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Abstract:

Research has demonstrated that police officers' communicative practices are potent predictors of individuals' expressed reactions to law enforcement. The present study continues this line of work in Taiwan, the People's Republic of China, and the United States by testing a theoretical model pertaining to the influence of perceived police officer accommodation and reported trust on attitudes about compliance with police requests. In addition to differences in reported levels of these variables across locations, findings indicated that perceived police officer communication accommodation predicted trust in police which, in turn, predicted attitudes about compliance with police requests. The empirical and practical significance of these findings are discussed.

Keywords: People's Republic of China, Taiwan, United States, Police-Civilian Interactions, Law Enforcement, Cross-Cultural, Intergroup, Communication Accommodation Theory, Trust, Compliance.

Text of paper:

Expressed Trust and Compliance in Police-Civilian Encounters: The Role of Communication Accommodation in Chinese and American Settings

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Scholars and law enforcement officials have known for some time that a key factor in the prevention of criminal activity is the degree to which civilians and police work together cooperatively and proactively (Bayley, 1994). However, residents in many communities sustain negative attitudes toward law enforcement and experience problematic communication with their associated agencies, thus hindering residents' willingness to assist officers in combating crime (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003) and or voluntarily comply with their directives and requests. The importance of empirical investigations of police-civilian communication is supported by the view that the lion's share of police work involves communicating with the public (Thompson, 1983).

Research on attitudes towards law enforcement has focused on the predictive value of socio-demographic variables (see Giles et al., 2006 for an overview). This has been fruitful to the extent that there is a consensus that men, younger adults, and ethnic minorities are less favorably inclined towards, and have less trust in, police officers than other members of their respective social categories (Tyler & Huo, 2002). In a series of studies in southern California involving different procedures and populations, Giles et al. (2006) showed that *communicative* variables were, arguably, more potent than socio-demographic factors in shaping attitudes toward law enforcement. More specifically, they demonstrated

that a perception of officers as accommodating had a direct positive effect on how people evaluated the local police agency. In line with more recent and broader versions of communication accommodation theory (CAT: see for example, Giles, Coupland, & Coupland, 1991; and explicitly in a law enforcement context, Giles, Willemys, Gallois, & Anderson, 2007), accommodativeness was operationalized in terms of how politely and respectfully officers communicated to citizens and the extent to which they appeared to take the latter's view of their circumstances into account when taking legal actions (see Gallois, Ogay, & Giles, 2005, for a detailed history of CAT's conceptual development and refinements).

More recently, research has explored the ways in which accommodative practices have direct effects on social outcomes and whether they are mediated by other cognitive affective variables. For instance, Myers, Giles, Reid, & Nabi (in press) showed that an officer's non-accommodativeness evoked negative affective reactions which, in turn, triggered negative evaluations of his competence. Our work has focused on a different outcome measure – the extent to which civilians voluntarily comply with officers' demand and on the role of perceived trust as a mediating factor. Targeting “police in general” rather than specifying a local agency, we (Hajek et al., 2006) examined perceptions of officer accommodation, civilian trust and reported compliance, and racial and ethnic differences within and between the United States (Louisianans) and South Africa. In this study, it was generally found that officer accommodativeness indirectly predicted civilian compliance through trust. However, the model for White South African participants differed. In addition to accommodation predicting trust, a direct link was found between accommodation and perceived compliance; no relationship was found between trust and compliance.

We conducted the current study given our belief that gaining an understanding of the role of accommodative practices, trust, and compliance in police-civilian encounters is likely complicated by regional, cultural, and historical differences. It is intuitively obvious from television news and film content that police agencies around the world differ dramatically not only in the nature of their uniforms, demeanors, and equipment, but also in practices of corruption, abuses of power, and thresholds for the use of force – tendencies historically more prevalent in Chinese settings. Hence, the present investigation in the People's Republic of China (PRC) and Taiwan, using the United States as a Western contrast, was designed to move us towards a clearer understanding of the roles that accommodation and trust play in police-civilian encounters on an international scale. The importance of our approach is further underscored by our belief that accommodation, trust, and compliance carry significant implications for police officer training in these countries. That is, discerning the relationships of these variables to one another, and across cultures, may assist in the assessment of the need for such training.

The three cultural settings

Like many parts of the world, Asia's history of conflict has created interesting social connections between its nations' citizens and law enforcement. This dynamic has been fueled by tough and at times combative police forces, and publics that are increasingly aware of human rights issues. In Taiwan, police officers suffer from a negative image. They are perceived as intellectually inferior to those who pursue other

professions (Judicial Reform Foundation, 2002). Furthermore, the boundaries between police officers, local gangs, and politicians can be considered fairly blurred. Taiwanese police officers are perceived as abusing their authority, being open to bribes, and being rude to the public. According to a Judicial Reform Foundation (1999) on-line survey, only 12% of Taiwanese questioned believed that they would be treated fairly and reasonably when questioned by police. Moreover, fairly large surveys by Yu (1992) and Lin (2001) found that the public wished that the police would adopt a more "customer-oriented approach," responding to the needs of the public in a timely manner and being much more concerned about building positive images of themselves as approachable, trustworthy, and friendly. Using a nationwide telephone interview (n = 4062) to ask what should be done to improve safety, hiring more quality police recruits was ranked number one, even over preventing drug sales (Republic of China Ministry of the Interior, 2003). Added to this, feelings of distrust for the police and a perceived lack of safety are common ingredients of 24-hour television news channels in Taiwan.

Young people in Taiwan have significant opportunity for contact with police, as do young people in many countries. Many Taiwanese college students drive or ride motorcycles; therefore, they are frequently stopped by the police for speeding, or for riding late at night. Additionally, many young college students in Taiwan gather in bars, KTV (karaoke), night clubs, movie theaters, and music concerts where the police force is present and keeping a watchful eye to ensure safety. Police officers often stop college students to test their alcohol consumption levels, or for suspected drug use (Wang, 2008). Finally, Taiwanese students have, at times, become involved in political protests or demonstrations that have led to direct police contact.

Police-civilian relations appear, however, to be more positive in the PRC. In the mid-nineties, the police and local judges were under pressure to make the country safer and reduce major crime. Consequently, the force grew by 45%, as did the quality of training (Gilley, 1996). This was accompanied by a surge of arrests. In another move toward improvement, at the start of the new century, a Criminal Justice System Roundtable was formed before the Congressional-Executive Commission on China (Legislative Branch Commissioners, 2002), part of which focused on the elevated fear Chinese people had of the police. As a testament to the need for this Roundtable, one participating authority reported, "I do not exaggerate; many street level Chinese police probably have less knowledge of modern crime scene management, fingerprinting, blood typing and rudimentary forensic and investigatory skills than the average American viewer of *Law and Order*" (p. 7; see, however, Cao & Hou, 2001).

University students in China's larger cities, such as Beijing, are likely to have, or witness, contact with police. Although fewer students in China drive in comparison with their Taiwanese counterparts, they have experience sitting in cars and buses that are stopped and checked by police. Chinese undergraduate students also have direct or indirect contact with police in bars, internet cafes, department stores, transportation centers, and street markets. Contact with police may also occur as a result of car accidents that are common given China's dense population. People may directly talk to police officers either as witnesses or victims. Additionally, individuals may encounter trouble with police if they throw away cigarette butts inappropriately or otherwise litter, spit on the street, or behave violently during student protests (Watts, 2006).

Turning to American society, for many individuals, police officers are almost revered—and yet despised—at the same time (Molloy & Giles, 2002). This ambivalence contributes to making street police work an emotionally stressful occupation, and one in which the vast majority of officers concede that they have an image problem (Oberle, 2004). Such views are not alleviated by negative representations of police on television programs, many of which focus on officers' alleged abuses of force (Ross, 2000), media reports that document a long history of police having problems with their image (Halbfinger, 2003), and research that highlights officers' inequitable treatment of citizens (Norris, Fielding, Kemp, & Fielding, 1992). Nonetheless, studies on the American public's attitudes toward police officers have, overall, shown it to be moderately positive over the last few decades (Giles et al., 2006). Of relevance to the local setting of Kansas for our U. S. data collection, however, a plethora of articles in the *Lawrence Journal World* during 2002-03 were highly critical of police practices in the city of Lawrence. Claims included: police harassment, brutality, being untrustworthy and unresponsive to complaints, conducting unconstitutional searches (during traffic stops), and interrogating without offering those accused their legal rights. Notwithstanding the absence of “good press” about police which could provide some sort of media balance, it would seem likely that the communicative climate in this region could be antithetical—or at least ambivalent—toward local law enforcement.

In sum, all three contexts here indicate past consternations with police work and the images that naturally follow about its personnel. Unlike the Taiwanese setting, efforts are underway in both Kansas and the PRC to raise awareness about alleged police transgressions -- and the latter may well have made significant strides forward in terms of radical police reforms. Clearly and until very recently, the Taiwanese situation has endured a longstanding climate of antipathy between officers and the communities they serve. Given this, we might then expect that communication with officers—including accommodation perceptions, trust, and compliance—will be more positive for participants in the USA than for those in Taiwan. Additionally, and due to a lack of empirical findings pertaining to the valence of attitudes in the PRC, we wonder how such perceptions manifest in that cultural setting relative to the other locations. Finally, given CAT's general assumption that accommodation influences receivers' evaluation of communicator behaviors, we would expect that perceptions of officer accommodation would affect both trust and citizens' inclinations to assist officers in performing their duties, *vis a vis* compliance with officer requests. Given the importance of assessing perceptions of police, and what we know about the Chinese, Taiwanese, and American cultures, we translated these concerns into one research question (**RQ**) and two hypotheses (**Hs**):

- RQ:** What will be PRC participants' perceived levels of officer accommodation, trust in police, and inclinations to comply with police orders, relative to participants in the USA and Taiwan?
- H₁:** Participants in the USA will perceive police officers as more accommodating, will trust them more, and will consider themselves to be more inclined to comply with police requests, than will participants in Taiwan.
- H₂:** Perceptions of trust in law enforcement will mediate relationships between perceived accommodation and reported compliance.

Figure 1 illustrates the relationships described in H₂.

FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

Method

Samples

Undergraduate students (n = 682) from universities in Taiwan, the PRC, and the USA completed the survey. The study participants in PRC and Taiwan were recruited through flyers and the students in the United States received extra course credit for their participation. The Taiwan sample (n = 216; 112 females) was drawn from undergraduate psychology, communication studies, sociology, and law students at a university in Taipei. All participants were of Chinese (Han) ethnic origin, and ranged in age from 18 to 40, with a mean reported age of 21.54 years (SD = 3.02). The PRC sample (n = 227; 118 females) was drawn from undergraduate students at a university in Beijing. As with the Taiwan sample, all were of Chinese (Han) ethnic origin, and ranged in age from 17 to 26, with a mean reported age of 19.41 years (SD = 1.35). Finally, the United States sample (n = 239; 119 females) was drawn from undergraduate communication students at a Midwestern university. In this sample, the majority of participants were Caucasian (89%), the remainder being of Asian/Pacific Island (3.8%), African-American (2.9%), Latino/a (2.5%), and "Other American" (1.7%) descent. Their ages ranged from 18 to 32, with a mean reported age of 20.46 years (SD = 2.02). At each site, participants completed the questionnaires in small groups under the supervision of a research assistant, resulting in a 100% response rate.

Procedure and materials

The 13-item instrument included items about perceptions of police officer accommodation, trust in police, and attitudes about compliance with police requests (see Table 1). The accommodation items were identical to those used in previous surveys of attitudes toward local law enforcement (Giles et al., 2006; Hajek et al., 2006). The trust and compliance items were similarly drawn from previous studies of citizens' perceptions of law enforcement (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). The current instrument, and factor structure, had proved reliable across several geographical locations worldwide (Giles et al., 2006; Hajek et al., 2006). Seven-point Likert-type items anchored by "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (7) were used to assess accommodation, whereas seven-point bi-polar semantic differential scales were used (e.g., "very unpleasant" [1] to "very pleasant" [7]) to assess trust and compliance. The questionnaire included a number of demographic items in addition to the 13 primary measures. The English version of the questionnaire was translated into Chinese by two of the bilingual authors of this study. Results were compared, and experts in the PRC and Taiwan were consulted in this process. A back- translation

procedure was adopted to ensure that the end product was sensitive to the cultural contexts, and that the instrument's original meaning was not distorted.

TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

Results

As an initial means of examining differences between the three comparison settings (and to address the RQ and H1), a MANOVA was conducted for accommodation, trust, and compliance. The multivariate test indicated significant effects for location, $\Lambda = .74$, $F(3, 676) = 36.90$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .141$. Subsequent univariate tests were conducted to investigate the role of location on the three factors, and they indicated significant effects for accommodation, $F(2, 679) = 11.53$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .03$, trust, $F(2, 679) = 69.78$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .17$, and perceived compliance $F(2, 679) = 60.42$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .15$. Means and standard deviations appear in Table 2. Intercorrelations between dependent variables appear in Table 3. For accommodation, an analysis of the means indicated that, perhaps surprisingly, all participants found police to be moderately accommodating. Post hoc analyses using Tukey's (HSD) post hoc criterion for significance were conducted to assess the relative effects of the particular locations on each dependent measure. These tests indicated that perceptions of police accommodation were higher in both the USA ($M = 3.89$, $SD = 1.16$) and the PRC ($M = 3.95$, $SD = 1.01$) than in Taiwan ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 1.02$), $p < .001$. The means for trust revealed a staircase pattern in that participants in the USA trusted police to a moderately high degree ($M = 4.78$, $SD = 1.19$), and more than did individuals in the PRC ($M = 4.46$, $SD = 1.12$) who, in turn, trusted police more than did those in Taiwan ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 1.08$), $p < .001$. Concerning compliance, the USA participants imagined themselves as being moderately compliant with police requests ($M = 4.33$, $SD = 1.35$), and significantly more so than participants in either the PRC ($M = 3.35$, $SD = 1.26$) or Taiwan ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.11$), $p < .001$.

TABLES 2 and 3 ABOUT HERE

Structural equation modeling (AMOS, 4.0 - Maximum Likelihood option) (Arbuckle, 1999) was used to test the model depicted in Figure 1. Analyses in prior studies in this program of research have in part involved structural equation modeling (SEM). This is because we have typically taken a hypothesis testing (confirmatory) approach whereby perceived officer accommodation and reported trust in police are assumed to be antecedent to propensity to comply with officer requests. This statistical tool is employed because it allows us to provide a pictorially clearer conceptualization of the theory underlying our research. While traditional multivariate analyses (e.g. regression) may partially do this, SEM outstrips these in terms of being the most easily applied method of statistical modeling which does not

ignore error in explanatory variables and is hence much more accurate (Byrne, 2001). In SEM, model testing is a two-step process. First, the measurement model is tested and then the structural model (i.e., relationships between latent factors). The measurement model is the set of connections between observed and unobserved (factors or latent) variables. This takes the form of a (modeled) confirmatory factor analysis to assess the 'value' of the observed variables as indicators of the latent variables in the models. Separate measurement models were tested for each location: China, Taiwan, and USA.

Model testing

Test of the measurement models. All of the indicator variables showed relatively high standardized path coefficients from their latent variables and were statistically significant at $p < .001$ or better. The pattern of results indicated that the models showed acceptable fit to the data (China: $\chi^2(60) = 119.35, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 1.99, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .066$; Taiwan: $\chi^2(57) = 108.79, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 1.93, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .066$; USA: $\chi^2(57) = 110.11, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 1.93, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .063$). Although the chi-square statistic for each of these models was statistically significant in and of itself, this does not indicate that the models are poorly fitted. As sample size increases, the chi-square has a tendency to show statistical significance and it also assumes exact fit (Byrne, 2001; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 1996), which is highly unlikely. The other goodness-of-fit statistics for each of the models do show moderately good fit. The standardized regression weights for indicators for the latent variables (plus alphas) are summarized in Table 1.

Test of models

Three structural equation models were constructed to test the H₂ prediction that trust would mediate the relationships between perceived officer communication accommodation and reported civilian compliance. Importantly, in terms of support for H₂, in all three models the relationship between perceived officer accommodation and reported propensity to comply disappeared when controlling for reported trust in police. For the second test of the models, this latter path was not included, resulting in models that showed acceptable overall fit (China: $\chi^2(61) = 119.55, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 1.96, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .065$; Taiwan: $\chi^2(60) = 130.10, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.17, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .074$; USA: $\chi^2(60) = 141.67, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.36, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .076$). Similar to prior study results, all of the models posted strong positive relationships between perceived officer accommodation and reported trust. Additionally, all models included moderately strong paths from trust to perceived compliance, as can be seen in the standardized path coefficients, and variance explained, in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE

Discussion

Concerning our multivariate analysis results, participants in all three nations perceived police as being moderately accommodating (see Table 2 means). Additionally, they expressed moderately high levels of trust and inclination to comply with police requests. Taken as a whole, these results indicate that these particular young adults in the PRC, Taiwan, and the USA are fairly respectful of the authority of police. That is, they seem to grant the police some level of authority to correct aberrant behavior and, as citizens, they expect to comply accordingly. This finding was surprising as it related to the Taiwan sample, as the literature has suggested a relatively poor history of police-citizen relations in that cultural milieu. In support of H1, and in answer to the RQ, analyses revealed that the USA and PRC participants perceived the police to be more accommodating than did the Taiwan participants. Moreover, the means for trust revealed a staircase pattern, in that participants in the USA trusted police more than did individuals in the PRC who, in turn, trusted police more than did those in Taiwan. Concerning compliance, the USA participants imagined themselves as being significantly more compliant than participants in the PRC and Taiwan.

As stated above, H2 predicted that trust in law enforcement would mediate the relationships between accommodation and reported compliance. This mediating relationship was indeed the case for all three cultural settings, and they were consistent with previous findings amongst Black South Africans and Southern U.S. participants. The mediating role of trust is not surprising given CAT's general assumption that accommodation influences receivers' evaluation of communicator behaviors (not only reciprocal behaviors). This relationship suggests that trust may be particularly salient to civilians' communicative posture in the highly-charged police-civilian context. In other words, accommodation may aid individuals in trusting the police to serve them, and this trust may facilitate compliance for individuals in cultures in which police are often feared. The mediating role of trust has been studied in other contexts as well. Reflective of our finding that accommodation may affect subsequent outcomes, Maddux, Mullen, and Galinsky (2008) proposed a model similar to our own, and found that trust mediated the relationship between strategic behavioral mimicry and negotiation outcomes.

While the strengths of the paths from accommodation to trust were quite high for all locations in the current study, it is interesting that the strengths of the paths from trust to reported compliance were lower in intensity, and particularly for the American sample. Key to our application of CAT, this finding suggests that communication accommodation may foster trust more amply than it does perceptions (or expectations) of general compliance. In a lawful society, it is essential that the custodians of the law be obeyed and there are data suggesting that students, at least, vary widely in their inclinations in this regard (Giles et al., 2006). The models suggest that perhaps trust in police is important, but not singularly essential, for a lawful, police order-compliant society. Such an outcome suggests several intriguing directions for future research. First, it could be that trust might be more influential depending on which *kinds* of compliance are requested; our current construct is a rather global measure. Perhaps being directed away and moved on from a potentially dangerous disturbance by officers requires less trust than being asked if you are open to a physical or vehicle search. Predictably, being asked to assist officers in

their evidentiary investigations of people with whom you identify (such as a close friend's adolescent son) might require fairly high levels of trust in law enforcement. Second, trust might be more influential on other outcome measures such as displaying an affable demeanor with officers in a traffic stop, reporting a crime just witnessed or suspected, and involving oneself in community-oriented policing programs (including neighborhood watches). Whatever the case may be, our findings encourage us to broaden as well as specify the scope of outcome measures in a theoretically more precise manner.

Our results indicate that the Western model of law enforcement, as well as that embraced in the PRC, may be more likely to foster perceptions of police officer accommodation and trust in police than does the Taiwanese model. In regard to compliance, and as far as our particular USA sample was concerned, we do not know, as yet, whether the greater reported likelihood to comply with police was obligated from fears of recriminations, borne out of desires to maintain civic order, or due to other historical factors. For the more modest compliance ratings in Taiwan and the PRC, we suggest that the socio-political *meanings* of compliance could well differ between these national settings, such that disobeying the police could be seen as personal challenges to the government's (and not only law enforcement's) authority. Therefore, how police officers accommodate to the local populace could be even more important in these Chinese settings. Whatever the case may be, we should, in future research, specify kinds of situated compliance as well as explore the conditions necessary for civilians to generate their own, and various, calls for service, assistance, and protection. Taken as a whole, these results underscore the value of examining differences across national and ethnic groups in studies of this nature. Some time ago, Klyman and Kruckenberg (1974) suggested that each police precinct has its own set of unique problems, and we find that the same may be said of each nation, given its unique socio-historical climate.

From an applied perspective, our models show that vicariously observing and/or directly receiving accommodation from officers will engender trust in police in general and likely relieve stress and frustration in the immediacy of an encounter. This might be the case especially for civilians in nation-states such as those examined here that have endured complicated social histories. Additionally, the current model results lend evidence to our claim that officer accommodation may be of global importance in obtaining civilian compliance. Furthermore, and very importantly, we acknowledge that our findings in any one nation may not generalize to other regions of it, and that further work is needed in more cultural contexts and with samples other than college students. That said, undergraduates are, arguably, likely to have as much contact with police officers as do other age groups, as discussed previously. As a further limitation, we acknowledge the common rater bias problem that is a characteristic of much research that relies on self-reported information. Future studies may assess a myriad of respondent variables (non-student, political orientation, amount and nature of contact with police, ethnic identification, etc.), as well as specify the communicative context in question (e.g., traffic stops). Additionally, future work (varying language of testing) may also examine police-civilian communication in multilingual post-conflict settings in which police forces have attempted transitions from aggressive to service-based styles (e.g., Rwanda, Burundi, and Angola). Moreover, our model requires further elaboration to include a broader range of antecedent factors (e.g., perceived safety of local neighborhoods) and outcome measures (e.g., complaints received about officers, different types of citizen "compliance"). Obviously, and building on limitations inherent in self-report procedures, we need to determine from observations of actual ongoing police-community encounters (Solan & Tiersma, 2005)

what constitutes (verbally and nonverbally) accommodative and non-accommodating messages by both officers and civilians.

In terms of CAT, and in light of our findings, we suggest that a key motive for officer convergence is the desire to gain compliance (without recourse to physical coercion). While the importance of officer safety by re-learning perishable physical skills and muscle memory cannot be under-estimated, our findings regarding the importance of officers' accommodative practices in determining trust in and compliance with them—new developments for CAT (Giles, Willemys, Gallois, & Anderson, 2007)—suggest that far more attention should be directed at developing communication skills in general, and accommodative ones in particular. Such training could include education about how to solicit respect through the use of situationally-appropriate address forms, listening skills, empathy, explanations, and nonverbal skills (e.g., smiling). Of course these tactics should be sensitive to the values, customs, and needs of a wide variety of civilians within any given culture. We also acknowledge that accommodation would be dysfunctional, and therefore ill-advised, when officer safety is at issue, yet our data suggest that officer accommodative skills are an invaluable resource in garnering civilian compliance in the PRC, Taiwan, and the USA. The work herein highlights the value in further developing CAT—theoretically as well as empirically—so as to incorporate consequences of accommodating in terms of attributed trust and anticipated compliance, as well as longer-term institutional goals such as intergroup cooperation, and in our case, effective community-policing.

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Table 1.

Measurement Models: Cronbach Alphas and Standardized Regression Weights

Latent Variable Indicators

	Standardized Regression Weights		
	PRC	Taiwan	USA
Perceived Officer Accommodation (Cronbach Alpha)	.86	.88	.88
How pleasant are the police officers?	.76	.72	.84
How accommodating are police officers?	.61	.69	.82
How respectful of students are police officers?	.83	.89	.72
How polite are police officers?	.88	.84	.82
How well do police officers explain things?	.56	.79	.67
Reported Trust in Police (Cronbach Alpha)	.89	.90	.93
Do you feel the police protect citizen rights?	.74	.70	.78
Confidence that the police department can do its job well	.74	.78	.83
Trust the police to make decisions that are good for everyone	.65	.74	.80

Hajek, C., Giles, H., Barker, V., Lin, M.-C., Zhang, Y. B., Hummert, M. L., & Anderson, M. C. (2008). Expressed trust and compliance in police- civilian encounters: The role of communication accommodation in Chinese and American settings. *Chinese Journal of Communication*, 2, 168-180. Publisher's official version: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/17544750802287935>, Open Access version: <http://kuscholarworks.ku.edu/dspace/>.

Table 1. (Continued).

How satisfied are you with services provided by the police?	.78	.77	.80
How would you rate the police department?	.83	.79	.86
Attitudes About Compliance (Cronbach Alpha)	.63	.62	.82
You should obey the police	.76	.72	.87
I would always try to follow what a police officer says I should do	.64	.62	.88
People should obey the decisions that police officers make	.44	.48	.61

Table 2.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Contrast for the Three Factors by Cultural Setting

Factors	China (PRC)	Taiwan	USA	Contrast			Overall F
	(G1)	(G2)	(G3)	G1G2 P ≤	G2G3 p ≤	G1G3 p ≤	p ≤
Accommodation	3.95 (1.01)	3.51 (1.02)	3.89 (1.16)	.001	.001	.801	.001
Trust	4.46 (1.12)	3.60 (1.08)	4.78 (1.19)	.001	.001	.001	.001
Compliance	3.35 (1.26)	3.12 (1.11)	4.33 (1.35)	.141	.001	.001	.001

Note. Judgments were made on 7-point scales (e.g., 1 = very unaccommodating, 7 = very accommodating). Higher means correspond to higher levels of accommodation, trust, and perceived compliance.

Table 3.

Intercorrelations Between Dependent Variables

Variables	Accommodation	Trust	Compliance
Accommodation	--	.65	.31
Trust		--	.52
Compliance			--

Figure 1.

The Hypothesized Model: The Influence of Perceived Police Officer Accommodation and Reported Trust in Police on Attitudes about Compliance with Police Requests

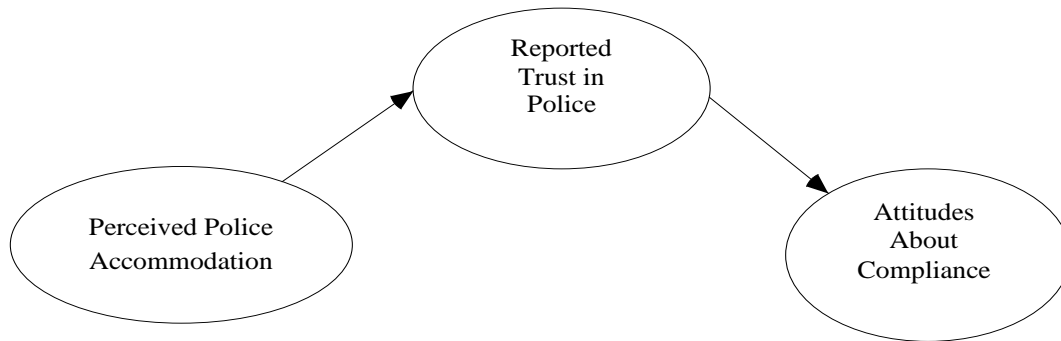


Figure 2.

The Final Model

