowable.	Pre	16072	30.01	37.11	19.38	11.12	2.38	-7.51*
	Post	13659	33.63	37.18	17.01	9.15	3.03	
3. Verbally disrespectful suspects sometimes deserve physical force.	Pre	16083	42.93	41.78	11.15	2.95	1.19	-4.53*
	Post	13675	45.56	40.34	9.68	2.82	1.60	
4. Refraining from using force when you are legally able to puts yourself and other officers at risk.	Pre	16049	6.22	27.62	33.70	23.32	9.13	-18.94*
	Post	13657	9.77	34.10	31.39	17.21	7.53	
5. It is important to have a reputation that you are an officer who is willing to use force.	Pre	16076	24.78	40.59	23.62	8.07	2.94	-1.86
	Post	13662	25.85	40.62	21.95	8.30	3.28	
6. Not using force when you could have makes suspects more likely to resist in future interactions.	Pre	16062	13.42	41.67	27.49	13.34	4.08	-12.76*
	Post	13661	18.46	43.35	22.79	10.68	4.71	
7. It is important that my fellow officers trust me to handle myself in a fight.	Pre	16082	1.38	3.83	14.77	47.97	32.05	-6.49*
	Post	13665	1.62	4.40	16.13	48.94	28.91	
8. Trying to talk my way out of a situation is always safer than using force.	Pre	16081	1.55	7.72	21.93	39.46	29.34	13.60*
	Post	13672	0.99	5.56	17.96	40.83	34.67	
9. It is important that my fellow officers trust my communication skills.	Pre	16085	0.21	0.19	5.28	50.03	44.3	3.53*
	Post	13674	0.20	0.16	4.97	48.35	46.32	
10. I respect officers' ability to talk suspects down rather than using force to make them comply.	Pre	16085	0.27	0.27	7.47	46.43	45.56	7.12*
	Post	13674	0.25	0.21	6.05	44.17	49.32	
11. Generally, if force has to be used, it is better to do so earlier in an interaction with a suspect, as opposed to later.	Pre	16073	13.90	39.38	32.17	10.68	3.88	-14.79*
	Post	13661	19.27	42.19	25.75	8.65	4.14	

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table 39. Matched Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Attitudes Toward Use of Force

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*W*
1. Officers are not allowed to use as much force as is necessary to make suspects comply. (N = 4766)	Pre	20.00	43.85	19.22	12.11	4.83	2.38 (.02)	6.41*	5.16†
	Post	18.51	41.40	19.35	13.97	6.78	2.49 (.02)		
2. It is sometimes necessary to use more force than is technically allowable. (N = 4776)	Pre	33.33	37.98	16.71	10.32	1.65	2.09 (.02)	-7.38*	-9.54†
	Post	38.61	36.93	14.03	7.89	2.53	1.99 (.02)		
3. Verbally disrespectful suspects sometimes deserve physical force. (N = 4784)	Pre	46.36	41.28	9.11	2.38	0.86	1.70 (.01)	-4.55*	-6.63†
	Post	51.09	38.09	7.11	2.36	1.36	1.65 (.01)		
4. Refraining from using force when you are legally able to puts yourself and other officers at risk. (N = 4768)	Pre	6.82	29.80	31.75	23.05	8.58	2.97 (.02)	-15.30*	-16.27†
	Post	11.74	36.45	28.10	16.25	7.45	2.71 (.02)		
5. It is important to have a reputation that you are an officer who is willing to use force. (N = 4781)	Pre	26.88	41.64	21.90	7.20	2.38	2.17 (.01)	-1.21	-2.40†
	Post	28.93	40.77	19.58	7.86	2.87	2.15 (.02)		
6. Not using force when you could have makes suspects more likely to resist in future interactions. (N = 4779)	Pre	15.34	44.21	25.49	11.80	3.16	2.43 (.01)	-9.29*	-11.88†
	Post	22.31	44.38	19.19	10.06	4.06	2.29 (.02)		
7. It is important that my fellow officers trust me to handle myself in a fight. (N = 4781)	Pre	1.92	4.18	14.37	48.23	31.29	4.03 (.01)	-3.37*	-3.92†
	Post	1.90	4.85	15.25	48.44	29.55	3.99 (.01)		
8. Trying to talk my way out of a situation is always safer than using force. (N = 4784)	Pre	1.44	7.42	20.30	39.49	31.35	3.92 (.01)	13.85*	14.56†
	Post	0.73	5.27	15.64	40.47	37.90	4.10 (.01)		
9. It is important that my fellow officers trust my communication skills. (N = 4787)	Pre	0.38	0.17	4.39	49.78	45.29	4.39 (.01)	6.32*	6.30†
	Post	0.17	0.10	3.55	47.36	48.82	4.45 (.01)		

10. I respect officers' ability to talk suspects down rather than using force to make them comply. (N = 4787)	Pre	0.25	0.33	5.51	46.48	47.42	4.41 (.01)	8.08*	8.38†
	Post	0.23	0.08	4.26	42.78	52.64	4.48 (.01)		
11. Generally, if force has to be used, it is better to do so earlier in an interaction with a suspect, opposed to later. (N = 4779)	Pre	15.61	43.29	29.19	8.91	2.99	2.41 (.01)	-12.03*	-14.24†
	Post	23.12	44.63	21.51	7.20	3.54	2.23 (.01)		
***Attitudes Toward Use of Force Scale* (*N* = 4746)**	**Pre**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**34.96 (.07)**	**19.59***	**20.68†**
	Post	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**36.00 (.07)**		

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using paired sample *t* test.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Table 40. Follow-Up Differences in Reactions to the Experiences of ICAT Training

		N	SD	D	N	A	SA	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*U*
1. I am more likely to consider using less-lethal options after ICAT training.	FU1	435	6.21	8.97	36.55	30.11	18.16	3.45 (.05)	.50	0.86
	FU2	174	9.20	7.47	30.46	29.89	22.99	3.50 (.09)		
2. ICAT training strategies are useful.	FU1	437	5.03	3.20	25.17	48.51	18.08	3.71 (.05)	.84	1.00
	FU2	174	4.02	5.17	21.84	45.98	22.99	3.79 (.07)		
3. I would recommend ICAT training to other officers.	FU1	437	5.72	3.89	24.94	44.39	21.05	3.71 (.05)	1.38	1.78
	FU2	174	5.75	4.02	17.82	45.50	27.01	3.84 (.08)		
4. I would benefit from a refresher course on ICAT training.	FU1	437	14.19	14.19	35.93	22.88	12.81	3.06 (.06)	.93	0.87
	FU2	174	13.22	11.49	38.51	19.54	17.24	3.16 (.09)		
5. Using ICAT training strategies has improved my interactions with persons in crisis.	FU1	437	6.41	6.64	35.70	35.93	15.33	3.47 (.05)	1.40	1.64
	FU2	174	5.17	9.77	25.86	37.93	21.26	3.60 (.08)		
6. Using ICAT training strategies has improved my interactions with all citizens.	FU1	437	6.41	8.47	35.47	34.55	15.10	3.43 (.05)	1.65	1.99†
	FU2	174	6.90	6.32	27.59	39.08	20.11	3.59 (.08)		
7. ICAT training has helped improve police-community relations.	FU1	437	6.64	9.15	35.93	32.49	15.79	3.42 (.05)	1.32	1.72
	FU2	174	7.47	9.77	24.71	36.78	21.26	3.55 (.09)		
8. My command staff support the use of skills taught in ICAT training.	FU1	436	1.61	2.29	21.33	42.20	32.57	4.02 (.04)	.55	0.98
	FU2	174	3.45	0.57	21.84	34.48	39.66	4.06 (.07)		
9. My immediate supervisor supports the use of ICAT training.	FU1	436	2.06	2.06	22.02	41.97	31.88	4.00 (.04)	.74	1.31
	FU2	174	4.02	1.15	20.11	34.48	40.23	4.06 (.08)		
10. My peers support the use of ICAT training	FU1	437	3.89	3.89	28.60	40.96	22.65	3.75 (.05)	.78	1.22
	FU2	174	5.17	4.60	22.99	37.93	29.31	3.82 (.08)		
Experiences with ICAT Training Scale	**FU1**	**434**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**32.98 (.37)**	**1.17**	**1.70**
	FU2	**174**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**33.80 (.63)**		

SD = "Strongly Disagree"; D = "Disagree"; N = "Neutral"; A= "Agree"; SA = "Strongly Agree"

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using independent *t* test. † Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table 41. Follow-Up Differences in Self-Reported Use of ICAT Skills

In the last 60 days, did you…		*N*	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Frequently	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*U*
1. Apply strategies from the ICAT training in your work?	FU1	425	36.47	30.59	21.41	8.24	3.29	2.11 (.05)	1.70	1.98†
	FU2	172	27.33	32.56	28.49	8.14	3.49	2.28 (.08)		
2. Apply the Critical Decision-Making Model during an encounter with a citizen?	FU1	424	32.55	31.13	20.99	9.91	5.42	2.25 (.05)	1.05	1.38
	FU2	172	27.33	29.07	27.91	12.21	3.49	2.35 (.08)		
3. Apply ICAT Communication Skills when interacting with citizens?	FU1	424	27.12	26.42	24.29	13.44	8.73	2.50 (.06)	1.16	1.28
	FU2	172	20.35	29.65	25.00	16.28	8.72	2.63 (.09)		
4. Apply the Reaction Gap Strategy to keep a favorable position between you and a subject?	FU1	424	27.83	25.47	22.64	12.50	11.56	2.54 (.06)	1.61	1.62
	FU2	172	22.67	25.00	21.51	17.44	13.37	2.74 (.10)		
5. Apply the Tactical Pause Strategy by sharing information and developing a strategy during an encounter?	FU1	424	29.72	29.72	22.64	10.61	7.31	2.36 (.06)	1.58	1.69
	FU2	172	25.00	26.74	25.00	16.28	6.98	2.53 (.09)		

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using independent *t* test. † Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

APPENDIX B. ABLE TRAINING SURVEY RESULTS

Table 42. ABLE Survey Response Counts by County

	Pre-Training		*Post-Training*	
	Freq.	**Percent**	**Freq.**	**Percent**
Atlantic County	796	5.26	809	6.41
Bergen County	1138	7.52	902	7.15
Burlington County	494	3.26	373	2.95
Camden County	1445	9.54	1428	11.31
Cape May County	283	1.87	256	2.03
Cumberland County	421	2.78	327	2.59
Essex County	2024	13.37	1814	14.37
Gloucester County	490	3.24	413	3.27
Hudson County	842	5.56	634	5.02
Hunterdon County	254	1.68	239	1.89
Mercer County	940	6.21	792	6.27
Middlesex County	190	1.25	96	0.76
Monmouth County	637	4.21	292	2.31
Morris County	13	0.09	3	0.02
Ocean County	1037	6.85	950	7.53
Passaic County	1125	7.43	701	5.55
Salem County	72	0.48	53	0.42
Somerset County	297	1.96	291	2.31
Sussex County	272	1.80	260	2.06
Union County	1011	6.68	906	7.18
Warren County	54	0.36	18	0.14
NJ State Police	1301	8.59	1058	8.38
NJ Transit Police	5	0.03	7	0.06
Rutgers University Police	1	0.01	1	0.01
Total	**15,142**	**100.00**	**12,623**	**100.00**

Table 43. Follow-Up Survey Response Counts by County

	1-Year Follow-Up		*2-Year Follow-Up*	
	Freq.	**Percent**	**Freq.**	**Percent**
Atlantic County	27	4.55	0	0.00
Burlington County	88	14.84	55	25.82
Camden County	106	17.88	68	31.92
Gloucester County	83	14.00	22	10.33
Hudson County	47	7.93	41	19.25
Somerset County	239	40.30	24	11.27
Missing	3	0.51	3	1.41
Total	**593**	**100.00**	**213**	**100.00**

Table 44. ABLE Survey "Other" Rank Responses

	Freq.	**Percent**
Class One Special Police Officer	22	1.43
Class Three Special Police Officer	23	1.50
Class Two Special Police Officer	70	4.55
Correctional Officer	72	4.68
Other	11	0.72
School Resource Officer	8	0.52
Sheriff's Officer	94	6.12
Specialized Unit	3	0.20
Trooper	109	7.09
Missing	1125	73.19
Total	**1,537**	**100.00**

Table 45. Full One-Year Follow-Up Survey Demographics (N = 545)

	%	(n)		%	(n)
Gender			**LE Tenure**		
Male	71.38	(389)	Less than 1 year	0.37	(2)
Female	5.32	(29)	1 – 4 years	7.16	(39)
Other	1.83	(10)	5 – 9 years	13.39	(73)
Unknown	21.47	(117)	10 – 14 years	9.54	(52)
Age			15 – 19 years	14.31	(78)
18 - 20 years old	0.37	(2)	20 or more years	32.84	(179)
21 - 24 years old	1.83	(10)	Unknown	22.39	(122)
25 - 29 years old	7.71	(42)	**Education**		
30 - 34 years old	10.83	(59)	GED / HSED	0.18	(1)
35 - 39 years old	13.76	(75)	High School	5.32	(29)
40 - 44 years old	12.66	(69)	> 2 years college	15.05	(82)
45 - 49 years old	14.86	(81)	Associate's Degree	14.68	(80)
50+ years old	16.33	(89)	Bachelor's Degree	33.58	(183)
Unknown	21.65	(118)	Graduate Degree	8.62	(47)
Race/Ethnicity			Unknown	22.57	(123)
Caucasian/White	63.49	(346)	**Rank**		
African American/Black	3.49	(19)	Patrol Officer	31.56	(172)
Latino/Hispanic	5.69	(31)	Detective	4.22	(23)
Asian/Pacific Islander	1.29	(7)	Corporal	1.83	(10)
Native American	0.18	(1)	Sergeant	15.60	(85)
Two or More	1.65	(9)	Lieutenant	8.99	(49)
Other	2.20	(12)	Captain or Above	8.62	(47)
Unknown	22.02	(120)	Retired	0.55	(3)
			Other	6.06	(33)
			Unknown	22.57	(123)

Table 46. Full Two-Year Follow-Up Survey Demographics (N=199)

	%	(n)		%	(n)
Gender			**LE Tenure**		
Male	73.37	(146)	Less than 1 year	2.01	(4)
Female	10.55	(21)	1 – 4 years	5.03	(10)
Other	3.02	(6)	5 – 9 years	12.56	(25)
Unknown	13.07	(26)	10 – 14 years	10.55	(21)
Age			15 – 19 years	18.59	(37)
18 - 20 years old	0.50	(1)	20 or more years	38.19	(76)
21 - 24 years old	0.50	(1)	Unknown	13.07	(26)
25 - 29 years old	9.05	(18)	**Education**		
30 - 34 years old	12.06	(24)	GED / HSED	0.50	(1)
35 - 39 years old	12.56	(25)	High School	7.04	(14)
40 - 44 years old	11.06	(22)	> 2 years college	17.59	(35)
45 - 49 years old	20.60	(41)	Associate's Degree	14.07	(28)
50+ years old	21.11	(42)	Bachelor's Degree	35.18	(70)
Unknown	12.56	(25)	Graduate Degree	12.06	(24)
Race/Ethnicity			Unknown	13.57	(27)
Caucasian/White	57.79	(115)	**Rank**		
African American/Black	7.54	(15)	Patrol Officer	23.62	(45)
Latino/Hispanic	8.04	(16)	Detective	10.05	(20)
Asian/Pacific Islander	2.01	(4)	Corporal	2.51	(5)
Two or More	4.02	(8)	Sergeant	16.08	(32)
Other	4.52	(9)	Lieutenant	14.57	(29)
Unknown	16.08	(32)	Captain or Above	10.05	(20)
			Retired	1.01	(2)
			Other	7.54	(15)
			Unknown	14.57	(29)

Table 47. Survey Scales Created from ABLE Pre-, Post-, and Follow-Up Training Surveys

Construct	Items	Cronbach's
Receptivity to ABLE Training	1. The training was useful to me. 2. I would recommend this training to others. 3. The training content was clear. 4. I am satisfied with the training. 5. The training taught me new things.	Post: .94
Confidence in ABLE Skills Acquisition	I am confident… 1. In my ability to notice the need for intervention in my colleagues. 2. In my ability to know when it is a good time to intervene with my colleagues. 3. In my ability to recognize indicators of excessive stress in my colleagues. 4. In my ability to recognize indicators of excessive stress in myself. 5. In my ability to know how to take a quality breath. 6. In my ability to use the 3 D's model (Direct, Distract, Delegate). 7. In my ability to use PACT (Probe, Alert, Challenge, Take Action).	Post: .96 FU1: .95 FU2: .95
Perceptions of Police Misconduct	1. I think police misconduct is a problem. 2. I think police mistakes are a problem. 3. I think there are things I can do to prevent police misconduct by my colleagues. 4. I think officer wellness is a problem. 5. I think there are things I can do to prevent mistakes by my colleagues. 6. I think there are things I can do to prevent officer suicides. 7. There isn't much need for me to think about police misconduct; that is the job of Internal Affairs. (reverse-coded) 8. I should learn more about how I can prevent police misconduct and mistakes. 9. I should learn more about how to respond when I see other officers struggling with health or wellness issues. 10. All officers have a responsibility to protect a member of the public from physical misconduct by an officer. 11. All officers have a responsibility to protect one another from doing something that is likely to have an adverse impact on the officer's own career. 12. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from conducting an improper search. 13. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from making an improper arrest. 14. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from using excessive force.	Pre: .87 Post: .91

Attitudes Towards Active Bystandership	1. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of the same rank as myself. 2. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of a lower rank than myself. 3. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of a higher rank than myself. 4. My colleagues will respect me if I intervene. 5. I will feel like a leader in my police agency if I intervene. 6. Intervening with my colleagues might make them angry with me. (reverse-coded) 7. Intervening with my colleagues might cost me friendships. (reverse-coded) 8. I could get reprimanded for intervening. (reverse-coded) 9. I would feel comfortable intervening if I thought a colleague was experiencing a mental health crisis. 10. The fear of misreading a situation is likely to keep me from intervening. (reverse-coded) 11. I have the skills to intervene with a colleague who is engaging in misconduct. 12. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of the same rank as myself. 13. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of a lower rank as myself. 14. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of a higher rank than myself. 15. Even people who are not involved in misconduct can do things that help Prevent misconduct. 16. I would feel comfortable intervening to protect the health and well-being of a colleague. 17. The concern of being shunned by my colleagues would prevent me from telling another officer that he or she is doing something wrong. (reverse-coded) 18. The fear of being reprimanded would prevent me from telling a supervisor that he or she is doing something wrong. (reverse-coded) 19. I believe my colleagues would listen to me if I speak out against police misconduct. 20. I have the confidence to say something to a colleague who is acting inappropriately. 21. I can make a difference in helping to prevent officer misconduct and mistakes.	Pre: .91 Post: .93
Likelihood of Peer Intervention	In your agency, how likely do you think it is that … 1. Another officer would intervene to prevent a mistake by an officer of the same or lower rank? 2. Another officer would intervene to prevent a mistake by an officer of a higher rank? 3. Another officer would intervene to prevent an act of misconduct by an officer of the same or lower thank? 4. Another officer would intervene to prevent an act of misconduct by an officer of a higher rank. 5. Another officer would intervene to protect the health and wellbeing of an officer of the same or lower rank? 6. Another officer would intervene to protect the health and wellbeing of an officer of a higher rank? 7. An officer who intervened would be ostracized, punished, or otherwise retaliated against. (reverse-coded)	Pre: .88 Post: .88 FU1: .92 FU2: .90

Intervention Activity	Over the past 3 months, … 1. Have you intervened to prevent a mistake by a colleague? 2. Have you intervened to prevent an act of misconduct by a colleague? 3. Have you intervened to protect a colleague's health and wellbeing? 4. Has a colleague intervened to prevent you from making a work-related mistake? 5. Has a colleague intervened to prevent you from causing harm to another or from committing a significant policy violation? 6. Has a colleague intervened in a situation with you to protect your health and wellbeing? 7. Other than during training, have you used a quality/tactical breath, or other self-calming technique, while on duty? 8. Have you spoken with your partner in the field, or other officers with whom you work regularly, about your known triggers in the field? 9. Have you spoken with your partner in the field, or other officers, about how best to intervene with your to prevent mistakes or misconduct, or promote your health and wellbeing, if necessary?	Pre: .77 FU1: .66 FU2: .76
Experiences with ABLE Training	1. I am more likely to consider intervening with my colleagues after ABLE training. 2. ABLE training strategies are useful. 3. I would recommend ABLE training to other officers. 4. Using ABLE training strategies has improved my ability to prevent colleagues from causing harm or making mistakes. 5. Using ABLE training strategies has improved my ability to promote officer health and wellness. 6. ABLE training has helped improve police-community relations. 7. If I intervene to prevent misconduct, I will not face negative repercussions. 8. If I intervene to prevent officer mistakes, I will not face negative repercussions. 9. My command staff support the use of skills taught in ABLE training. 10. My immediate supervisor supports the use of ABLE training. 11. My peers support the use of ABLE training.	FU1: .93 FU2: .96

Table 48. Full Results for Pre-Training General Agency Perceptions

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1. My police department takes a tough stance on improper behavior by police.	Freq.	232	342	1974	6415	5087	14050
	Percent	1.65	2.43	14.05	45.66	36.21	100
2. If a police chief takes a strong position against abuses of authority, he or she can make a big difference in preventing officers from abusing their authority.	Freq.	117	244	2011	6862	4808	14042
	Percent	0.83	1.74	14.32	48.87	34.24	100
3. Good first-line supervisors can help prevent police officers from abusing their authority.	Freq.	55	120	1188	7160	5529	14052
	Percent	0.39	0.85	8.45	50.95	39.35	100
4. Most police abuse of force could be stopped by more effective methods of supervision.	Freq.	227	1148	3673	6131	2867	14046
	Percent	1.62	8.17	26.15	43.65	20.41	100
5. My agency provides adequate services to support officer mental health and wellness.	Freq.	789	1400	3445	5564	2852	14050
	Percent	5.62	9.96	24.52	39.60	20.30	100
6. My agency provides adequate services to support officer physical health and wellness.	Freq.	892	1641	3394	5340	2781	14048
	Percent	6.35	11.68	24.16	38.01	19.80	100
7. Overall, this is a good agency to work for.	Freq.	318	391	2100	5738	5499	14046
	Percent	2.26	2.78	14.95	40.85	39.15	100

Table 49. Full Results for Pre-Training Views of Active Bystandership within Agency

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1. My department's culture encourages and supports active bystandership.	Freq.	366	834	4404	5573	2766	13943
	Percent	2.62	5.98	31.59	39.97	19.84	100
2. The leadership of my department fully supports active bystandership.	Freq.	367	738	4255	5613	2966	13939
	Percent	2.63	5.29	30.53	40.27	21.28	100
3. My direct supervisor fully supports active bystandership.	Freq.	318	638	3868	5839	3277	13940
	Percent	2.28	4.58	27.75	41.89	23.51	100
4. I know who I can go to in my department with any ethical concerns.	Freq.	244	431	2053	7154	4082	13964
	Percent	1.75	3.09	14.70	51.23	29.23	100
5. If I intervene to prevent misconduct, I will not face negative repercussions.	Freq.	268	800	3202	6432	3259	13961
	Percent	1.92	5.73	22.94	46.07	23.34	100
6. If I intervene to prevent officer mistakes, I will not face negative repercussions.	Freq.	225	742	3158	6585	3254	13964
	Percent	1.61	5.31	22.62	47.16	23.30	100

Table 50. Follow-Up Differences in Intervention Activity

Over the past 3 months, …		*N*	No	Yes	$\bar{X}$(SE)	$\chi^2/F/H$
1. Have you intervened to prevent a mistake by a colleague?	Pre	3702	66.88	33.12	-	19.05*
	FU1	539	76.25	23.75	-	
	FU2	195	68.72	31.28	-	
2. Have you intervened to prevent an act of misconduct by a colleague?	Pre	3702	91.87	8.13	-	11.04*
	FU1	539	95.92	4.08	-	
	FU2	195	92.82	7.18	-	
3. Have you intervened to protect a colleague's health and wellbeing?	Pre	3701	76.44	23.56	-	9.07*
	FU1	538	81.78	18.22	-	
	FU2	195	73.33	26.67	-	
4. Has a colleague intervened to prevent you from making a work-related mistake?	Pre	3702	83.17	16.83	-	46.54*
	FU1	539	94.25	5.75	-	
	FU2	195	88.21	11.79	-	
5. Has a colleague intervened to prevent you from causing harm to another or from committing a significant policy violation?	Pre	3702	97.60	2.40	-	3.61
	FU1	538	98.88	1.12	-	
	FU2	195	97.95	2.05	-	
6. Has a colleague intervened in a situation with you to protect your health and wellbeing?	Pre	3701	90.06	9.94	-	23.72*
	FU1	538	96.10	3.90	-	
	FU2	195	94.36	5.64	-	
7. Other than during training, have you used a quality/tactical breath, or other self-calming technique, while on duty?	Pre	3701	63.52	36.48	-	8.06*
	FU1	539	64.75	35.25	-	
	FU2	195	53.85	46.15	-	
8. Have you spoken with your partner in the field, or other officers with whom you work regularly, about your known triggers in the field?	Pre	3702	77.77	22.23	-	1.55
	FU1	538	79.74	20.26	-	
	FU2	195	75.90	24.10	-	
9. Have you spoken with your partner in the field, or other officers, about how best to intervene with you to prevent mistakes or misconduct, or promote your health and wellbeing, if necessary?	Pre	3702	69.96	30.04	-	2.66
	FU1	539	66.60	33.40	-	
	FU2	195	68.21	31.79	-	

Intervention Activity Scale	**Pre**	**3699**	**-**	**-**	**1.83 (.03)**	**8.09*** **9.45†**
	FU1	**537**	**-**	**-**	**1.46 (.07)**	
	FU2	**195**	**-**	**-**	**1.87 (.14)**	

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using the χ^2 test of independence or one-way ANOVA for scale.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* test for scale.

Table 51. Full Results for Post-Training Officer Receptivity to ABLE Training

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1. The training was useful to me.	Freq.	104	154	1333	4912	5047	11550
	Percent	0.90	1.33	11.54	42.53	43.70	100
2. I would recommend this training to others.	Freq.	108	153	1497	4624	5169	11551
	Percent	0.93	1.32	12.96	40.03	44.75	100
3. The training content was clear.	Freq.	39	32	688	4771	6018	11548
	Percent	0.34	0.28	5.96	41.31	52.11	100
4. I am satisfied with the training.	Freq.	76	91	1176	4885	5320	11548
	Percent	0.66	0.79	10.18	42.30	46.07	100
5. The training duration should be lengthened.	Freq.	2304	4234	3825	568	619	11550
	Percent	19.95	36.66	33.12	4.92	5.36	100
6. The training should be shortened.	Freq.	837	2513	4773	2054	1373	11550
	Percent	7.25	21.76	41.32	17.78	11.89	100
7. The training taught me new things.	Freq.	132	282	1580	5005	4551	11550
	Percent	1.14	2.44	13.68	43.33	39.40	100

Table 52. Full Results for Post-Training Officer Confidence in ABLE Skill Application

I am confident …		Not At All Confident	Not Very Confident	Somewhat Confident	Confident	Very Confident	Total
1. In my ability to notice the need for intervention in my colleagues.	Freq.	12	27	1437	5532	4553	11561
	Percent	0.10	0.23	12.43	47.85	39.38	100
2. In my ability to know when it is a good time to intervene with my colleagues.	Freq.	9	27	1294	5509	4725	11564
	Percent	0.08	0.23	11.19	47.64	40.86	100
3. In my ability to recognize indicators of excessive stress in my colleagues.	Freq.	11	45	1547	5549	4410	11562
	Percent	0.10	0.39	13.38	47.99	38.14	100
4. In my ability to recognize indicators of excessive stress in myself.	Freq.	12	39	1164	5381	4964	11560
	Percent	0.10	0.34	10.07	46.55	42.94	100
5. In my ability to know how to take a quality breath.	Freq.	12	31	1013	5135	5371	11562
	Percent	0.10	0.27	8.76	44.41	46.45	100
6. In my ability to use the 3 D's model (Direct, Distract, Delegate).	Freq.	12	52	1404	5436	4652	11556
	Percent	0.10	0.45	12.15	47.04	40.26	100
7. In my ability to use PACT (Probe, Alert, Challenge, Take Action).	Freq.	17	56	1475	5388	4624	11560
	Percent	0.15	0.48	12.76	46.61	40.00	100

Table 53. Follow-Up Differences in Officer Confidence in ABLE Skill Acquisition

I am confident…		*N*	N	NV	S	C	VC	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*F*	*H*
1. Noticing the need for intervention in my colleagues.	Post	3013	0.03	0.23	9.76	45.17	44.81	4.34 (.01)		
	FU1	498	1.61	1.00	6.63	37.75	53.01	4.40 (.04)	1.31	11.99†
	FU2	186	2.15	1.08	7.53	34.95	54.30	4.38 (.06)		
2. Knowing when it is a good time to intervene with my colleagues.	Post	3014	0.03	0.23	8.59	44.96	46.18	4.37 (.01)		
	FU1	498	1.61	1.00	6.83	33.53	57.03	4.43 (.04)	2.25	17.80†
	FU2	186	1.61	0.54	9.68	30.11	58.06	4.42 (.06)		
3. Recognizing indicators of excessive stress in my colleagues.	Post	3014	0.03	0.30	10.68	45.62	43.36	4.32 (.01)		
	FU1	497	1.41	1.01	8.65	40.04	48.89	4.34 (.04)	.26	3.67
	FU2	186	2.15	0.54	10.75	38.17	48.39	4.30 (.06)		
4. Recognizing indicators of excessive stress in myself.	Post	3014	0.07	030	8.29	43.20	48.14	4.39 (.01)		
	FU1	497	1.21	1.81	6.44	31.39	59.15	4.45 (.04)	2.26	14.10†
	FU2	186	1.61	0.54	8.60	39.25	50.00	4.35 (.06)		
5. Knowing how to take a quality breath.	Post	3014	0.10	0.23	6.70	40.54	52.42	4.45 (.01)		
	FU1	498	1.41	1.61	7.23	32.53	57.23	4.43 (.04)	.27	3.04
	FU2	186	2.15	0.54	7.53	29.57	60.22	4.45 (.06)		
6. Using the 3 D's model (Direct, Distract, Delegate).	Post	3013	0.10	0.33	9.56	43.31	46.70	4.36 (.01)		
	FU1	497	2.82	2.41	9.86	36.42	48.49	4.25 (.04)	5.32*	0.52
	FU2	186	3.23	1.61	10.22	33.33	51.61	4.28 (.07)		
7. Using PACT (Probe, Alert, Challenge, Take Action).	Post	3014	0.13	0.27	9.99	42.97	46.65	4.36 (.01)		
	FU1	496	2.82	2.42	12.50	35.48	46.77	4.21 (.04)	12.56*	4.20
	FU2	186	3.76	2.69	11.83	35.48	46.24	4.18 (.07)		
Overall Confidence in ABLE Skills Scale	**Post**	**3012**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**30.60 (.08)**		
	FU1	**496**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**30.51 (.23)**	**.29**	**0.80**
	FU2	**186**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**30.38 (.39)**		

N = "Not at all Confident"; NV = "Not Very Confident"; S = "Somewhat Confident"; C= "Confident"; VC = "Very Confident"

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using One-way ANOVA. † Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

Table 54. Full Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Perceptions of Police Misconduct

		N	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	*U*
1. I think police misconduct is a problem.	Pre	14511	7.86	19.59	24.84	26.90	20.82	15.96*
	Post	12065	4.66	15.20	23.38	31.54	25.22	
2. I think police mistakes are a problem.	Pre	14507	4.56	15.10	32.12	34.16	14.06	20.29*
	Post	12061	2.79	11.62	25.87	38.62	21.10	
3. I think there are things I can do to prevent police misconduct by my colleagues.	Pre	14509	1.15	1.42	14.08	52.54	30.81	25.15*
	Post	12058	0.43	0.35	8.20	47.22	43.80	
4. I think officer wellness is a problem.	Pre	14497	3.72	9.60	27.28	38.31	21.08	21.59*
	Post	12060	1.54	6.37	21.82	40.40	29.87	
5. I think there are things I can do to prevent mistakes by my colleagues.	Pre	14507	0.82	0.85	12.42	55.84	30.07	22.84*
	Post	12062	0.45	0.38	7.35	49.62	42.20	
6. I think there are things I can do to prevent officer suicides.	Pre	14509	0.81	1.65	17.14	49.30	31.10	19.46*
	Post	12061	0.53	0.65	10.41	48.49	39.93	
7. There isn't much need for me to think about police misconduct; that is the job of Internal Affairs.	Pre	14509	35.92	48.35	11.34	2.77	1.63	-6.03*
	Post	12064	40.60	44.13	9.21	3.25	2.81	
8. I should learn more about how I can prevent police misconduct and mistakes.	Pre	14511	1.35	2.55	16.34	49.01	30.75	14.04*
	Post	12059	0.78	1.85	13.04	46.11	38.21	
9. I should learn more about how to respond when I see other officers struggling with health or wellness issues.	Pre	14512	1.03	1.91	12.57	51.19	33.30	13.27*
	Post	12058	0.72	1.40	9.96	47.17	40.74	
10. All officers have a responsibility to protect a member of the public from physical misconduct by an officer.	Pre	14514	0.98	0.18	3.62	34.98	60.24	3.05*
	Post	12061	0.67	0.05	3.74	33.50	62.03	
11. All officers have a responsibility to protect one another from doing something that is likely to have an adverse impact on the officer's own career.	Pre	14512	1.01	0.40	5.17	39.77	53.65	7.48*
	Post	12060	0.60	0.19	4.61	36.56	58.04	
12. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from conducting an improper search.	Pre	14512	0.94	0.30	4.83	40.86	53.07	6.42*
	Post	12063	0.59	0.12	4.49	37.90	56.89	
13. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from making an improper arrest.	Pre	14515	0.92	0.33	4.78	38.73	55.24	4.98*
	Post	12060	0.66	0.12	4.54	36.48	58.18	

14. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from using excessive force.	Pre	14510	0.96	0.17	3.82	32.16	62.90	1.02
	Post	12062	0.64	0.12	3.73	32.16	63.36	

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table 55. Matched Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Perceptions of Police Misconduct

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*W*
1. I think police misconduct is a problem. (N = 7758)	Pre	7.67	19.45	25.21	27.08	20.59	3.33 (.01)	24.33*	24.43†
	Post	4.03	14.80	22.74	31.88	26.55	3.62 (.01)		
2. I think police mistakes are a problem. (N = 7756)	Pre	4.53	14.65	32.84	33.78	14.21	3.38 (.01)	28.03*	28.10†
	Post	2.41	10.80	25.03	38.83	22.92	3.69 (.01)		
3. I think there are things I can do to prevent police misconduct by my colleagues. (N = 7752)	Pre	1.02	1.24	13.75	52.98	31.01	4.12 (.01)	29.95*	30.30†
	Post	0.35	0.32	7.26	46.30	45.77	4.37 (.01)		
4. I think officer wellness is a problem. (N = 7748)	Pre	3.74	9.65	27.72	37.39	21.49	3.63 (.01)	23.33*	22.59†
	Post	1.55	6.50	21.50	39.78	30.67	3.92 (.01)		
5. I think there are things I can do to prevent mistakes by my colleagues. (N = 7757)	Pre	0.67	0.68	12.18	56.10	30.36	4.15 (.01)	27.10*	27.98†
	Post	0.37	0.24	6.63	48.11	44.64	4.36 (.01)		
6. I think there are things I can do to prevent officer suicides. (N = 7758)	Pre	0.67	1.64	17.27	49.48	30.94	4.08 (.01)	25.71*	26.79†
	Post	0.44	0.55	9.69	47.72	41.60	4.30 (.01)		
7. There isn't much need for me to think about police misconduct; that is the job of Internal Affairs. (N = 7756)	Pre	36.29	48.76	11.24	2.31	1.39	1.84 (.01)	-2.14*	-7.60†
	Post	41.88	43.59	8.63	3.04	2.86	1.81 (.01)		
8. I should learn more about how I can prevent police misconduct and mistakes. (N = 7756)	Pre	1.20	1.97	16.10	49.83	30.89	4.07 (.01)	16.96*	18.68†
	Post	0.67	1.61	12.62	45.01	40.09	4.22 (.01)		
9. I should learn more about how to respond when I see other officers struggling with health or wellness issues. (N = 7755)	Pre	0.90	1.61	12.77	51.85	32.87	4.14 (.01)	15.41*	17.15†
	Post	0.62	1.44	9.52	46.51	41.91	4.28 (.01)		
10. All officers have a responsibility to protect a member of the public from physical misconduct by an officer. (N = 7757)	Pre	0.81	0.18	3.55	35.21	60.26	4.54 (.01)	4.79*	5.27†
	Post	0.55	0.03	3.74	32.74	62.94	4.58 (.01)		
11. All officers have a responsibility to protect one another from doing something that is likely to have an adverse impact on the officer's own career. (N = 7756)	Pre	0.86	0.30	5.08	40.10	53.66	4.45 (.01)	10.40*	10.97†
	Post	0.48	0.13	4.27	35.60	59.53	4.54 (.01)		
12. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from conducting an improper	Pre	0.90	0.30	4.74	40.99	53.07	4.45 (.01)	9.79*	10.74†
	Post	0.49	0.13	4.14	36.89	58.35	4.53 (.01)		

search. (N = 7760)									
13. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from making an improper arrest. (N = 7758)	Pre	0.81	0.27	4.77	38.72	55.43	4.48 (.01)	7.93*	8.50†
	Post	0.48	0.09	4.47	35.15	59.81	4.54 (.01)		
14. All officers have a responsibility to prevent colleagues from using excessive force. (N = 7757)	Pre	0.92	0.17	3.82	32.29	62.81	4.56 (.01)	4.22*	3.97†
	Post	0.55	0.09	3.42	31.58	64.35	4.59 (.01)		
***Additive Scale of Officer Perceptions* (*N* = 7733)**	**Pre**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**57.56 (.08)**	**34.08***	**36.19†**
	Post	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**59.71 (.09)**		

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using paired sample *t* test.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Table 56. Full Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Attitudes Toward Bystander Intervention

		N	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	*U*
1. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of the same rank as myself.	Pre	14198	0.66	1.24	8.32	55.17	34.62	13.82*
	Post	11803	0.42	0.61	6.41	50.14	42.43	
2. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of a lower rank than myself.	Pre	14194	0.77	1.51	8.79	52.99	35.94	13.94*
	Post	11801	0.55	0.88	6.46	48.35	43.76	
3. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of a higher rank than myself.	Pre	14194	1.67	7.64	18.59	48.80	23.31	21.39*
	Post	11801	0.94	3.82	13.27	49.89	32.07	
4. My colleagues will respect me if I intervene.	Pre	14187	0.73	2.54	31.35	46.94	18.44	16.84*
	Post	11800	0.42	1.40	24.82	48.08	25.29	
5. I will feel like a leader in my police agency if I intervene.	Pre	14188	3.01	13.19	40.09	29.64	14.07	25.99*
	Post	11803	1.55	8.36	31.53	35.55	23.00	
6. Intervening with my colleagues might make them angry with me.	Pre	14195	7.56	23.01	30.39	33.98	5.06	-5.65*
	Post	11802	10.09	24.44	28.21	31.88	5.38	
7. Intervening with my colleagues might cost me friendships.	Pre	14194	10.12	31.46	28.22	25.41	4.78	0.00
	Post	11798	12.17	29.53	26.66	26.38	5.26	
8. I could get reprimanded for intervening.	Pre	14191	21.48	41.00	23.11	11.29	3.12	-8.25*
	Post	11805	26.42	39.55	20.45	10.78	2.80	
9. I would feel comfortable intervening if I thought a colleague was experiencing a mental health crisis.	Pre	14195	0.44	0.85	8.31	50.76	39.63	8.99*
	Post	11801	0.26	0.58	6.90	47.46	44.79	
10. The fear of misreading a situation is likely to keep me from intervening.	Pre	14189	14.00	46.32	26.34	11.18	2.16	-6.93*
	Post	11799	18.15	45.96	21.41	11.10	3.37	
11. I have the skills to intervene with a colleague who is engaging in misconduct.	Pre	14191	0.38	1.32	15.95	56.04	26.31	25.59*
	Post	11799	0.17	0.31	8.09	53.32	38.11	
12. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of the same rank as myself.	Pre	14193	0.51	1.27	10.05	57.37	30.80	18.06*
	Post	11803	0.35	0.64	6.83	51.44	40.74	

13. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of a lower rank than myself.	Pre	14189	1.01	3.07	15.19	54.55	26.18	20.41*
	Post	11803	0.54	1.67	10.20	51.32	36.27	
14. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of a higher rank than myself.	Pre	14196	0.75	1.82	10.76	54.35	32.32	16.79*
	Post	11801	0.47	1.07	7.48	49.54	41.45	
15. Even people who are not involved in misconduct can do things that help prevent misconduct.	Pre	14194	0.35	0.53	10.27	59.15	29.70	17.73*
	Post	11800	0.25	0.29	7.15	52.68	39.64	
16. I would feel comfortable intervening to protect the health and well-being of a colleague.	Pre	14189	0.28	0.36	6.56	51.02	41.78	8.29*
	Post	11804	0.23	0.24	5.75	46.90	46.88	
17. The concern of being shunned by my colleagues would prevent me from telling another officer that he or she is doing something wrong.	Pre	14194	27.07	50.88	14.39	5.81	1.86	1.20
	Post	11799	28.12	48.17	13.87	6.77	3.08	
18. The fear of being reprimanded would prevent me from telling a supervising officer that he or she is doing something wrong.	Pre	14195	22.5	46.27	18.17	9.74	3.32	-6.63*
	Post	11799	26.10	45.35	16.50	8.78	3.27	
19. I believe my colleagues would listen to me if I speak out against police misconduct.	Pre	14192	0.96	2.84	20.13	52.53	23.54	19.55*
	Post	11800	0.53	1.37	14.25	51.47	32.38	
20. I have the confidence to say something to a colleague who is acting inappropriately.	Pre	14194	0.34	0.30	6.88	53.99	38.50	9.01*
	Post	11802	0.22	0.19	6.15	49.35	44.09	
21. I can make a difference in helping to prevent officer misconduct and mistakes.	Pre	14192	0.35	0.47	13.24	57.45	28.49	19.98*
	Post	11802	0.22	0.21	8.47	51.99	39.10	

Table 57. Matched Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Officer Attitudes Toward Bystander Intervention

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*W*
1. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of the same rank as myself. (N =7727)	Pre	0.48	1.19	8.10	55.67	34.55	4.23 (.01)	17.55*	19.08†
	Post	0.32	0.52	6.00	48.78	44.38	4.36 (.01)		
2. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of a lower rank than myself. (N =7727)	Pre	0.72	1.33	8.54	53.59	35.81	4.23 (.01)	17.09*	19.16†
	Post	0.44	0.82	6.16	46.94	45.65	4.37 (.01)		
3. I would feel comfortable intervening in a situation with an officer of a higher rank than myself. (N =7726)	Pre	1.60	7.55	19.00	48.90	22.95	3.84 (.01)	27.38*	28.27†
	Post	0.85	3.46	12.32	49.22	34.14	4.12 (.01)		
4. My colleagues will respect me if I intervene. (N =7723)	Pre	0.63	2.30	30.48	47.75	18.83	3.82 (.01)	20.93*	20.92†
	Post	0.40	1.40	23.35	47.73	27.13	4.00 (.01)		
5. I will feel like a leader in my police agency if I intervene. (N =7725)	Pre	2.96	12.94	40.40	29.90	13.79	3.39 (.01)	34.35*	33.60†
	Post	1.44	8.27	30.78	34.83	24.67	3.73 (.01)		
6. Intervening with my colleagues might make them angry with me. (N = 7727)	Pre	7.93	23.59	30.46	33.16	4.85	3.04 (.01)	-7.99*	-9.16†
	Post	11.19	25.61	27.41	30.24	5.54	2.93 (.01)		
7. Intervening with my colleagues might cost me friendships. (N = 7726)	Pre	10.73	32.35	28.05	24.31	4.57	2.80 (.01)	-0.98	-2.07†
	Post	13.23	30.49	26.15	24.88	5.25	2.78 (.01)		
8. I could get reprimanded for intervening. (N = 7730)	Pre	22.60	41.40	22.54	10.54	2.92	2.30 (.01)	-10.07*	-11.89†
	Post	28.43	39.92	19.43	9.46	2.76	2.18 (.01)		
9. I would feel comfortable intervening if I thought a colleague was experiencing a mental health crisis. (N = 7726)	Pre	0.38	0.67	7.96	51.20	39.79	4.29 (.01)	12.96*	14.08†
	Post	0.19	0.48	6.38	46.14	46.80	4.39 (.01)		
10. The fear of misreading a situation is likely to keep me from intervening. (N = 7723)	Pre	14.58	46.17	26.27	10.86	2.11	2.40 (.01)	-7.64*	-10.95†
	Post	19.82	46.41	20.38	9.97	3.42	2.31 (.01)		
11. I have the skills to intervene with a colleague who is engaging in misconduct. (N = 7726)	Pre	0.32	1.40	16.06	56.03	26.18	4.06 (.01)	32.86*	32.23†
	Post	0.10	0.22	7.20	52.11	40.37	4.32 (.01)		
12. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of the same rank as myself. (N = 7727)	Pre	0.47	1.18	9.42	57.77	31.16	41.8 (.01)	22.44*	23.66†
	Post	0.26	0.52	6.52	49.44	43.26	4.35 (.01)		

13. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of a lower rank than myself. (N = 7727)	Pre	0.92	2.90	14.69	54.94	26.56	4.03 (.01)	26.13*	27.33†
	Post	0.40	1.49	9.49	49.88	38.75	4.25 (.01)		
14. I would feel comfortable accepting an intervention from an officer of a higher rank than myself. (N = 7727)	Pre	0.75	1.70	10.55	54.30	32.70	4.17 (.01)	20.46*	21.86†
	Post	0.30	0.96	7.03	48.22	43.50	4.34 (.01)		
15. Even people who are not involved in misconduct can do things that help prevent misconduct. (N = 7726)	Pre	0.32	0.45	9.97	59.59	29.67	4.18 (.01)	23.72*	24.33†
	Post	0.12	0.23	6.64	51.27	41.74	4.34 (.01)		
16. I would feel comfortable intervening to protect the health and well-being of a colleague. (N = 7726)	Pre	0.19	0.38	6.51	51.22	41.70	4.34 (.01)	11.93*	12.79†
	Post	0.17	0.21	5.53	45.83	48.27	4.42 (.01)		
17. The concern of being shunned by my colleagues would prevent me from telling another officer that he or she is doing something wrong. (N = 7725)	Pre	26.94	52.01	14.19	5.10	1.76	2.03 (.01)	2.11*	-0.62
	Post	29.72	47.78	13.23	6.17	3.09	2.05 (.01)		
18. The fear of being reprimanded would prevent me from telling a supervising officer that he or she is doing something wrong. (N =7726)	Pre	22.75	46.84	17.81	9.46	3.13	2.23 (.01)	-7.80*	-10.34†
	Post	27.88	44.94	15.70	8.28	3.20	2.14 (.01)		
19. I believe my colleagues would listen to me if I speak out against police misconduct. (N =7727)	Pre	0.79	2.87	19.23	53.11	23.99	3.97 (.01)	24.20*	25.48†
	Post	0.45	1.26	13.23	50.58	34.49	4.17 (.01)		
20. I have the confidence to say something to a colleague who is acting inappropriately. (N = 7726)	Pre	0.30	0.23	6.67	54.28	38.52	4.31 (.01)	13.53*	14.33†
	Post	0.12	0.19	5.77	47.80	46.12	4.40 (.01)		
21. I can make a difference in helping to prevent officer misconduct and mistakes. (N =7724)	Pre	0.25	0.43	12.65	58.13	28.55	4.14 (.01)	26.56*	26.94†
	Post	0.14	0.18	7.90	50.41	41.36	4.33 (.01)		
***ABLE Attitudes Scale* (N =7709)**	**Pre**	-	-	-	-	-	**82.38 (.12)**	**35.41***	**35.08†**
	Post	-	-	-	-	-	**85.50 (.12)**		

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using paired sample *t* test.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Table 58. Full Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Likelihood of Peer Intervention within Agency

In your agency, how likely do you think it is that …		*N*	Very Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Neither	Somewhat Likely	Very Likely	Total
1. Another officer would intervene to prevent a mistake by an officer of the same or lower rank?	Pre	13864	1.03	2.32	11.41	44.24	41.01	8.25*
	Post	11618	0.67	1.99	9.13	42.84	45.37	
2. Another officer would intervene to prevent a mistake by an officer of a higher rank?	Pre	13860	4.03	10.60	18.03	41.49	25.85	13.45*
	Post	11613	2.54	8.27	14.53	43.51	31.15	
3. Another officer would intervene to prevent an act of misconduct by an officer of the same or lower rank?	Pre	13862	1.00	2.47	11.72	43.47	41.34	9.24*
	Post	11616	0.71	2.01	9.07	41.98	46.23	
4. Another officer would intervene to prevent an act of misconduct by an officer of a higher rank?	Pre	13858	3.54	9.66	17.87	41.12	27.81	13.87*
	Post	11619	2.37	6.77	14.50	42.93	33.43	
5. Another officer would intervene to protect the health and wellbeing of an officer of the same or lower rank?	Pre	13862	0.97	2.42	11.64	42.48	42.50	9.42*
	Post	11619	0.67	1.82	8.99	41.07	47.45	
6. Another officer would intervene to protect the health and wellbeing of an officer of a higher rank?	Pre	13857	2.33	6.51	15.17	41.59	34.40	10.73*
	Post	11617	1.62	4.92	12.00	42.31	39.16	
7. An officer who intervened would be ostracized, punished, or otherwise retaliated against?	Pre	13859	30.11	23.43	27.38	13.55	5.53	-4.12*
	Post	11618	32.05	25.62	22.83	13.55	5.95	

Table 59. Matched Sample Pre- and Post-Training Differences in Likelihood of Peer Intervention

In your agency, how likely do you think it is that …		Very Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Neither	Somewhat Likely	Very Likely	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*W*
1. Another officer would intervene to prevent a mistake by an officer of the same or lower rank? (N = 7708)	Pre	0.84	2.10	10.82	44.01	42.23	4.25 (.01)	8.91*	9.87†
	Post	0.70	1.78	8.54	42.32	46.67	4.32 (.01)		
2. Another officer would intervene to prevent a mistake by an officer of a higher rank? (N = 7708)	Pre	3.93	10.24	17.59	41.70	26.65	3.77 (.01)	17.51*	18.32†
	Post	2.35	7.69	13.80	43.15	33.00	3.97 (.01)		
3. Another officer would intervene to prevent an act of misconduct by an officer of the same or lower rank? (N = 7709)	Pre	0.86	2.39	11.12	42.83	42.81	4.24 (.01)	10.09*	10.95†
	Post	0.70	1.89	8.37	41.54	47.50	4.33 (.01)		
4. Another officer would intervene to prevent an act of misconduct by an officer of a higher rank? (N = 7709)	Pre	3.17	9.50	17.29	41.51	28.54	3.83 (.01)	17.44*	18.23†
	Post	2.09	6.41	14.02	42.09	35.39	4.02 (.01)		
5. Another officer would intervene to protect the health and wellbeing of an officer of the same or lower rank? (N = 7711)	Pre	0.88	2.28	11.04	42.29	43.51	4.25 (.01)	9.95*	11.15†
	Post	0.73	1.89	8.36	40.63	48.39	4.34 (.01)		
6. Another officer would intervene to protect the health and wellbeing of an officer of a higher rank? (N = 7708)	Pre	2.10	6.24	14.67	41.62	35.37	4.02 (.01)	13.32*	14.40†
	Post	1.48	4.55	11.43	41.87	40.67	4.16 (.01)		
7. An officer who intervened would be ostracized, punished, or otherwise retaliated against? (N = 7709)	Pre	31.60	23.76	26.83	12.61	5.20	2.36 (.01)	4.08*	5.26†
	Post	33.99	25.96	21.61	12.73	5.72	2.30 (.01)		
***Likelihood of Peer Intervention Scale* (*N* = 7701)**	**Pre**	-	-	-	-	-	**28.00 (.06)**	**18.69***	**19.30†**
	Post	-	-	-	-	-	**28.85 (.06)**		

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using paired sample *t* test.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Table 60. Follow-Up Differences in Likelihood of Peer Intervention within Agency

In your agency, how likely do you think it is that…		*N*	VU	SU	N	SL	VL	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*F*	*H*
1. Another officer would intervene to prevent a mistake by an officer of the same or lower rank?	Pre	3450	1.07	1.94	9.30	43.91	43.77	4.27 (.01)		
	FU1	512	2.93	3.13	6.84	26.56	60.55	4.39 (.04)	5.53*	45.00†
	FU2	187	4.81	1.60	6.42	24.06	63.10	4.39 (.07)		
2. Another officer would intervene to prevent a mistake by an officer of a higher rank?	Pre	3450	4.38	10.43	16.70	40.93	27.57	3.77 (.02)		
	FU1	512	5.86	7.03	10.16	38.48	38.48	3.97 (.05)	7.42*	25.59†
	FU2	187	7.49	7.49	13.90	34.22	36.90	3.86 (.09)		
3. Another officer would intervene to prevent an act of misconduct by an officer of the same or lower rank?	Pre	3450	0.78	2.12	9.57	42.90	44.64	4.28 (.01)		
	FU1	513	3.90	2.53	5.65	24.56	63.35	4.41 (.04)	9.04*	62.45†
	FU2	186	4.30	0.54	4.84	24.19	66.13	4.47 (.07)		
4. Another officer would intervene to prevent an act of misconduct by an officer of a higher rank?	Pre	3448	3.68	9.86	16.73	40.43	29.29	3.82 (.02)		
	FU1	512	6.64	6.25	9.18	33.79	44.14	4.03 (.05)	8.98*	37.34†
	FU2	186	6.45	8.06	10.22	33.87	41.40	3.96 (.09)		
5. Another officer would intervene to protect the health and wellbeing of an officer of the same or lower rank?	Pre	3447	0.99	2.12	10.41	41.66	44.82	4.27 (.01)		
	FU1	512	3.52	3.71	6.45	24.02	62.30	4.38 (.04)	5.39*	47.06†
	FU2	187	5.35	1.07	3.21	28.34	62.03	4.41 (.07)		
6. Another officer would intervene to protect the health and wellbeing of an officer of a higher rank?	Pre	3447	2.38	6.24	14.27	41.51	35.60	4.02 (.02)		
	FU1	513	5.26	6.63	7.60	32.36	48.15	4.12 (.05)	2.50	20.50†
	FU2	186	5.38	4.84	10.75	32.80	46.24	4.10 (.08)		
7. An officer who intervened would be ostracized, punished, or otherwise retaliated against?	Pre	3446	33.05	24.41	24.35	12.36	5.83	2.34 (.02)		
	FU1	512	51.17	19.14	14.84	7.62	7.23	2.01 (.06)	20.33*	58.57†
	FU2	187	54.55	13.90	13.90	10.16	7.49	2.02 (.10)		
Likelihood of Peer Intervention Scale	**Pre**	**3443**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**28.11 (.09)**		
	FU1	**511**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**29.31 (.28)**	**14.34***	**66.90†**
	FU2	**186**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**29.20 (.46)**		

VU = "Very Unlikely"; SU = "Somewhat Unlikely"; N= "Neither Likely nor Unlikely"; SL = "Somewhat Likely"; VL = "Very Likely"

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using One-way ANOVA. † Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis *H* test.

Table 61. Follow-Up Differences in Reactions to the Experiences of ABLE Training

		N	SD	D	N	A	SA	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*U*
1. I am more likely to consider intervening with my colleagues after ABLE training.	FU1	488	6.76	9.84	28.48	34.43	20.49	3.52 (.05)	2.05*	2.56†
	FU2	182	8.24	7.14	20.33	32.42	31.87	3.73 (.09)		
2. ABLE training strategies are useful.	FU1	488	5.33	3.28	21.11	43.44	26.84	3.83 (.05)	2.68*	3.20†
	FU2	182	4.95	1.65	13.74	40.66	39.01	4.07 (.08)		
3. I would recommend ABLE training to other officers.	FU1	488	5.94	4.30	21.72	38.93	29.10	3.81 (.05)	1.71	2.25†
	FU2	182	6.59	3.30	14.29	37.91	37.91	3.97 (.08)		
4. I would benefit from a refresher course on ABLE training.	FU1	488	16.60	15.98	35.04	21.31	11.07	2.94 (.06)	2.19*	2.22†
	FU2	182	14.29	10.99	34.62	23.08	17.03	3.18 (.09)		
5. Using ABLE training strategies has improved my ability to prevent colleagues from causing harm or making mistakes.	FU1	488	5.94	5.53	35.04	34.02	19.47	3.56 (.05)	2.01*	2.23†
	FU2	182	5.49	5.49	29.12	29.12	30.77	3.74 (.08)		
6. Using ABLE training strategies has improved my ability to promote officer health and wellness.	FU1	488	5.53	7.38	32.79	35.66	18.65	3.55 (.05)	2.58*	2.92†
	FU2	182	6.04	4.40	27.47	29.12	32.97	3.79 (.08)		
7. ABLE training has helped improve police-community relations.	FU1	489	7.57	8.38	33.95	28.83	21.27	3.48 (.05)	2.37*	2.66†
	FU2	182	7.14	5.49	25.82	31.87	29.67	3.71 (.09)		
8. If I intervene to prevent misconduct, I will not face negative repercussions.	FU1	489	4.91	3.68	13.09	33.74	44.58	4.09 (.05)	-.06	.70
	FU2	282	6.59	5.49	10.99	26.37	50.55	4.09 (.09)		
9. If I intervene to prevent officer mistakes, I will not face negative repercussions.	FU1	488	4.30	2.46	14.55	34.84	43.85	4.11 (.05)	.01	.82
	FU2	182	5.49	4.95	13.19	25.27	51.10	4.12 (.09)		
10. My command staff support the use of skills taught in ABLE training.	FU1	488	2.66	1.02	14.96	35.45	45.90	4.21 (.04)	-.00	.30
	FU2	182	2.75	1.65	17.03	29.12	49.45	4.21 (.07)		
11. My immediate supervisor supports the use of ABLE training.	FU1	488	1.84	1.64	17.83	38.32	40.37	4.14 (.04)	.76	1.44
	FU2	182	3.30	1.65	16.48	29.12	49.45	4.20 (.07)		
12. My peers support the use of ABLE training	FU1	489	5.32	3.27	26.18	41.51	23.72	3.75 (.05)	1.05	1.63
	FU2	182	6.59	3.85	18.68	40.11	30.77	3.85 (.08)		

Experiences with ABLE Training Scale	**FU1**	**488**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**42.06 (.40)**	**1.75**	**2.44†**
	FU2	**182**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**43.47 (.75)**		

SD = "Strongly Disagree"; D = "Disagree"; N = "Neutral"; A= "Agree"; SA = "Strongly Agree"

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using independent t test. † Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test.

Table 62. Follow-Up Differences in Self-Reported Use of ABLE Skills

In the last 60 days, did you…		*N*	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Frequently	$\bar{X}$ (SE)	*t*	*U*
1. Apply strategies from the ABLE training in your work?	FU1	473	35.73	31.08	22.83	8.46	1.90	2.10 (.05)	1.91	1.68
	FU2	181	30.94	29.83	24.31	10.50	4.42	2.28 (.08)		
2. Apply the 3 D's model (Direct, Distract, Delegate) during an intervention with a colleague?	FU1	474	51.48	31.86	11.18	3.59	1.90	1.73 (.04)	2.08*	1.89
	FU2	181	46.41	27.07	19.34	4.42	2.76	1.90 (.08)		
3. Apply the PACT (Probe, Alert, Challenge, Take Action) model during an intervention with a colleague?	FU1	474	56.33	28.27	10.55	3.16	1.69	1.66 (.04)	2.31*	2.30†
	FU2	181	48.07	28.18	17.13	4.42	2.21	1..85 (.07)		

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using independent *t* test.

† Statistically significant at $p < .05$ using nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test.

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