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Oh, @#%$!: a replication and expansion of Martaindale *et al.* (2023)

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Abstract

Purpose – In 2023, Martaindale and colleagues examined the impact of police officers' language (profane versus non-profane) during use of force incidents on civilians' perceptions of the reasonableness of the applied force. The authors noted the lack of audio in the video conditions as a limitation worth addressing in future research. The current study replicated the work of Martaindale and colleagues and addressed the noted limitation by adding audio voice over for the officers' dialogue to each video condition.

Design/methodology/approach – Using a 1×4 independent groups design with random assignment to one of four test conditions, participants ($n = 160$) viewed one of two dashcam use of force videos that were voiced over with either a clean or profane-laden depiction of the officers' language. After watching the video, participants responded to a short questionnaire including a five-item reasonableness index and demographics. The current study also compares the replication sample to the original sample to determine whether reasonableness ratings differ significantly between those who heard and those who read the officer's dialogue. Two-way ANOVA and OLS regression models were used.

Findings – Overall, and like the findings in Martaindale *et al*. (2023), the videos containing profanity were perceived as less reasonable than the corresponding videos without profanity. This study indicated that profane language used by officers, regardless of whether it is read or heard, impacts civilians' perceived reasonableness of force. Implications are discussed within.

Originality/value – This study advances the understanding of how police officers' language during use of force incidents affects civilians' perceptions by addressing a notable limitation in prior research. Building on the work of Martaindale *et al*. (2023), this study incorporates audio voiceovers to enhance the realism and ecological validity of the experimental conditions. This also provides a more comprehensive analysis of the impact of profanity on perceived reasonableness of force. Comparing the replication sample to the original sample data contributes to the robustness of the findings, emphasizing the critical role of language in shaping public perceptions of police behavior.

Keywords Replication, Public perceptions, Police behavior, Profanity

Paper type Research paper

Profane language is pervasive in daily life (Generous *et al*., 2015a; Johnson, 2012), and it is often used to emphasize emotional or suggestive meaning in communication (Generous *et al*., 2015a). Police officers, like others, are inclined to use this language in their interactions with other people. One study found that police use of profanity seems to be relatively common in use-of-force situations, with about 39% of citizens who experienced the use or threat of force reporting that the officer cussed at them during the encounter (Eith and Durose, 2011). Similarly, Holladay and Makin (2021) found officers and suspects both experience incivility (e.g. profane language, slurs, interruptions) in approximately one-third of interactions.

Two recent studies have examined the effects of profanity on the perceived reasonableness of the use of force. One study used videos of fictitious scenarios in which officer gender, suspect gender and use of profanity by the officer varied systematically (Patton *et al*., 2017).

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All three variables were found to impact perceived reasonableness, with the use of profanity negatively affecting perceived reasonableness (Patton *et al*., 2017). The second study addressed concerns regarding the use of fictional scenarios in Patton *et al*. (2017), instead, the authors used real use-of-force videos recorded on police dash cameras (Martaindale *et al*., 2023). They also included a five-item reasonableness measure, improving the assessment of the reasonableness of the use of force (Martaindale *et al*., 2023). The current study addresses one of the major limitations discussed in their study: participants read the officer dialogue instead of hearing it. We replicated Martaindale *et al*. (2023) using videos with audio rather than only subtitles. We provide the current study findings and then compare those between the two studies to determine if listening to the officer's dialogue resulted in significantly different reasonableness ratings compared to those who read.

Literature review

Police use of force

The ability of police to use coercive force is a defining characteristic of the profession (Bittner, 1970; Bradford *et al*., 2017; Wittie, 2011). In fact, people often call on the police to resolve problematic situations that may require the use of coercive force, such as a call for some sort of disorderly conduct (Herbert, 2006; Lum *et al*., 2022); and during situations that require it, officers are expected to use whatever reasonable amount of force is necessary to protect themselves and others (Thompson, 2015; Richardson and Fridell, 2024). What legally constitutes reasonable use of force by police is determined by US Supreme Court precedents (e.g. Graham v. Connor, 1989; Johnson v. Glick, 1973; Tennessee v. Garner, 1985), state laws and departmental policies. Each of these cases are routinely described in use of force studies (see Richardson and Fridell, 2024 for a recent example).

Perceived reasonableness of force

There seems to be a notable disconnect between what is legally reasonable and what the public believes is reasonable use of force. Generally, over the last few decades, the American public's approval of police use of force has been declining (Mourtgos and Adams, 2020). This misalignment between what is legally reasonable and what the public deems reasonable has potentially negative implications for community–police relations (Alpert and Dunham, 2004; Alpert and Smith, 1994). For example, although an officer may have been acting within the bounds of what was legally reasonable, the public may decide that the force used was excessive, creating a rift between community members and the police and reducing how much the public trust police officers (Richardson and Fridell, 2024; Salerno and Sanchez, 2020). The misalignment between what is legally justified and what is considered reasonable is termed as a "reasonableness divide" (Richardson and Fridell, 2024). In a recent study, scholars noted a significant portion of community members' view of reasonableness was incongruent with the legal bounds of what constitutes reasonable force (Richardson and Fridell, 2024). Mutual trust is necessary for the cooperation and collaboration between police and the public (Moon and Zager, 2007). Unfortunately, mismatched legal and public expectations may be damaging to the feelings of mutual trust that positive police-community relations are dependent on.

Influence of individual and situational factors. In 2018 more than one-third of all the respondents to the General Social Survey indicated that there was no situation in which they could imagine approving of a police officer striking an adult male (Mourtgos and Adams, 2020). Research indicates that men and white respondents tend to have a more favorable view of police use of force than women or minority groups (Mourtgos and Adams, 2020; Sandel, 2019; Thompson and Lee, 2004). Prior research has also shown that neighborhood context plays a role in how individuals perceive police force and misconduct (Weitzer, 1999, 2000). Specifically, middle class neighborhoods (regardless of their racial composition) were less likely to perceive or experience police force than lower class neighborhoods with predominate

black residents (Weitzer, 1999). Political affiliation has been shown to impact how approving individuals are of use of force with those that identify as conservative self-reporting higher levels of approval (Braga *et al*., 2014; Mourtgos and Adams, 2020).

Additionally, research has demonstrated that situational factors impact public perceptions of the reasonableness of the use of force (Reisig *et al*., 2004). For example, in a vignette study, the number of shots fired by police officers was positively related to perceived misuse of deadly force. However, in the same study, the number of officers present during the incident was inversely related to the perceived misuse of deadly force (Perkins and Bourgeois, 2006). Three recent studies have examined how the use of profane language by police officers impacts perceived reasonableness of the use of force (Martaindale *et al*., 2023; Patton *et al*., 2017; Sharps *et al*., 2019). These studies found that using profanity negatively impacts perceived reasonableness. Sharps *et al*. (2019) utilized a simple vignette design and found that profanity used during a lethal force encounter resulted in a higher perceived level of guilt and a reduced perception of professionalism. Although similar in design, Martaindale *et al*. (2023) improved upon the methodological limitations present in Patton *et al*. (2017), however, they presented other limitations and the need for replication with improvements to the research design.

Profanity

Profane language is pervasive in daily life (Generous *et al*., 2015a; Johnson, 2012), and it is often used to emphasize emotional or suggestive meaning in communication (Generous *et al*., 2015a). Audience and contextual factors impact perceptions of those who use profanity. For example, college students have previously responded positively to professors using profanity (Generous *et al*., 2015b). Other studies have found that profanity is perceived negatively in formal situations (Johnson and Lewis, 2010; Selnow, 1985).

Those who support police officers using profanity argue that is it necessary to establish their authority in high-crime areas or to gain control of uncooperative subjects (Dolan and Johnson, 2017; Mather, 2015). However, police using profanity during encounters with civilians is generally viewed negatively (e.g. Johnson, 2004; Shelley *et al*., 2013; Skogan, 2005). For example, officers who use profanity during mock traffic stops were rated as being less friendly, fair and just (Baseheart and Cox, 1993). Others report that officers' use of profane language appears unprofessional and may further aggravate a situation (Dolan and Johnson, 2017; Glennon, 2010; Marcou, 2014). More recent research indicates that the context in which profane language is used may impact public perceptions (Adams, 2024). In the article "Fuck: The Police", Ian Adams (2024) explored the complexities of profanity use in policing and its impact on professionalism and public trust. Using a sample of police officers and human resources executives, Adams' experimental study tested his proposed theory on the acceptability of profanity based on its target (self, colleague or public) and intent (derogatory, positive or neutral). He found that profanity directed at the public or used with a derogatory intent was widely viewed as unprofessional and damaging to public trust, leading to a greater likelihood of disciplinary action. Conversely, profanity used in a positive manner or directed at oneself was deemed more acceptable.

Overview of Martaindale et al. *(2023)*

In their study, Martaindale *et al*. (2023) used a 1 × 4 independent groups design with assignment to one of four conditions. They showed participants dashcam footage from two different police-citizen interactions that both resulted in the use of physical force. One video depicted the officer striking the subject. The other showed the subject being physically restrained on the ground. Importantly, the authors are not justifying the use of force in these situations. Rather they accept that the force has already been applied in both encounters, and they aim to better understand if community members view that force differently based on the language used by the officer. The original audio was removed from both videos and was

replaced with both clean and profanity-laden subtitles for participants to read. After watching one of the four videos, participants were provided with the five-item measure to assess the reasonableness of the officer's use of force.

Overall, participants felt the use of force in both videos was less reasonable when the officer used profanity, compared to no profanity. The results indicated that, for the two videos without profanity, participants who viewed the subject being struck reported lower perceived reasonableness than those who viewed the subject being physically restrained. However, this difference was not present between the two profane videos. Thus, when profanity was present, participants were no longer sensitive to the different levels of force being applied.

Their findings highlight the importance of language in citizens' evaluations of reasonable use of force. That is, using profanity may be the difference between an officer's use of force being deemed reasonable or unreasonable by the community in which they serve. Perceived reasonableness of force in situations where the officer uses profanity has the potential to impact departments and individual officers in various ways. For example, citizens may file more complaints following these situations. For officers who are taken to court over the matter, it could be the difference between a guilty or not guilty verdict; and if they are found guilty, it could also impact the severity of the punishment received. Martaindale *et al*. (2023) supported the findings of Patton *et al*. (2017) and expanded on the previously used methods by using actual use-of-force footage and a five-item reasonableness index. However, the study still provides opportunities for improvement in future research. One of the limitations and suggestions for future research discussed in Martaindale *et al*. (2023) was the inclusion of the officers' dialogue in an audio format.

Current study

The current study replicates the methods used in Martaindale *et al*. (2023) with the only difference being the inclusion of the audio. Including audio allows observation of any differences in perceptions between the read and heard dialogue. It also eliminates potential individual differences in reading comprehension and interpretation. In line with Martaindale *et al*. (2023), the current study seeks to determine whether a law enforcement officer's use of profane language impacts civilians' perceived reasonableness of the use of force. We address the following hypothesis.

H1. Participants will rank an officer's force as less reasonable when the officer uses profane language.

Additionally, to address concerns regarding the lack of audio in Martaindale *et al*. (2023), we compare the replication sample to the original sample to determine whether reasonableness ratings differ significantly between those who heard and those who read the officer's dialogue.

Method

Design

The study followed the same 1×4 independent groups design with random assignment to test conditions. Each participant watched one of four different use-of-force videos. One video depicted an officer responding to a domestic violence incident and encountering the alleged suspect. The suspect was a Caucasian male returning to the scene of the crime. The officer utilizes a leg strike and open hand strike to subdue the suspect. The other video depicted a traffic stop where the driver had an active arrest warrant. The suspect was an African American female. The officer physically removed the suspect from the vehicle and placed her on the ground to subdue her without any physical strikes. In both videos, the officer used physical force to subdue the alleged suspect. To isolate the influence of the officer's language on perceived reasonableness the original audio track was removed, and each video was given a

new audio with either clean or profane language (see Appendix 1 for transcripts). The audio transcripts match the transcribed language in Martaindale *et al.*'s paper exactly.

Sample

The sample consisted of 160 undergraduate students from a large southwestern university. Members of the research team recruited directly from undergraduate courses in-person. Instructors provided extra credit for participation as they saw fit; however, no participants received any form of compensation. Participants self-reported their age, sex and race (see Table 1). Two participants did not provide a response for the age question, and one participant did not answer the sex or race questions. Participants ages ranged 18–51 years old ($M = 21.96$, $SD = 3.62$). Most participants (i.e. 56.60%) were male. About 52% of participants self-identified as Hispanic, 32% Caucasian, 9% African American, 4% Asian and the remaining 3% identified as Other or left the race question blank.

Procedure

Participants arrived at the study location and signed an IRB approved consent form prior to participation. Participants were then randomly assigned to one of the four test conditions and shown to the corresponding computer station. The participants watched the video for their respective test condition and answered a short questionnaire following the video. Once they had completed the video and series of questions they were excused from the study. Participants were generally done with all tasks within 10 min.

Measures

A five-item force reasonableness index was developed to measure participants' level of reasonableness for each use of force video. Each of the items was measured on a five-point Likert scale (i.e. [1] Strongly Disagree to [5] Strongly Agree). The mean score for the five items was computed for each participant. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test how well the individual scale items fit the reasonableness construct. All scale item loadings were within normal parameters (see Appendix 2 for index items and item loadings), and overall reliability of the reasonableness index was high (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.92$). Additionally, the indices were coded by a primary coder. Twenty percent of the indices were then coded by a secondary coder to check for interrater reliability. All variables matched 100% (intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) = 1.00). A Shapiro–Wilk normality test indicated that the

Table 1. Sample descriptive statistics by condition

	Condition 1 ($n = 40$)	Condition 2 ($n = 40$)	Condition 3 ($n = 40$)	Condition 4 ($n = 40$)
Age	21.56 (2.53)	22.31 (5.20)	22.63 (4.11)	21.35 (1.51)
Sex				
Male	21	25	22	22
Female	19	14	18	18
Race				
African American	3	3	1	7
Asian	2	1	2	1
Caucasian	17	11	15	8
Hispanic/Latino	16	22	21	24
Other	2	2	1	0

Note(s): Standard deviations are reported in parentheses
Source(s): Authors' own work

reasonableness index was not normally distributed ($W = 0.95$, $p < 0.001$). As such, we present findings with both parametric and non-parametric tests. Specifically, Mann–Whitney [1] tests were conducted to test for differences in the outcome between the two groups in each predictor variable. Those results are presented in the corresponding footnote.

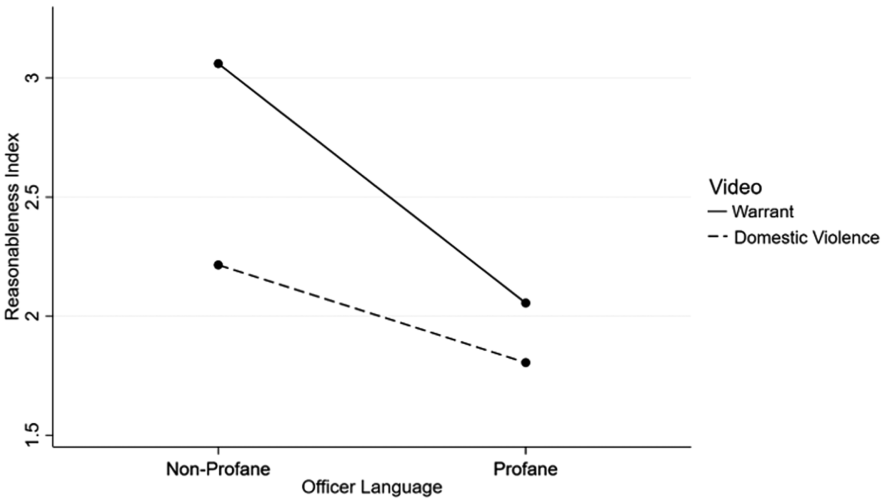
Analyses

The primary outcome of interest was perceived reasonableness of force. A two-way ANOVA was used to assess the main effects and interaction for the presence of profanity and type of video (i.e. DV or arrest warrant). An OLS regression was then used to examine the effects of participant demographics and type of video on perceived reasonableness of force. Finally, to assess whether there were differences in reasonableness scores provided by those who heard versus those who read the officer's dialogue, we conducted a two-way ANOVA examining the main effects and interaction for the presence of audio and profanity.

Results

Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance was significant, so equal variances could not be assumed. However, results from separate *t*-Tests with the Welch adjustment [2] and a one-way ANOVA [3], accounting for the differences in variance, did not differ substantially from those provided by the two-way ANOVA. Thus, to remain consistent with Martaindale *et al*. (2023), we reported the findings from the two-way ANOVA with the body of this text. For the warrant video (see Figure 1), participants scored the video containing profanity as less reasonable ($M = 2.06$, $SD = 0.87$) than that video without profanity ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.00$). Similarly, for the domestic violence video, participants scored the one in which the officer used profanity as less reasonable ($M = 1.81$, $SD = 0.87$) than that video lacking profanity ($M = 2.22$, $SD = 1.03$).

The dependent variable (perceived reasonableness of force) was assessed using a two-way ANOVA with two levels of both profanity (non-profane and profane) and type of video (warrant and domestic violence). There was a strong, statistically significant main effect for profanity ($F_{(3,\ 156)} = 24.39$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.14$), highlighting that the use of force in the



Source(s): Authors' own work

Figure 1. Effects plot

profane videos was perceived as less reasonable than that in the non-profane videos. There was a moderate, statistically significant main effect for type of video ($F_{(3, 156)} = 14.60$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.09$), indicating that those who viewed the domestic violence video rated the use of force as less reasonable than those who viewed the warrant video. There was a small, statistically significant interaction term (profanity × type of video) that indicated participants who viewed the non-profane warrant video reported significantly higher levels of perceived reasonableness compared to those in all other conditions ($F_{(3, 156)} = 4.31$, $p = 0.04$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$).

A Tukey HSD post-hoc test was used to explore differences between groups. The non-profane videos were significantly different from one another (difference = −0.85, $p < 0.001$). The profane videos did not differ from one another (difference = −0.25, $p = 0.61$). Additionally, the non-profane warrant video was significantly different from both the profane warrant video (difference = −1.01, $p < 0.001$) and the profane domestic violence video (difference = −1.26, $p < 0.001$). The non-profane domestic violence video did not differ from either the profane warrant video (difference = −0.16, $p = 0.86$) or the profane domestic violence video (difference = −0.41, $p = 0.18$).

An OLS regression model was used to examine the reasonableness index controlling for the video type (DV or Warrant) and participant demographics.

Only the presence of profanity was statistically significant and indicative of reduced reasonableness when controlling for all other variables in the model (see Table 2). The analyses within provide support for H_1. Participants ranked the use of force as less reasonable when the profane language was used by the officer.

To determine whether reading versus hearing the dialogue in the videos impacted reasonableness scores, we obtained the data used by Martaindale *et al*. (2023) and combined that with the data for the current study and created a new variable for the presence of audio. Table 3 provides the overall demographics for both the replication and original samples.

Overall perceived reasonableness scores were similar between both the replication ($M = 2.28$, $SD = 1.01$) and original ($M = 2.29$, $SD = 1.07$) samples. To further explore potential differences between the replication and original samples, the dependent variable (perceived reasonableness of force) was assessed using a two-way ANOVA with two levels of both profanity (non-profane and profane) and presence of audio (not present and present). There was a strong, statistically significant main effect for presence of profanity ($F_{(3, 390)} = 69.23$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.15$), again indicating that participants who viewed profane videos provided lower reasonableness ratings for the officer's uses of force compared to those who viewed non-profane videos (difference = −0.82, $p < 0.001$). There was no significant difference in reasonableness ratings between audio conditions ($F_{(3, 390)} = 0.02$, $p = 0.88$, $\eta^2 = 0.00006$). The interaction term (profanity × audio) was not statistically significant ($F_{(3, 390)} = 1.28$, $p = 0.26$, $\eta^2 = 0.003$).

Table 2. OLS regression predicting reasonableness

	b (SE)	β
Profane	−0.43 (0.21)*	−0.21
Video type	0.30 (0.21)	0.15
Profane × Video type	0.56 (0.29)	0.24
Age	−0.03 (0.02)	−0.12
Male	−0.07 (0.15)	−0.04
White	0.17 (0.16)	0.08
Constant	2.96 (0.47)	

Note(s): $F_{(6, 151)} = 7.88$, $R^2 = 0.24$, $n = 158$, $^*p < 0.05$
Source(s): Authors' own work

Table 3. Demographics for replication and original samples

	Replication (n = 160)	Original (n = 234)
Age	21.96 (3.62)	20.98 (3.30)
Sex		
Male	90	132
Female	69	101
Race		
African American	14	19
Asian	6	7
Caucasian	51	81
Hispanic/Latino	83	112
Other	5	4

Source(s): Authors' own work

Discussion

Our results provide further support for Martaindale *et al.*'s (2023) finding that profanity has a significant impact on civilian perceptions of how reasonable an officer's use of force is. Moving beyond having participants read a script of the interaction while watching the videos, our study shows that the impact of profanity holds true when hearing the audio. Controlling for other variables, profanity was found to be the only significant factor for predicting the level of reasonableness. This means a person can watch the same exact scene unfold and have different opinions on how reasonable an officer's actions were merely based on the language used at the time.

Each video was perceived with a significantly different level of reasonableness based on the non-profane versions. However, this difference in perceptions was not significant when profanity was used. This demonstrates the impact profanity can have on a person's thoughts about the force used. Police use of force varies greatly from one situation to the next. These results demonstrate that profanity can play a key role in how civilians see these interactions. The warrant video was generally perceived as reasonable with the average non-profane score being 3.06. This average falls above the halfway point (i.e. a score of 3) where someone would perceive the use of force as reasonable. When profanity was used, in the warrant video the average reasonableness score drops to 2.06, which is below the halfway point, making it fall from being perceived as reasonable on average to unreasonable. While profanity did not have a significant impact on reasonableness in the domestic violence video, which was generally seen as unreasonable to begin with, it still resulted in perceptions of the use of force being less reasonable. This was different than the finding of the previous Martaindale *et al*. (2023) study, which found both videos to be initially perceived as above the midpoint (i.e. reasonable) when profanity was not used.

Research has shown that not all police videos are the same and that there can be significant gaps in audio when assessing body camera footage (McCluskey and Uchida, 2023). This means that civilians view police footage in a variety of ways. The current study demonstrates the impact of language is not lost when comparing audio and subtitled videos. Recall that there was no significant effect when assessing the audio vs script versions of the videos. This is an important finding because it shows that regardless of how civilians watch the video (e.g. with audio or with subtitles), the impact of profanity is still present. It could even be argued that the main effect from these results using audio are more obvious when compared to the subtitled study because profanity was the only significant factor in the OLS model. Based on this, similar policy implications arise as those discussed by Martaindale *et al*. (2023) and Patton *et al*. (2017). Martaindale *et al*. (2023) pointed to examples of current police department

policies that prohibited the use of profanity while an officer was representing the department in any way. This is consistent with Patton *et al*.'s (2017) policy implications that profanity should be avoided to decrease negative perceptions of the police. Additionally, Martaindale *et al*. (2023) stated that policy changes regarding training could be useful to better prepare officers for controlling their language in stressful situations.

Other research has discussed the use of profanity as a part of policing. Adams (2024) discusses a framework for departmental policy where emphasis is placed on the target and intent of profanity. It is suggested that profanity is a part of policing culture and has a place when used in the correct context. While this is likely true, the results from this study continue to demonstrate the impact it can have on civilian perceptions of reasonableness. This is salient because of how this could impact a court or departmental verdict of an officer's use of force. Juries and even judges could be influenced when determining whether an officer's actions were reasonable based on the language that officer used. While it may not be possible to completely erase profanity from policing culture; we do believe law enforcement professionals should strive to reduce the use of profanity. Our results further suggest that using profanity during use of force encounters might shift the public's perceptions of an action from reasonable to unreasonable. We believe this falls in line with Adams' (2024) suggestion that situations are complex, and the intent and target of an officer's language can impact views of professionalism. Police officers viewed as unprofessional might decrease the public's perceptions of police legitimacy, thereby hindering their ability to successfully carryout their duty. Research has shown that perceptions of police legitimacy can impact civilian cooperation (Murphy *et al*., 2008). While Adams suggests crafting policy to allow for certain types of profanity rather than imposing blanket abolitionist policies, it is unclear if one policy model would prove more successful in application.

One suggestion for a training policy might be to change the way in which feedback is provided. While many departments use scenario-based training, video recordings could be conducted and rewatched as part of the training feedback. Using video footage during a training debrief has been found to increase an officer's self-reflection of an encounter (Sjöberg and Karp, 2012). Many officers may be so focused on their physical actions that they are unaware of the language they're using. Utilizing video recordings of scenario-based training could allow officers to reflect on their choice of words during stressful encounters. This would also allow officers to better understand whether their language falls in line with the department's policy, whatever it may be.

Limitations and directions for future research

The current study uses the methods from Martaindale *et al*.'s (2023) study with the key difference of using audio during the videos instead of a transcript. Participants were randomly assigned to a single video and were asked to rate the officer's actions on a reasonableness scale (Martaindale *et al*., 2023; Sandel, 2019). The results show that profanity has a significant impact on perceptions of reasonable use of force. There are, of course, ways in which this study could be improved. The use of a student sample could impact these results. As mentioned by Martaindale *et al*. (2023), the use of students may impact this research because of their potential proclivity towards profane language. That being said, this impact may be less limiting when the context of the profanity is considered. Some using profanity casually vs someone having profanity used aggressively towards another may have completely different impacts on an individual's perceptions.

Also, like the previous study, the profanity was used at a high frequency and consisted predominately of "fuck", which has been shown to elicit strong responses (see Adams, 2024). This could have more of an impact on perceptions than when it is used less frequently and with less intense profanity. Future studies could seek to understand the rate of profane language through BWC footage, similar to the exploratory work by Holladay and Makin (2021). The use of relatively lower-level words (e.g. shit vs fuck) might reduce the impact of profanity on

civilian perceptions, while profane words directed at an individual (e.g. bitch, asshole) may lead to changes in how reasonable encounters are perceived. Similarly, a single use of profanity versus using it in every sentence could change the significance. Additionally, the use of the types of incidents portrayed may have an impact on people's perceptions of reasonableness. These videos were chosen because they were the same videos used in Martaindale *et al.*'s (2023) work. Future research could expand the type of incidents shown to see if profanity still has an impact on perception of use of force. Finally, several situational factors have been shown to impact perceptions of reasonableness in past studies (Sandel, 2019), this is likely to hold true when considering the use of profanity. Situational factors such as the suspect's use of profanity or the suspect's actions could play a role in influencing someone's perceptions of how reasonable an officer's actions were. These are just some factors that should drive future research.

Notes

1. Consistent with the parametric tests, there was a significant difference of z = 4.20 in reasonableness scores between non-profane (M = 2.64, SD = 1.09) and profane (M = 1.93, SD = 0.79) conditions. There was a significant difference of z = 3.44 in reasonableness scores between the warrant (M = 2.56, SD = 1.06) and domestic violence (M = 2.01, SD = 0.89) conditions.
2. The incident videos including profanity were rated significantly lower than those videos without profanity, $t_{(145.68)} = 4.69$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.697$. The videos depicting the domestic violence situation were rated significantly less reasonable than those depicting the warrant situation, $t_{(155.57)} = 3.53$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.540$.
3. There was a significant difference in reasonableness rating based on condition (i.e. profanity × video interaction) ($F_{(3, 156)} = 14.43$, $p < 0.001$). Specifically, the non-profane warrant video condition was perceived as more reasonable than all three other conditions.

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Appendix 1
Transcripts for all videos

Domestic violence

Introduction
The officer responded to a domestic violence call at a local residence. The wife, showing signs of incredible abuse, reported the husband left heavily intoxicated and told her he was going to get a gun to kill her.

Non-profane version
(0:18) Officer: This man is coming home. (0:24) ***Informs dispatch suspect returned*** (0:48) Officer: Sir, stop moving. (0:50) Officer: Sir, I said stop moving right now. (0:52) Officer: Get on the ground right now, sir. (0:56) Officer: I'm not going to tell you again, sir. Get on the ground. (1:00) Officer: Sir, stop moving and get on the ground. (1:04) Officer: Don't reach towards that truck, sir. (1:08) Officer: Sir, I told you to get on the ground. (1:12) Officer: You didn't listen to my commands. (1:17) Officer: Give me your hand, sir. (1:20) Officer: I said give me your hand, sir. (1:25) Officer: Sir, please stop resisting. You need to listen to me, sir.

Profane version
(0:18) Officer: This stupid motherfucker is coming home. (0:24) ***Informs dispatch suspect returned*** (0:48) Officer: Stop moving, motherfucker. (0:50) Officer: I said stop fucking moving right now. (0:52) Officer: Get on the goddamn ground right now, motherfucker. (0:56) Officer: I'm not going to tell you again, dumbass. Get on the fucking ground. (1:00) Officer: Stop fucking moving and get your ass on the ground. (1:04) Officer: Don't you fucking reach towards that truck, motherfucker. (1:08) Officer: You stupid motherfucker, I told you to get on the goddamn ground. (1:12) Officer: But your ignorant ass didn't listen to my commands. (1:17) Officer: Fucking idiot . . . give me your hand. (1:20) Officer: I said give me your fucking hand. (1:25) Officer: Stop resisting. Fuck, your dumbass doesn't listen.

Arrest warrant

Introduction
The officer pulled the driver over for expired tags. While the officer was interviewing the driver, dispatch informed him that the driver had an open arrest warrant. The following incident ensued.

Non-profane version
(0:19) Officer: Ma'am, I need you to get out of this car, right now. (0:23) Officer: You have an open arrest warrant, ma'am. (0:28) Officer: I need you to get out of this car, ma'am. You can sort it out in the jail. (0:32) Officer: Ma'am, I said get out of the car, or I'm going to have to drag you out of the car. (0:40) Officer: You need to listen to me, ma'am. Get out of the car, right now. (0:46) Officer: Ma'am, I'm now going to have to take you out of this car. (0:51) Officer: Stop resisting, ma'am. (0:55) Officer: Stop resisting and get out of this car, ma'am. (0:59) Officer: Please stop resisting, ma'am. (1:04) Officer: Ma'am, get on the ground. (1:09) Officer: Stop fighting me, ma'am. Please put your hands behind your back. (1:15) Officer: Stop resisting, ma'am. You're under arrest. (1:20) Officer: I said stop resisting. Please just listen to me and put your hands behind your back, ma'am.

Profane version
(0:19) Officer: I need you to get out of this fucking car, right now. (0:23) Officer: You have an open arrest warrant. (0:28) Officer: So, get the fuck out of this car. You can sort it out in the jail. (0:32) Officer: I said get the fuck out of the car, or I'm going to have to drag you out of the car. (0:40) Officer: You need to fucking listen to me. Get the fuck out of this fucking car, right now. (0:46) Officer: Fuck it, I'm taking your dumbass out of this car. (0:51) Officer: Stop fucking resisting, motherfucker. (0:55) Officer: Stop resisting and get the fuck out of this goddamn car. (0:59) Officer: Stop fucking resisting. (1:04) Officer: Get on the fucking ground, motherfucker. (1:09) Officer: Stop fighting me, motherfucker. Put your hands behind your damn back. (1:15) Officer: Stop resisting, motherfucker. You're under arrest. (1:20) Officer: I said stop fucking resisting. Fuck, just listen to me and put your hands behind your goddamn back, motherfucker.

Appendix 2

Table A1. Confirmatory factor analysis audio ($n = 159$)

Items	Mean	SD	Factor loadings
The officer's actions were reasonable	2.37	1.20	0.893
The officer's actions were justified	2.16	1.14	0.905
The officer's actions were excessive*	2.30	1.18	0.853
The officer's actions were appropriate	2.00	1.10	0.821
The officer could have used less force*	2.60	1.22	0.881

Note(s): Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.92$; *Reverse coded
Source(s): Authors' own work

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