STOP DATA

I. DESCRIPTION OF OVERALL STOP DATA

In 2024, the seventh year of RIPA stop data reporting, all city and county law enforcement agencies, all law enforcement agencies of California public schools and universities, and the California Highway patrol were required to report stop data.[1] In total, 533 agencies reported 5,065,428 stops in 2024.

RIPA requires officers to record perceived demographic information of a person stopped, information providing context for the events precipitating the stop, actions taken by officers during the stop, and the outcome of the stop. This data is collected to document law enforcement interactions with the public and determine whether certain identity groups experience disparate treatment during stops.

Officers enter RIPA data is based on their pereceiption of individuals,[2] and not on how individuals may self-identify. This distinction is important because racial and identity profiling occurs based, in part, on an officer's perception of an individual's race and identity. Some of the demographic characteristics reported (e.g., race, ethnicity, or age) may be eaperceivable based on visible factors. Other identity characteristics (e.g., sexual orientation or disability) may not be as apparent and, therefore, may be perceived less consistently with how stopped individuals self-identify or could be based on factors unassociated with appearance (i.e. location of stop).

A. Elements of a Stop

The RIPA data can be analyzed to show who is stopped, what initiates a stop (e.g., a call for service or an officer-initiated stop), the reason for the stop, the actions an officer takes during the stop, the result of the stop, and duration of the stop. These elements are described below, then applied to different identity groups to analyze the 2024 stop data in greater detail.

[1] Cal. Code Regs. tit. 11, § 999.224, subd. (a)(17).)
[2] Gov. Code, § 12525.5, subd. (b)(6).

Calls for Service

This report examines the proportion of stops that are made in response to a call for service, compared to those that are officer-initiated. *Calls for service* can indicate that the community is requesting an officer to stop an individual or respond to a situation,[3] while *officer-initiated* stops indicate when an officer stops an individual at the officer's discretion. As such, disparities between the proportion of stops that are officer-initiated compared to calls for service may indicate areas where officers or the community direct their attention.

Key Terms

Call for service — A stop made in response to a 911 call, radio call, or dispatch

Officer-initiated — A stop resulting from the officer's observation, not in response to a call for service

Reason for Stop

This report examines the primary reason stated by an officer for initiating a stop. While officers can select a primary reason from a set of ten options,[4] this report focuses on the two most common reasons: stops for traffic violations and stops for reasonable suspicion. The remaining eight reasons available to officers (known to be on parole/probation/PRCS/mandatory supervision, knowledge of outstanding arrest warrant/wanted person, investigation to determine if person is truant, consensual encounter and search, possible conduct warranting discipline under Education Code, determine if student violated school policy, probable cause to arrest or search, probable cause to take into custody under Welfare and Institution Code section 5150) are examined collectively as "other reasons."

Actions Taken During Stop

This report examines the actions taken by officers during a stop. Officers can indicate taking one or more of 36 actions or no during a stop.[5] Analyses of actions taken during stops include the

[3] See Cal. Code Regs. tit. 11, § 999.226, subd. (a)(12).
[4] Cal. Code Regs. tit. 11, § 999.226, subd. (a)(14).
[5] Actions taken during a stop include: Admission/Written Statement Obtained from Student, Asked for Consent to Search Person, Asked for Consent to Search Property, Asked Whether Person is on Parole, Probation, or Other Mandatory Supervision, Curbside Detention, Field Sobriety Test, Patrol Car Detention, Canine Search, Person Photographed, Removed from Vehicle by Order, Property Seized, Ran Passenger's Name, Searched Person, Searched Property, *Terry* Frisk, Vehicle Impounded, Search Person Consent Given, Search Property Consent Given, Handcuffed, Baton Drawn, Baton Used, Chemical Spray, Electronic Control Device Pointed, Electronic Control Device Used in Drive-Stun Mode, Electronic Control Device Used in Dart Mode, Firearm Point, Firearm Discharge, Impact Projectile Point, Impact Projectile Discharge, Canine Compliance, Canine Bite, Removed from Vehicle by Physical Contact, Physical Compliance, Use of Vehicle in Apprehension of Person, No Action Taken. (Cal. Code Regs. tit. 11, § 999.226, subd. (a)(16)(B), (a)(17)(A).)

prevalence of no actions taken, the frequency of use of force actions,[6] the most common actions during stops (in the 2024 RIPA data, these are: searches and *Terry* frisks,[7] handcuffing, detention on a curbside or in a patrol car, and asking about parole status), and the average number of actions taken during stop.

In 2023, 12.17 percent (616,407) of all stops involved detention curbside or in a patrol car, 12.00 percent (607,762) involved a search or *Terry* frisk, 9.67 percent (489,800) involved handcuffing the person stopped, and 3.42 percent (173,377) involved asking the person stopped about parole status.

Results of Stop

When entering stop data, officers can select up to 14 different options to document the result of a stop.[8] Officers may select multiple results when necessary (e.g., an officer cited an individual for one offense and warned them about another). In 2024, stops were most often reported to result in individuals being issued a citation (46.96%, 2,378,532), followed by a (written or verbal) warning (34.58%, 1,751,279), and then arrest (12.42%, 629,325). Officers reported no actions as the result in under six percent of stops (289,735). Each of the remaining results of stops represented less than five percent of the data.

[6] Actions defined as use of force include: Handcuffed, Baton Drawn, Baton Used, Chemical Spray, Electronic Control Device Pointed, Electronic Control Device Used in Drive-Stun Mode, Electronic Control Device Used in Dart Mode, Firearm Point, Firearm Discharge, Impact Projectile Point, Impact Projectile Discharge, Canine Compliance, Canine Bite, Removed from Vehicle by Physical Contact, Physical Compliance, and Use of Vehicle in Apprehension of Person. Use of force actions are categorized into *Lethal Force*, *Less Lethal Force*, and *Limited Force. Lethal Force* includes Firearm Discharge. *Less Lethal Force* includes Baton Used, Canine Bite, Chemical Spray, Electronic Control Device Stun, Electronic Control Device Dart, Firearm Point, Use of Vehicle in Apprehension of Person, and Impact Discharge. *Limited Force* includes Handcuffing, Physical Compliance, Baton Drawn, Canine Compliance, Electronic Device Point, Firearm Unholstered, Impact Projectile Point, and Removed from Vehicle with Physical Contact. (Cal. Code Regs. tit. 11, § 999.226, subd. (a)(17)(A).)

[7] A *Terry* frisk is when an officer conducts a pat down search of an individual's clothing to determine whether the individual is armed. (Cal. Code Regs. tit. 11, § 999.226, subd. (a)(16)(B)(9); *Terry v. Ohio* (1968) 392 U.S. 1.) A *Terry* frisk only requires the officer to have a reasonable suspicion the person is armed and dangerous. (See *Terry v. Ohio* (1968) 392 U.S. 1.) The Board has previously recommended that officer have probable cause for all stops or searches, including *Terry* frisks. (See Racial and Identity Profiling Advisory Board, Annual Report (2023), p. 96 fn. 326 <https://oag.ca.gov/system/files/media/ ripa-board-report-2023.pdf> [as of XX, 2025].)

[8] Results of stop include: Written Warning, Verbal Warning, Citation, In-Field Cite and Release, Custodial Arrest Pursuant to an Outstanding Warrant, Custodial Arrest without Warrant, Field Interview Card, Noncriminal Transport, Contact Legal Guardian, Psychiatric Hold, U.S. Department of Homeland Security Referral, School Administrator Referral, School Counselor Referral, and No Action. (Cal. Code Regs. tit. 11, § 999.226, subd. (a)(18).)

II. Stop Data Analysis by Perceived Demographic

A. Race and Ethnicity

Officers must report their perception of a stopped person's race or ethnicity by selecting all data values that apply from a list of seven broad groups (Asian, Black/African American, Hispanic/Latine(x), Middle Eastern or South Asian, Native American, Pacific Islander, and White), based on their observation only.[9] In 2024, officers perceived most individuals stopped to be Hispanic/Latine(x) individuals (43.31%, 2,193,617 stops), followed by White (31.28%, 1,584,354 stops), Black (12.09%, 612,443 stops), Asian (5.87%, 297,395 stops), Middle Eastern/South Asian (5.43%, 275,106 stops), Multiracial[10] (1.23%, 62,479 stops), Pacific Islander (0.53%, 26,748 stops), and Native American individuals (0.26%, 13,286 stops).

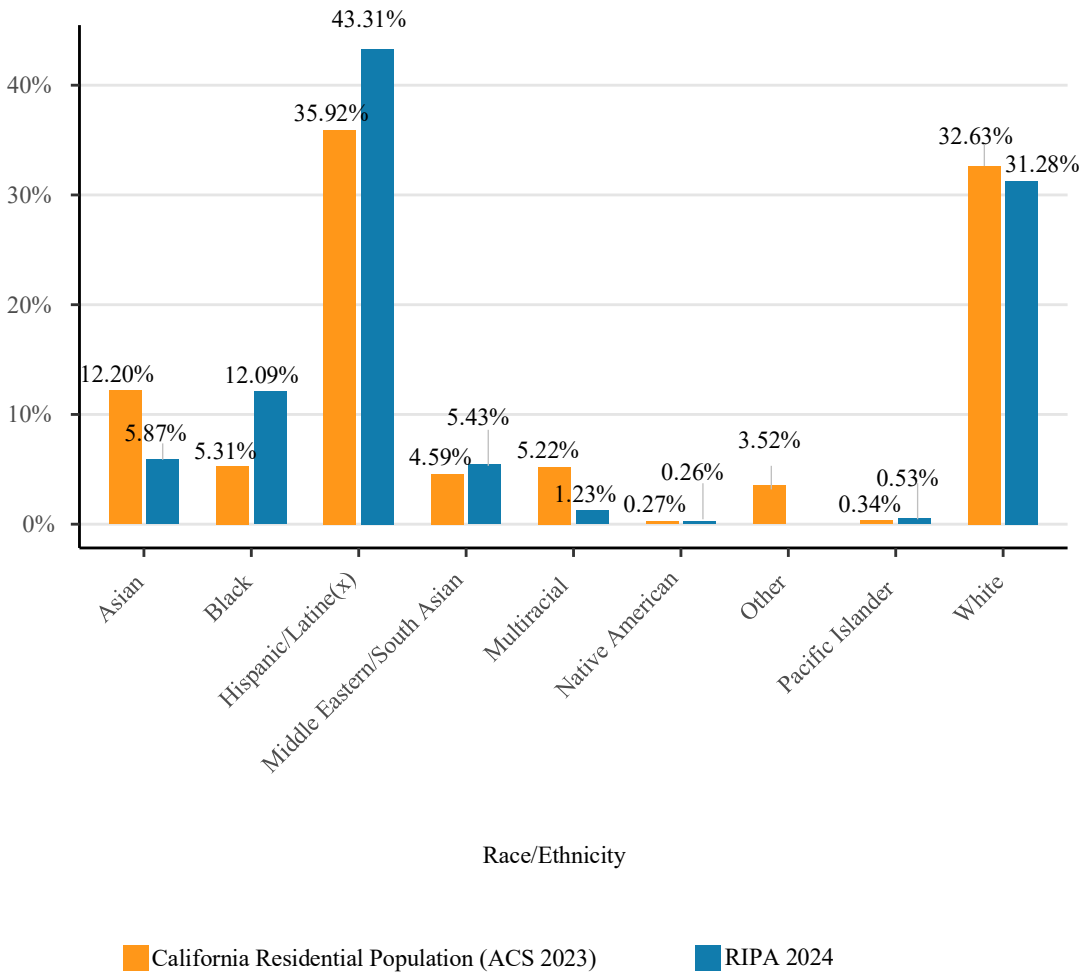
i. Residential Population Comparison

Comparing the perceived racial demographics of the individuals stopped in 2024 to the residential population demographics of California in 2023 demonstrates notable disparities. Individuals perceived to be Black were stopped 127.87 percent more often than expected, and individuals perceived to be Pacific Islander 57.53 percent more often than expected, given the population of the state. Conversely, individuals perceived to be Multiracial were stopped 76.39 percent less often than expected, and individuals perceived to be Asian were stopped 51.86 percent less often than expected, given the population of the state.

[9] Cal. Code Regs. tit. 11, § 999.226, subd. (a)(5).)

[10] For purposes of this analysis, persons who were perceived by the officer as more than one race or ethnicity are categorized as Multiracial.

Figure 1. Stop Disparities by Race and Ethnicity



ii. Calls for Service

Across all races and ethnicities, officer-initiated stops were far more common than calls for service in 2024. Individuals perceived as Native American had the highest rate of stops initiated by a call for service (14.59%, 1,938 stops), followed by individuals perceived as Black (13.19%, 80,805 stops). Alternatively, individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (3.45%, 9,485 stops) and Asian (4.58%, 13,607 stops) had the lowest rate of stops initiated by a call for service.

iii. Reason for Stop

Across all races and ethnicities, traffic violations were the most common reason for stop in 2024, followed by reasonable suspicion, and then other reasons. Officers stopped individuals perceived to be Black (18.02%, 110,375 stops) and Native American (16.25%, 2,159 stops) more often for reasonable suspicion compared to other races and ethnicities. Officers stopped individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (3.77%, 10,361 stops) and Asian (4.77%, 14,183 stops) the least frequently for reasonable suspicion.

iv. Actions Taken During Stop

Action vs. No Action

Officers reported taking no action least often during stops of individuals perceived to be Native American (66.36%, 8,816 stops) and Black (66.89%, 409,582 stops). Officers reported taking no action most often in stops of individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (90.88%, 249,966 stops) and Asian (89.12%, 264,933 stops).

Use of Force

In 2024, officers reported using limited, less-lethal, and lethal force most often against individuals perceived to be Native American, Black, or Multiracial. Officers reported using limited force most often in stops of individuals they perceived as Native American (16.76%, 2,227 stops) and Black (15.63%, 95,726 stops), and least often in stops of individuals they perceived as Middle Eastern/South Asian (3.02%, 8,305 stops) and Asian (3.84%, 11,402). Less-lethal force was reported to be used most often in stops of individuals perceived as Black (0.98%, 6,001 stops) and Multiracial (0.83%, 518 stops), and least often in stops of individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (0.18%, 486 stops) and Asian (0.19%, 564 stops). Officers reported few instances of lethal force (< 0.01% across all racial and ethnic groups), but reported using lethal force most often in stops involving individuals perceived to be Black (< 0.01%, 22 stops) and Multiracial (< 0.01%, 2 stops). Additionally, officers reported no instances of lethal force in stops of individuals they perceived as Native American and Pacific Islander.

Top 4 Actions During Stop

Officers reported the highest rates of searches and *Terry* frisks, handcuffing, and detainment curbside or in a patrol car in stops for individuals perceived to be Native American and Black. Officers reported the lowest rates of searches and *Terry* frisks, handcuffing, and detainment curbside or in a patrol car in stops for individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian and Asian. Officers asked the parole status of individuals perceived to be Black (5.18%, 31,738 stops) and Multiracial (4.34%, 2,709 stops) at the highest rates, and individuals perceived to be Asian (1.31%, 3,896 stops) and Middle Eastern/South Asian (1.23%, 3,393 stops) at the lowest rates.

Average Number of Actions

Officers reported taking the highest average number of actions in stops of individuals perceived to be Black (0.94 actions per stop, SD[11]= 1.72, range= 1-17 actions) and Native American (0.93, SD= 1.68, range= 1-12). The lowest number of actions were reported in stops of individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (0.21, SD= 0.86, range= 1-15) and Asian (0.26, SD= 0.96, range= 1-17).

v. Results of Stop

Officers reported taking no action most often in stops of individuals perceived to be Black (7.24%, 44,322 stops) and Native American (6.91%, 918 stops), and least often in stops of individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (2.88%, 7,923 stops) and Asian (3.31%, 9,831 stops). Among stops of individuals perceived to be Asian, Hispanic/Latine(x), Middle Eastern/South Asian, Multiracial, Pacific Islander, and White, citation was the most common result of stop, followed by warning, and then arrest. Among individuals perceived to be Black and Native American, warning was the most common result of stop, followed by citation, then arrest. Additionally, officers reported the highest arrest rates for individuals perceived to be Native American (24.32%, 3,231 stops) and Black (16.41%, 100,500 stops) compared to the other racial/ethnic groups.

B. Gender

The vast majority of stops in 2024 (98.81%, 5,004,808 stops) involved persons perceived as cisgender.[12] In 2024, officers perceived most stopped individuals to be cisgender males (70.96%, 3,594,195), while individuals perceived to be cisgender females were the second most common perceived gender identity (27.85%, 1,410,613). The remaining 1.19 percent (60,620 stops) is comprised of persons perceived as nonbinary individuals (0.80%,[13] 40,419), transgender

[11] When reporting an average value of a set of data, we will additionally report the standard deviation (SD) and range of the underlying set. The standard deviation is a measure of how dispersed the data are in relation to the average. A larger standard deviation indicates the data points are more spread out, while a smaller standard deviation indicates the data points are clustered more closely around the average. It is found by calculating the square root of the squared difference from the average. For example, if there are five stops of length 2 minutes, 4 minutes, 7 minutes, 11 minutes, and 16 minutes, the average stop length is 8 minutes. The difference from the average for each stop is -6, -4, -1, -3, and 8, and the square of those differences is 36, 16, 1, 9, and 64. The average of those numbers is 25, which means that the standard deviation would be about 5. If the five stops were all the same length, the standard deviation would be zero. The range states the lowest and highest value in the set.

[12] Cisgender means a person whose gender identity and gender expression align with the person's assigned gender identity at birth, whereas transgender means a person whose gender identity and gender expression do not align with the gender assigned at birth. (Cal. Code Regs., tit. 11 § 999.226, subd. (a)(6)(B).)

[13] Starting with this year's data collection (2024), the term "gender nonconforming" was changed to "nonbinary person." This change was a part of legislation which mandated changes to RIPA regulations. See more information here: Underlying Stop Data Regulations, California Racial and Identity Profiling Act of 2015 (AB 953) | State of California - Department of Justice - Office of the Attorney General

men/boys (0.26%, 12,938), and transgender women/girls (0.14%, 7,263). However, it is important to note that some transgender persons report being able to "pass" as cisgender, broadly meaning they are not perceived by strangers as transgender.[14] For example, a 2015 survey of transgender persons in the United States found that 40 percent of transgender persons interacted with police or other law enforcement in the past year, but 65 percent of those persons believed that none of the officers thought or knew they were transgender.[15]

i. Calls for Service

For all gender categories, officer-initiated stops were far more common than calls for service. However, individuals perceived to be transgender had around twice as high of a rate of stops initiated by calls for service (21.67%, 1,574 stops of transgender women/girls and 19.46%, 2,518 stops of transgender men/boys) compared to nonbinary individuals (10.97%, 4,432 stops), cisgender males (9.07%, 326,110 stops), and cisgender females (8.13%, 114,691 stops).

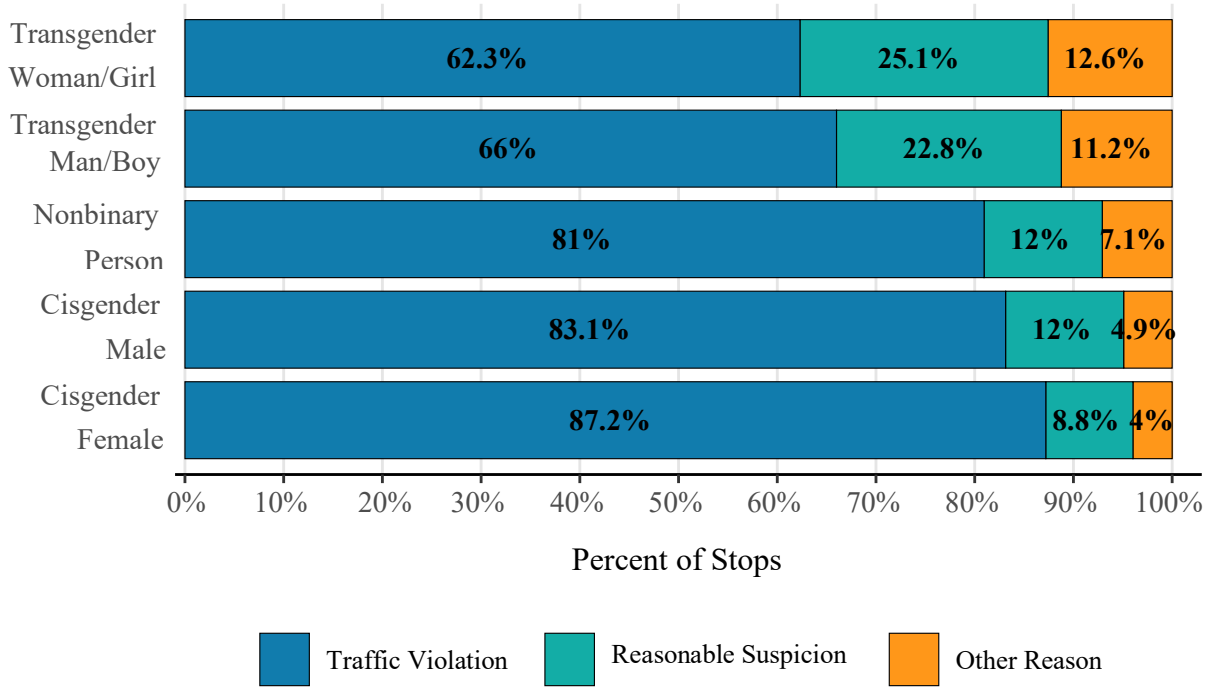
ii. Reason for Stop

Across all genders, traffic violations were the most common reason for stop, followed by reasonable suspicion, and then other reasons. Officers stopped individuals perceived to be transgender about twice as often for reasonable suspicion (25.13%, 1,825 transgender women/girls and 22.77%, 2,946 transgender men/boys) compared to other genders. Individuals perceived to be cisgender were stopped least frequently for reasonable suspicion (8.83%, 124,524 cisgender females and 11.96%, 429,870 cisgender males).

[14] Thomas J. Billard, "Passing" and the Politics of Deception: Transgender Bodies, Cisgender Aesthetics, and the Policing of Inconspicuous Marginal Identities, at p. 467 in THE PALGRAVE HANDBOOK OF DECEPTIVE COMMUNICATION (Tony Docan-Morgan ed. 2019).

[15] The Report of the 2015 U.S. Transgender Survey (2016) National Center for Transgender Equality, at p. 184, available at https://transequality.org/sites/default/files/docs/usts/USTS-Full-Report-Dec17.pdf

Figure 2. Reason for Stop by Gender



iii. Actions Taken During Stop

Action vs. No Action

Officers reported taking no action least often in stops of individuals perceived to be transgender women/girls (60.25%, 4,374 stops) and transgender men/boys (61.43%, 7,948 stops). Officers reported taking no action most often in stops of individuals perceived to be cisgender females (82.48%, 1,163,271 stops) and nonbinary individuals (74.87%, 30,253 stops).

Use of Force

In 2024, officers reported using limited and less-lethal force more often in stops of individuals perceived to be transgender and nonbinary compared to people perceived to be cisgender. Officers used limited force most often in stops of individuals they perceived as transgender women/girls (19.49%, 1,415 stops) and transgender men/boys (18.64%, 2,412 stops), and least often in stops of individuals they perceived as cisgender females (6.65%, 93,829 stops) and nonbinary (10.03%, 4,054). Officers used less-lethal force most often in stops of individuals perceived as transgender men/boys (0.80%, 103 stops) and nonbinary (0.71%, 286 stops), and least often in stops of cisgender females (0.29%, 4,028 stops) and cisgender males (0.58%,

20,921 stops). While officers reported few instances of lethal force, lethal force was reported most often in stops of transgender men/boys (0.01%, 1 stop) and cisgender males (0.00%, 110 stops). Officers reported 0 instances of lethal force in stops of individuals they perceived as transgender women/girls.

Top 4 Actions During Stop

Officers reported the highest rates of each of the most common actions (search and *Terry* frisk, handcuffing, detainment curbside or in a patrol car, and asked about parole status) in stops of transgender men/boys and women/girls. The lowest rates of search and *Terry* frisk, handcuffing, and asking about parole status were reported for individuals perceived to be cisgender females and nonbinary. Officers reported the lowest rate of detainment curbside or in a patrol car for individuals perceived to be cisgender females (9.45%, 133,348 stops) and males (13.15%, 472,714 stops).

Average Number of Actions

Officers took the highest average number of actions in stops of individuals perceived to be transgender women/girls (1.03 actions, SD= 1.70, range= 1-12 actions) and transgender men/boys (1.02, SD= 1.71, range= 1-14). The lowest number of actions were reported in stops of individuals perceived to be cisgender female (0.42, SD= 1.18, range= 1-17) and nonbinary (0.64, SD= 1.46, range= 1-16).

iv. Results of Stop

Officers took no action most often in stops of individuals perceived to be transgender men/boys (11.69%, 1,511 stops) and nonbinary (10.24%, 4,137 stops), and least often in stops of individuals perceived to be cisgender female (5.00%, 70,564 stops) and cisgender male (5.92%, 212,816 stops). Among individuals perceived to be cisgender and nonbinary, officers issued a citation at the highest rate, followed by warning, and then arrest. For individuals perceived to be transgender, officers reported warnings as the most common result of stop, followed by citation for transgender women/girls (23.93%, 1,738 stops) and arrest for transgender men/boys (23.50%, 3,039 stops).

Figure 3. Result of Stop: No Action vs Action Taken by Gender

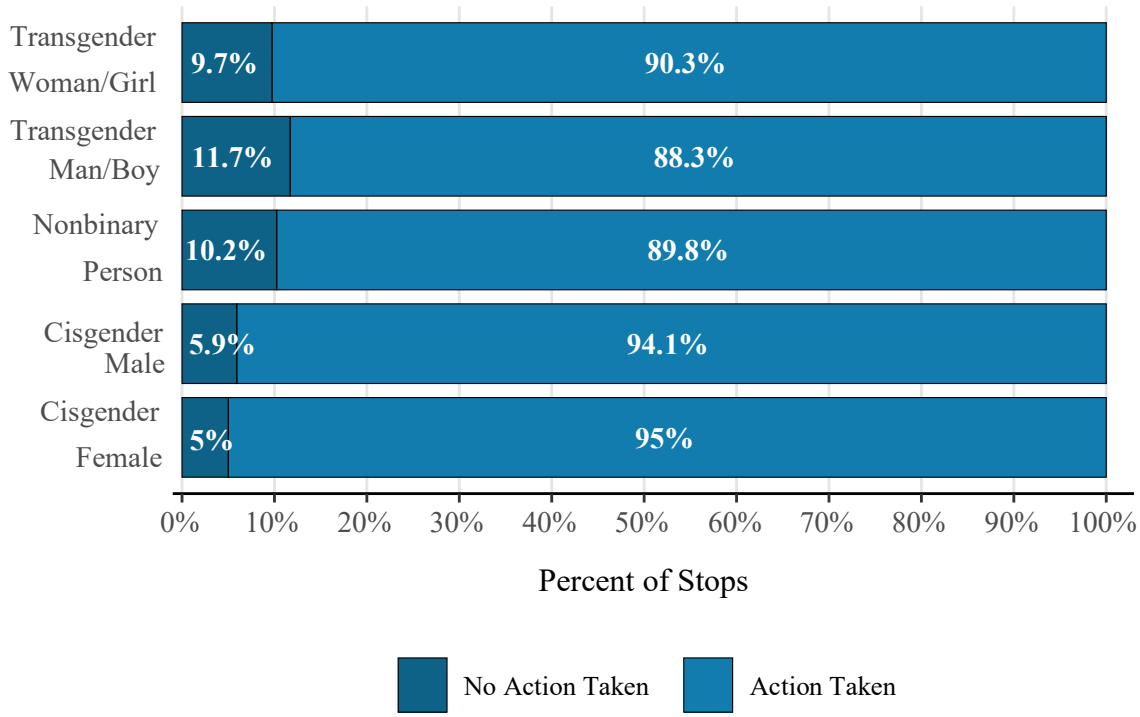
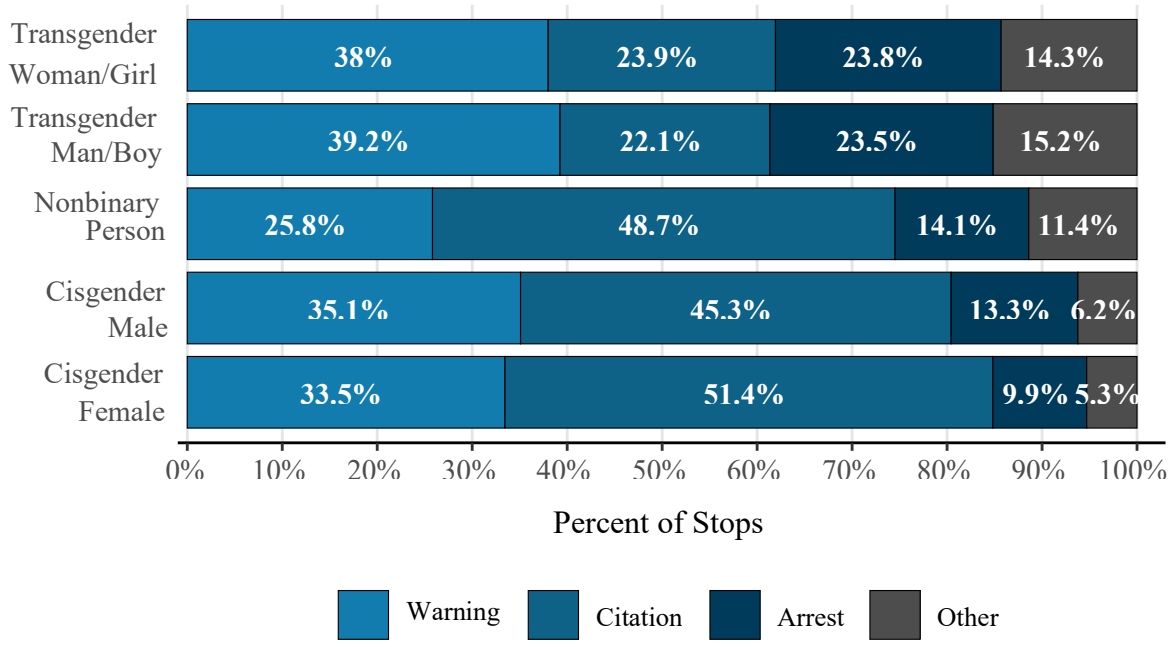


Figure 4. Most Frequent Results of Stop by Gender



C. Age

Most individuals stopped in 2024 were perceived to be between 25-34 years old (30.68%, 1,553,919 stops), followed 35-44 (24.64%, 1,247,911 stops), and 18-24 (15.15%, 767,349 stops). Officers least often perceived stopped individuals as 1-9 years old (0.09%, 4,377 stops), 10-14 (0.27%, 13,659 stops), and 15-17 (1.42%, 72,041). Other age categories were 45-54 years (15.51%, 785,631 stops), 55-64 years (8.25%, 417,913 stops), and 65+ years (4.00%, 202,628 stops).

i. Calls for Service

Among all age groups, officer-initiated stops were far more common than calls for service. However, youth perceived to be 10-14 (45.65%, 6,236 stops) and 15-17 (23.29%, 16,777 stops) had the highest rates of stops initiated by a call for service amongst all age groups. Youth perceived to be 18-24 (6.38%, 48,976 stops) and individuals perceived to be 65+ years (6.55%, 13,278 stops) had the lowest rates of stops initiated by a call for service.

ii. Reason for Stop

For all age groups except youth perceived to be 10-14 years old, traffic violations were the most common reason for stop, followed by reasonable suspicion, and then other reasons. Officers

reported the highest rates of stops based on reasonable suspicion for youth perceived to be 10-14 (37.41%, 5,110 stops), followed by youth perceived to be 15-17 (25.90%, 18,657 stops). Officers stopped individuals perceived to be 65+ (6.76%, 13,707 stops) and 18-24 (8.34%, 63,992 stops) least often for reasonable suspicion compared to the other age groups.

iii. Actions Taken During Stop

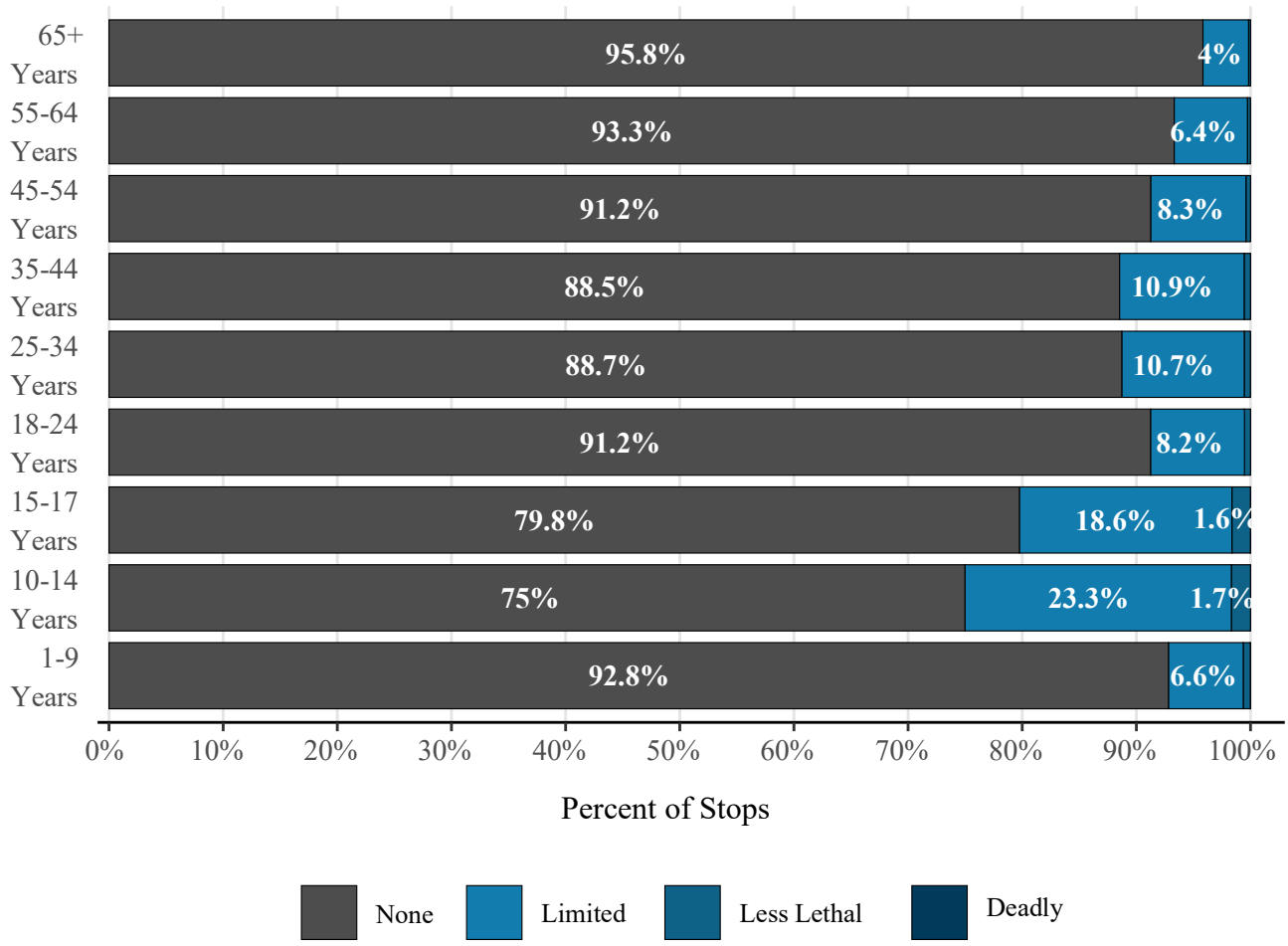
Action vs. No Action

Officers reported taking no action least often in stops involving youth perceived to be 10-14 (45.92%, 6,271 stops) and 15-17 (57.02%, 41,070 stops). Officers took no action most often in stops involving individuals perceived to be 65+ (87.79%, 177,840 stops) and 55-64 years old (82.63%, 345,275 stops).

Use of Force

In 2024, officers reported using limited, less-lethal, and lethal force at higher rates in stops of youth perceived to be 17 years old or younger compared to other age groups. Among all age groups, officers used limited force most often in stops of youth perceived to be 10-14 (23.34%, 3,187 stops) and 15-17 (18.62%, 13,410 stops), and least often in stops of individuals perceived to be 65+ (4.00%, 8,110 stops) and 55-64 (6.42%, 26,839 stops). Officers used less-lethal force most often in stops of youth they perceived as 10-14 (1.68%, 230 stops) and 15-17 (1.62%, 1166 stops), and least often in stops of individuals perceived to be 65+ (0.17%, 341 stops) and 55-64 (0.26%, 1,090 stops). Officers reported few instances of lethal force, but used lethal force most often in stops involving individuals perceived to be 1-9 (0.02%, 1 stop) and 15-17 (0.01%, 5 stops). Officers reported 0 instances of lethal force in stops of individuals they perceived as 10-14 years old.

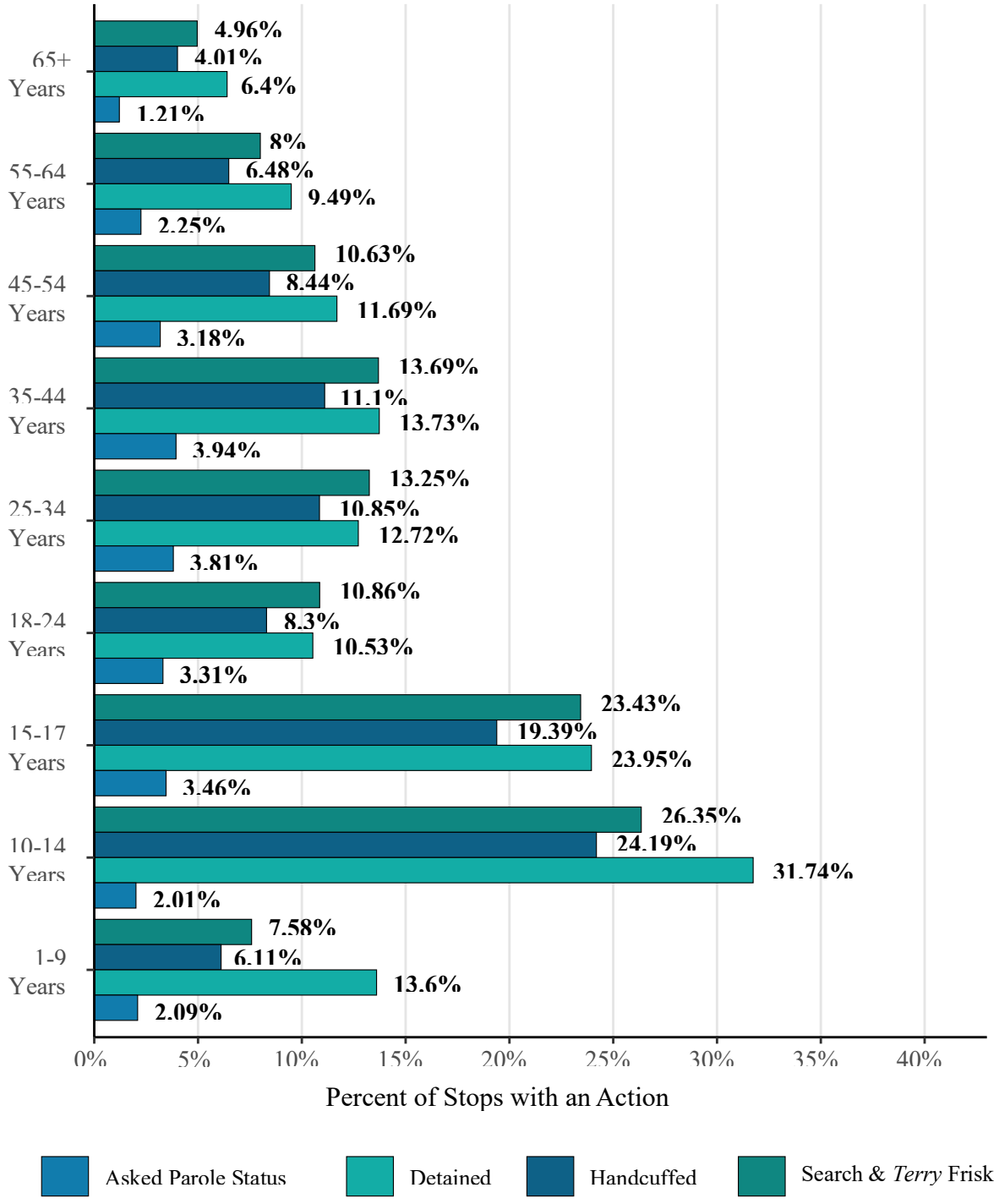
Figure 5. Use of Force by Age



Top 4 Actions During Stop

Officers reported the highest rates of searches and *Terry* frisks, handcuffing, and detainment curbside or in a patrol car in stops of individuals they perceived as 10-14 and 15-17 years old. Additionally, officers asked parole status most often in stops of individuals perceived to be 35-44 (3.94%, 49,147 stops) and 25-34 years old (3.81%, 59,146 stops). Officers reported the lowest rates of searches and frisks and handcuffing in stops of youth they perceived as 1-9 and individuals perceived to be 65+ years old. Officers detained individuals perceived to be 65+ (6.40%, 12,966 stops) and 55-64 years old (9.49%, 39,671 stops) curbside or in a patrol car the most frequently, and individuals perceived to be 65+ (1.21%, 2,445 stops) and youth perceived to be 10-14 (2.01%, 275 stops) least frequently.

Figure 6. Four Actions Taken During Stop by Age Group Top



Average Number of Actions

Officers took the highest average number of actions in stops of youth perceived to be 10-14 years old (1.23 actions, SD= 1.61, range= 1-12 actions) and 15-17 years old (1.12, SD= 1.75, range= 1-15) and the lowest number of actions in stops of individuals perceived to be 65+ years old (0.27, SD= 0.92, range= 1-16) and 55-64 years old (0.43, SD= 1.19, range= 1-14).

iv. Results of Stop

Officers reported taking no action most often in stops of youth perceived to be 1-9 (26.76%, 1,165 stops) and 10-14 (13.14%, 1,794 stops) years old, and least often in stops of individuals perceived to be 65+ (3.60%, 7,301 stops) and 55-64 (4.29%, 17,923 stops). For youth perceived to be 1-9, the most common result of stop reported was warning (32.25%, 1,404 stops), followed by citation (28.21%, 1,228 stops), and then arrest (7.01%, 305 stops). For youth perceived to be 10-14, officers reported warning as the most common result of stop (24.90%, 3,400 stops), followed by arrest (22.35%, 3,053 stops), and then citation (13.74%, 1,877 stops). For individuals perceived to be 15 and older, officers reported citations (47.07%, 2,375,427 stops) as the most common result of stop, followed by warning (34.60%, 1,746,475 stops), and then arrest (625,967 stops).

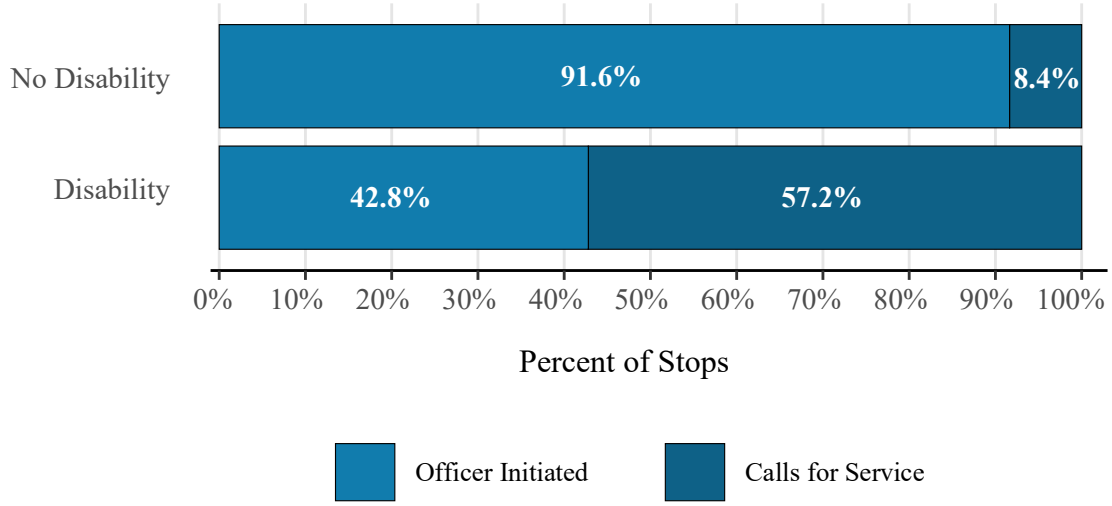
D. Disability Status

Officers reported that they did not perceive stopped individuals to have a disability in 98.96 percent (5,012,777 stops) of all stops in 2024. Of the remaining 1.04 percent of stops (52,651 stops), the most commonly perceived disability was mental health (58.44% of stops with a perceived disability, 30,770 stops), followed by "other" (16.84%, 8,869 stops), speech impairment (7.97%, 4,198), deafness (5.83%, 3,067), multiple disabilities (5.70%, 3,001), developmental (3.59%, 1,892), blindness (1.56%, 820), and hyperactivity (0.06%, 34).

i. Calls for Service

For all demographic groups, with the exception of perceived disability status, the majority of stops in 2024 were reported to be officer-initiated. The majority of stops of individuals with a perceived disability were initiated by a call for service (57.20%, 30,117 stops), while the opposite was true for individuals without a perceived disability (8.36%, 419,208 stops initiated by a call for service).

Figure 7. Calls for Service by Disability Status



ii. Reason for Stop

As with most other demographic groups, officers most commonly reported traffic violations as the reason for stopping individuals perceived as having no disability (84.78%, 4,249,967 stops), followed by reasonable suspicion (10.87%, 544,808 stops), and then other reasons for stops (4.35%, 218,002 stops). For individuals perceived to have a disability, officers reported other reasons as the most common reason for stop (37.20%, 19,588 stops), followed by reasonable suspicion (36.46%, 19,195 stops), and then traffic violations (26.34%, 13,868 stops).

iii. Actions Taken During Stop

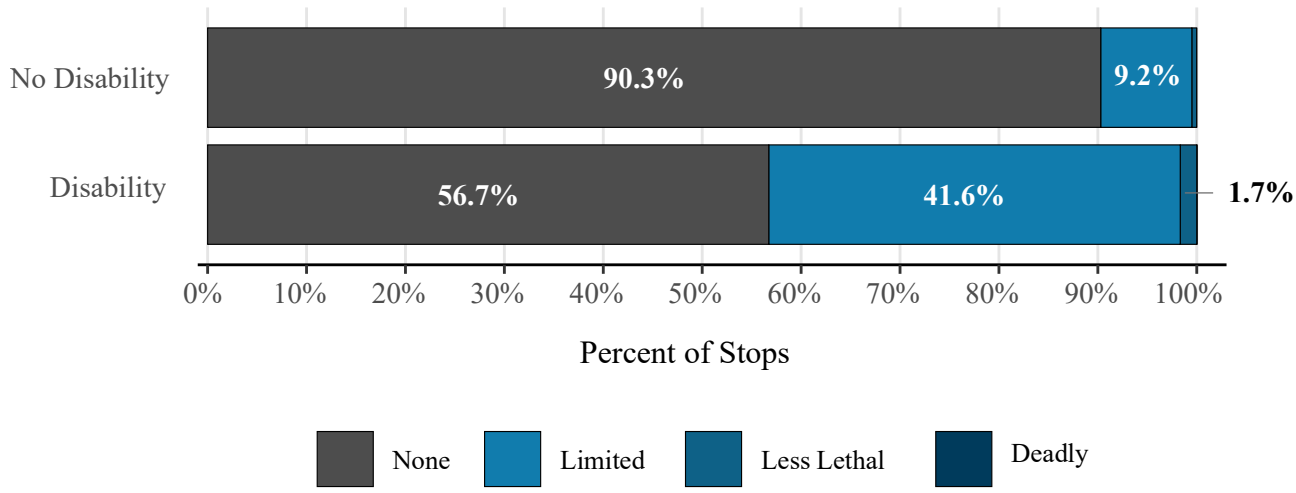
Action vs. No Action

Officers reported taking no action more than twice as often in stops of individuals perceived as having no disability (77.25%, 3,871,537 stops), compared to stops of individuals perceived to have a disability (34.34%, 18,076 stops).

Use of Force

Officers reported higher rates of lethal (0.01%, 3 stops), less-lethal (1.67%, 878 stops), and limited force (41.60%, 21,894 stops) in stops of individuals perceived to have a disability compared to stops of individuals perceived to not have a disability.

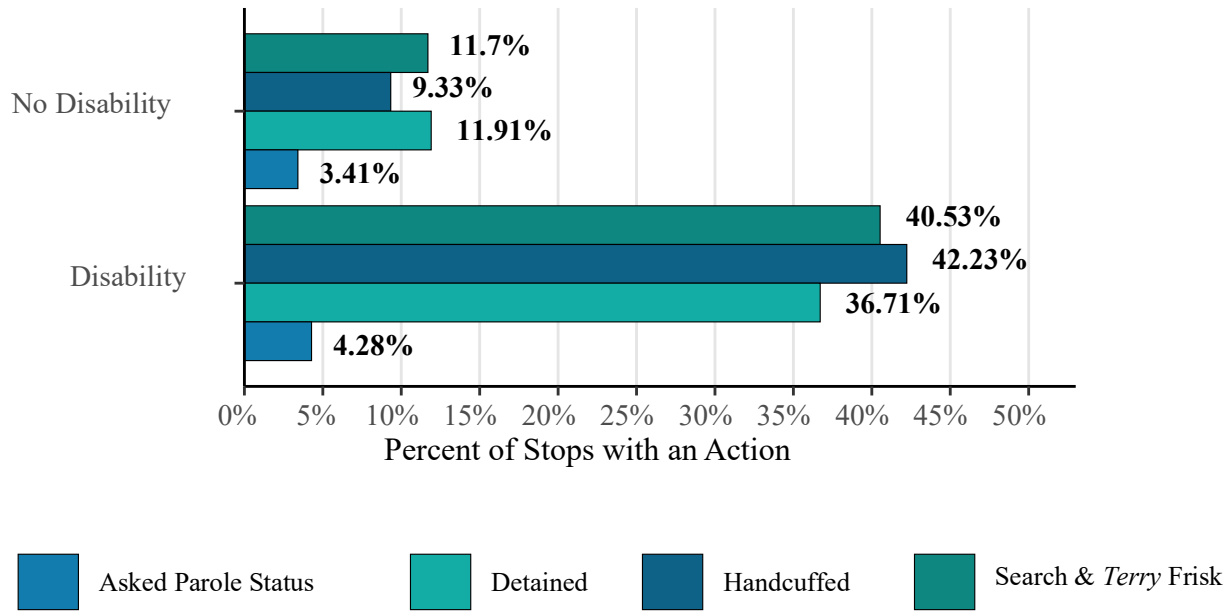
Figure 8. Use of Force by Disability Status



Top 4 Actions During Stop

Officers searched and *Terry* frisked, handcuffed, detained curbside or in a patrol car, and asked about parole status in stops of individuals perceived to have a disability more frequently compared to stops of individuals perceived to not have a disability.

Figure 9. Top Four Actions Taken During a Stop by Disability Status



Average Number of Actions

Officers reported taking almost three times as many actions during stops of individuals perceived to have a disability (1.77 actions, SD= 1.84, range= 1-16 actions) compared to stops of individuals perceived to not have a disability (0.61, SD= 1.45, range= 1-18).

iv. Results of Stop

Officers reported taking no action in stops of individuals perceived to have a disability at higher rates (8.82%, 4,645 stops) than individuals perceived to have no disability (5.69%, 285,090 stops). Among stops of individuals perceived to have a disability, officers reported arrest as the most common result of stop (29.03%, 15,284 stops), followed by warning (18.99%, 9,999 stops), and citation (12.21%, 6,430 stops). Among stops of individuals perceived to not have a disability, officers reported citation as the most common result of stop (47.32%, 2,372,102 stops), followed by warning (34.74%, 1,741,280 stops), and arrest (12.25%, 614,041 stops).

E. English Fluency

In 2024, officers reported that they perceived the stopped individual to have English fluency in 93.26 percent (4,723,857) of all stops. In the remaining 6.74 percent (341,571) of stops, the officer perceived the individual as having limited or no English fluency.

i. Calls for Service

Officer-initiated stops were far more common than calls for service for both individuals perceived as having English fluency and individuals perceived to have limited/no English fluency. Although individuals perceived to be fluent in English had a lower rate of stops initiated by a call for service (8.81%, 416,038 stops) than those perceived to have limited/no English fluency (9.75%, 33,287 stops), that difference was less than one percentage point.

ii. Reason for Stop

For both individuals perceived to be fluent in English and those perceived to have limited/no English fluency, traffic violation was the most common reason for stop, followed by reasonable suspicion, and then other reasons. There were negligible differences between these two groups' reason for stop rates.

iii. Actions Taken During Stop

Action vs. No Action

Officers reported taking no action at similar rates during stops of both individuals perceived to be fluent in English (77.04%, 3,638,573 stops) and those perceived to have limited/no English fluency (73.51%, 251,040 stops).

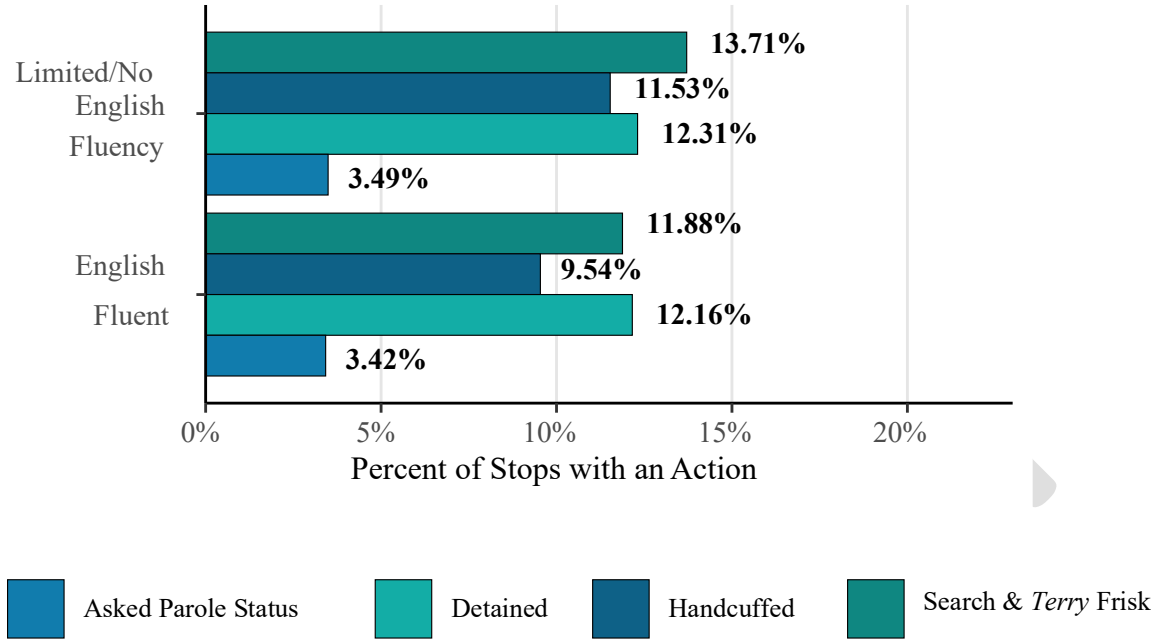
Use of Force

Officers reported using less-lethal and limited force more frequently in stops of individuals they perceived to have limited/no English fluency (0.51%, 1,747 stops, 11.44%, 39,051 stops) compared to stops of individuals they perceived to be fluent in English (0.50%, 23,637, 9.41%, 444,589 stops). However, they used lethal force at a higher rate in stops of individuals fluent in English (0.00%, 114 stops) compared to stops of individuals with limited/no English fluency (0.00%, 8 stops).

Top 4 Actions During Stop

Officers reported higher rates of searches and *Terry* frisks, handcuffing, detainment curbside or in a patrol car, and asks about parole status in stops of individuals perceived to have limited/no English fluency compared to stops of individuals perceived to be fluent in English.

Figure 10. Top Four Actions During a Stop by English Fluency



Average Number of Actions

Officers reported taking more actions during stops of individuals perceived to have limited/no English fluency (0.74 actions, SD= 1.59, range= 1-15 actions) in 2024, compared to stops of individuals perceived to be fluent in English (0.62, SD= 1.45, range= 1-18).

iv. Results of Stop

Officers reported taking no action as a result of stops at a slightly higher rate for individuals perceived to be fluent in English (5.79%, 273,425) compared to those perceived to have limited/no English fluency (4.78%, 16,310). For both groups, citation was the most common result of stop, followed by warning, and then arrest.

F. LGB+ Identity

Of all stops in 2024, 53,359 (1.05%) involved persons perceived by the reporting officer as lesbian, gay, bisexual, and all other sexual orientations other than heterosexual (LGB+).[16]

[16] Starting in this year of RIPA data collection (2024), "LGBT" was changed to "LGB". This change was a part of legislation that mandated changes to RIPA regulations. See more information here: Underlying Stop Data

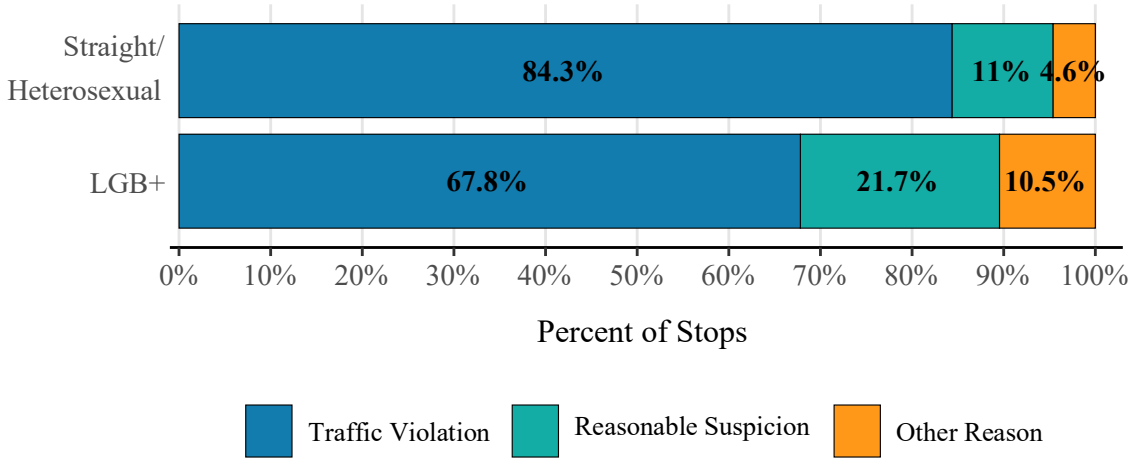
i. Calls for Service

Overall, across all perceived sexual orientation groups, officer-initiated stops were far more common than calls for service. However, there was a significant disparity in rates between those perceived to be LGB+ and those perceived to be straight/heterosexual. Officers reported 20.74 percent (11,064 stops) of stops involving individuals perceived to be LGB+ were initiated due to a call for service compared to 8.74 percent (438,261 stops) of stops of individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual.

ii. Reason for Stop

For both individuals perceived to be LGB+ and those perceived to be straight/heterosexual, traffic violation was the most common reason for stop, followed by reasonable suspicion, and then other reasons. However, officers reported stopping individuals they perceived to be LGB+ for reasonable suspicion (21.73%, 11,593 stops) almost twice as often as they stopped individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual (11.02%, 552,410 stops).

Figure 11. Reasons for Stop by Sexual Orientation



Regulations, California Racial and Identity Profiling Act of 2015 (AB 953) | State of California - Department of Justice - Office of the Attorney General

iii. Actions Taken During Stop

Action vs. No Action

Officers reported taking no action more often during stops of individuals they perceived to be straight/heterosexual (76.97%, 3,856,824 stops), compared to stops of individuals perceived to be LGB+ (61.46%, 32,789 stops).

Use of Force

Officers used lethal (0.01%, 6 stops), less-lethal (0.72%, 386 stops), and limited force (17.58%, 9,378 stops) more often in stops of individuals perceived to be LGB+ compared to stops of individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual.

Top 4 Actions During Stop

Officers reported higher rates of searches and *Terry* frisks (19.55%, 10,429 stops), handcuffing (17.63%, 9,404 stops), detainment curbside or in a patrol car (20.98%, 11,193 stops), and parole status inquiries (4.92%, 2,624 stops) in stops of individuals perceived to be LGB+ compared to stops of individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual.

Average Number of Actions

Officers took more actions during stops of individuals perceived to be LGB+ (1.04 actions, SD= 1.75, range= 1-18 actions) compared to stops of individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual (0.62, SD= 1.45, range= 1-17).

iv. Results of Stop

Officers reported taking no action as a result of stops at almost twice the rate for individuals perceived to be LGB+ (10.16%, 5,422 stops) compared to individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual (5.67%, 284,313 stops). For stops involving individuals perceived to be LGB+, officers reported warnings as the most common result of stop (31.98%, 17,064 stops), followed closely by citation (31.60%, 16,861 stops), and then arrest (23.28%, 12,424 stops). Additionally, officers arrested individuals perceived to be LGB+ at almost twice the rate as individuals they perceived to be straight/heterosexual. For stops involving individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual, officers reported citations as the most common result of stop (47.12%, 2,361,671), followed by warnings (34.60%, 1,734,215 stops), and then arrests (12.31%, 616,901 stops).

Figure 12. Result of Stop: No Action Taken vs Action Taken During a Stop by Sexual Orientation

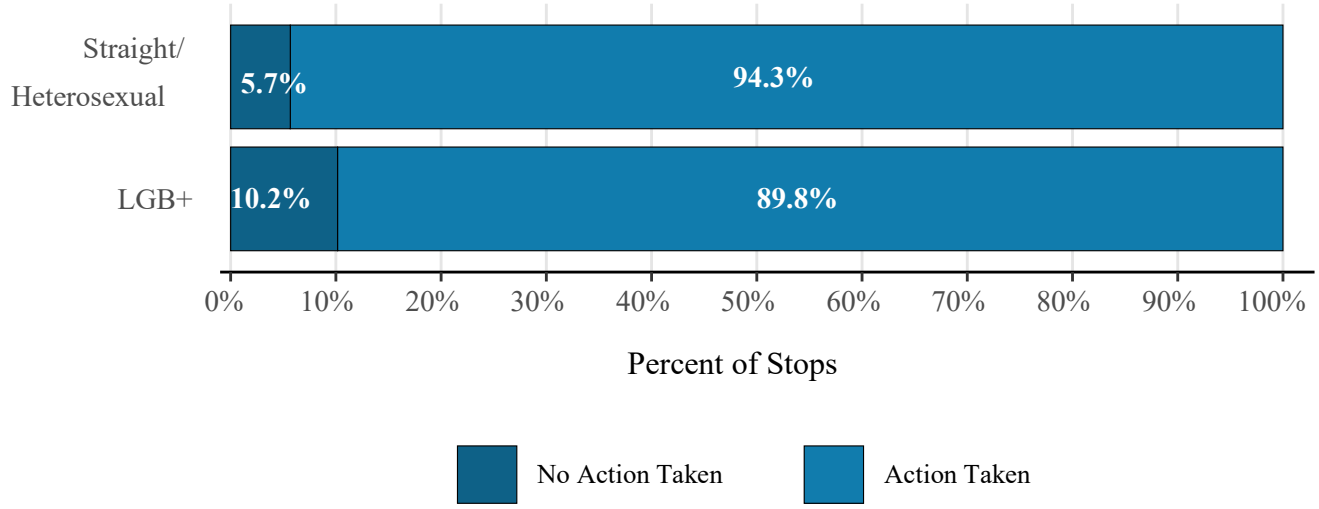
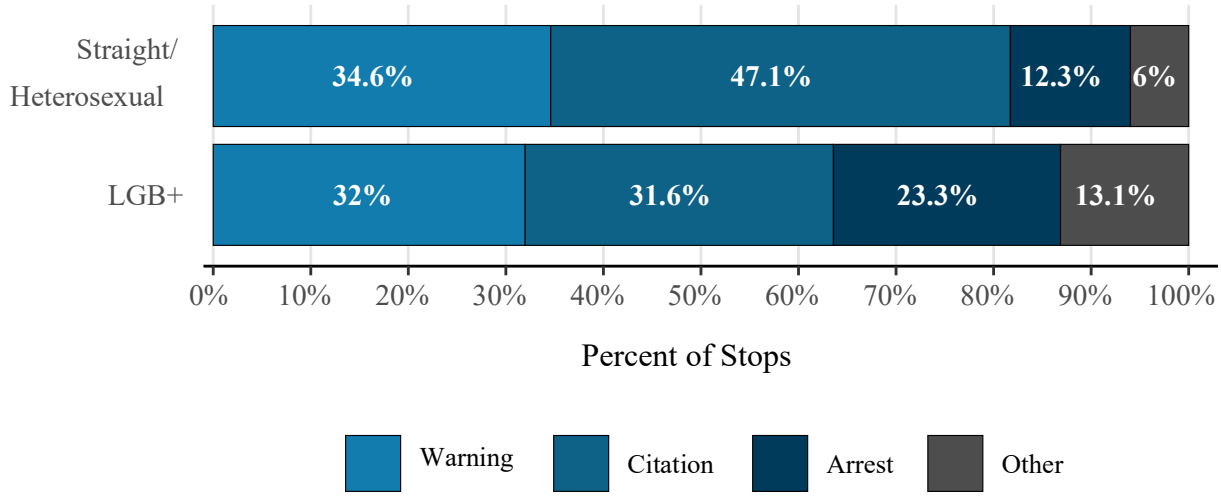


Figure 13. Most Frequent Results of Stop by Sexual Orientation



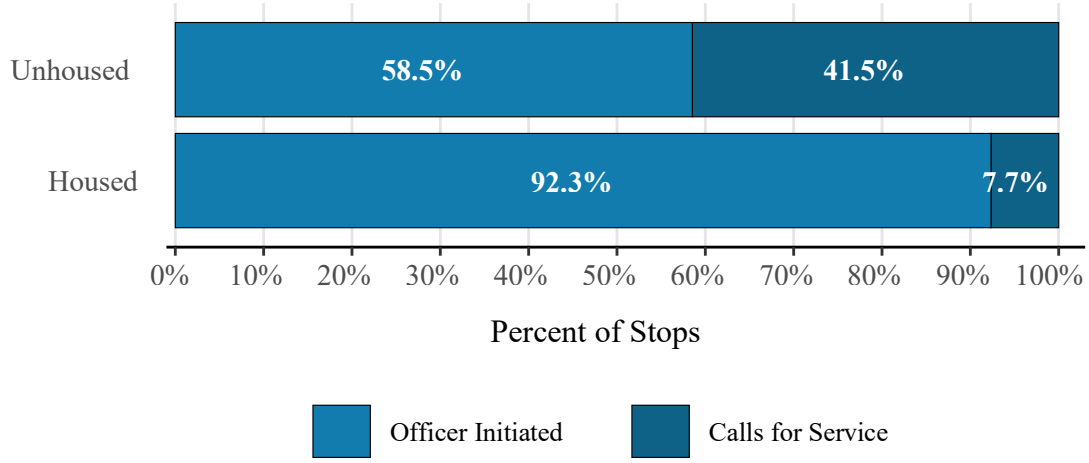
G. Housing Status

As of January 1, 2024, officers are required to report the perceived housing status of persons they stop. In 2024, officers reported that they perceived 3.58 percent (181,407) of the individuals they stopped to be unhoused.

i. Calls for Service

For both individuals perceived to be unhoused and individuals perceived to be housed, officer-initiated stops were far more common than calls for service. Still, individuals perceived to be unhoused had stops initiated by a call for service far more frequently (41.47%, 75,238 stops) than individuals perceived to be housed (7.66%, 374,087 stops).

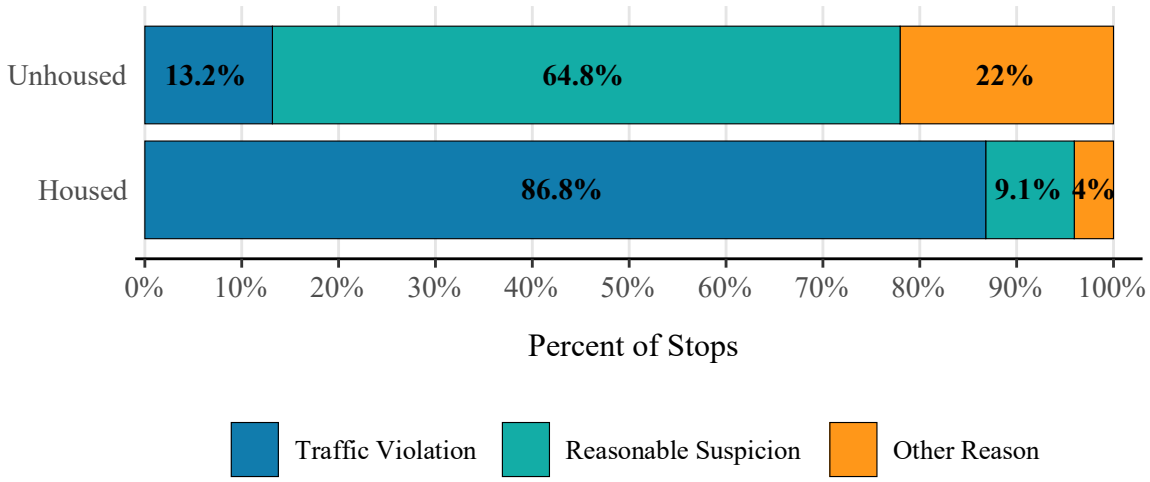
Figure 14. Calls for Service by Housing Status



ii. Reason for Stop

Across all demographic groups, officers reported the highest rates of stops on the basis of reasonable suspicion for individuals perceived to be unhoused (64.80%, 117,550 stops). Officers reported stopping individuals perceived to be housed for reasonable suspicion about seven times less than unhoused individuals (9.14%, 446,453 stops).

Figure 15. Reasons for Stop by Housing Status



iii. Actions Taken During Stop

Action vs. No Action

Officers reported taking no action during stops more than three times as often in stops of individuals perceived to be housed (78.76%, 3,845,774 stops), compared to stops of individuals perceived to be unhoused (24.17%, 43,839 stops).

Use of Force

Officers used lethal (<0.01%, 7 stops), less-lethal (1.40%, 2,535 stops), and limited force (37.28%, 67,595 stops) more frequently in stops of individuals perceived to be unhoused compared to stops of individuals perceived to be housed.

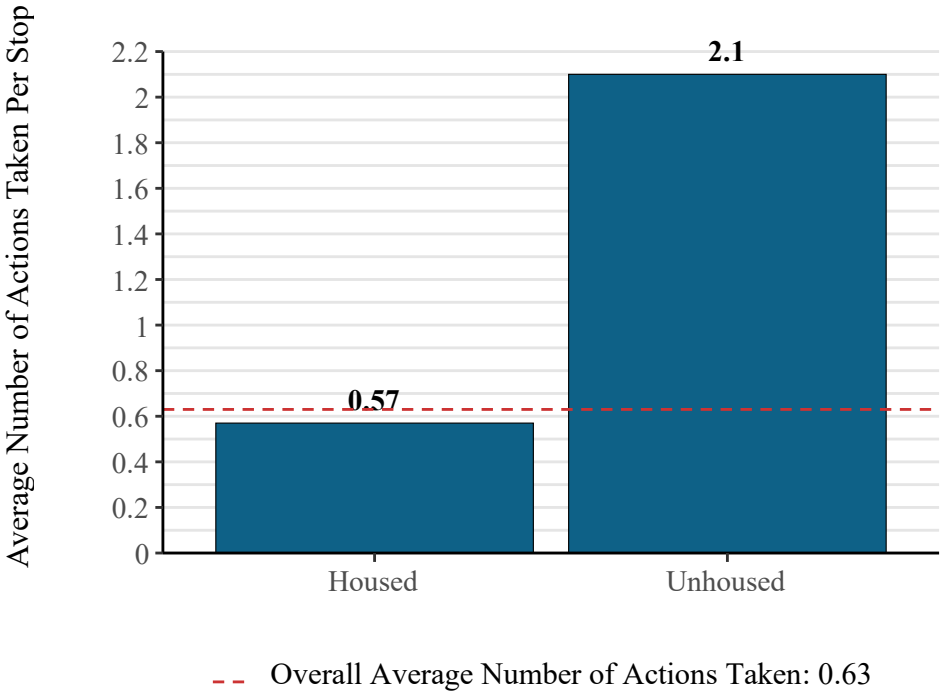
Top 4 Actions During Stop

Officers reported higher rates of searches and *Terry* frisks, handcuffing, detainment curbside or in a patrol car, and asks about parole status in stops of individuals perceived to be unhoused compared to stops of individuals perceived to be housed.

Average Number of Actions

Officers took almost four times as many actions during stops of individuals perceived to be unhoused (2.10 actions, SD= 1.94, range= 1-15 actions) compared to stops of individuals perceived to be housed (0.57, SD= 1.41, range= 1-18).

Figure 16. Average Number of Actions Taken During a Stop by Housing Status



iv. Results of Stop

Officers reported taking no action in stops almost twice as often for individuals perceived to be unhoused (10.62%, 19,260 stops) compared to individuals perceived to be housed (5.54%, 270,475 stops). Additionally, compared to every demographic group presented in this chapter, officers reported the highest arrest rates for individuals they perceived to be unhoused. Officers arrested almost half of all stopped individuals they perceived to be unhoused (47.32%, 85,844 stops). Alternatively, officers gave citations to almost the same proportion of individuals they perceive as housed (48.43%, 2,365,262 stops).

Figure 17. Result of Stop: No Actions Taken vs Action Taken During Stop by Housing Status

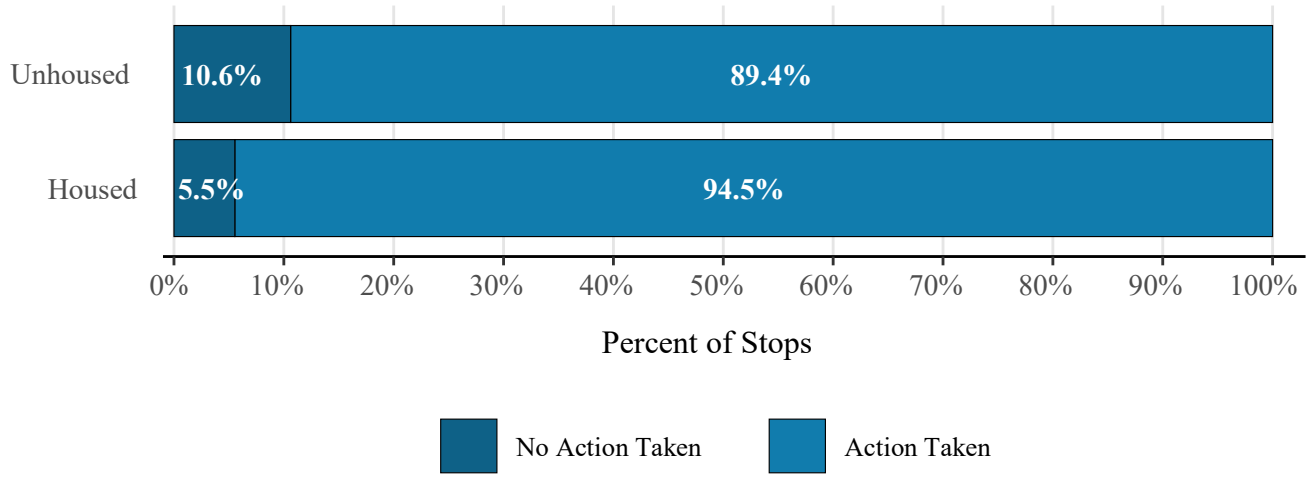
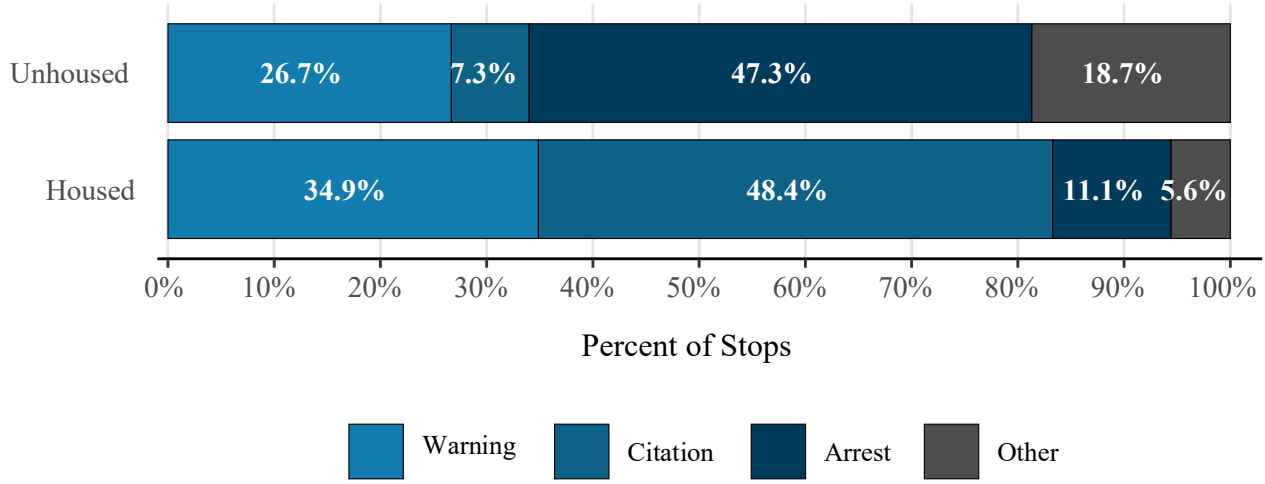


Figure 18. Most Frequent Results of Stop by Housing Status



III. Additional Stop Data Analyses

A. Mode of Travel Analysis

Beginning in 2024, a new data element was added for "Type of Stop," requiring officers to categorize a stop as a "Vehicle Stop," a "Bicycle Stop," or a "Pedestrian Stop."[17] Previously, it was not always possible to determine in the RIPA data whether a stop involved a vehicle, bicycle, or pedestrian.

For this element, a "Vehicle Stop" is defined as "any interaction that involves stopping an individual in a vehicle."[18] A "Bicycle Stop" is defined as "any interaction that involves stopping an individual on a bicycle."[19] Any other stop constitutes a "Pedestrian Stop," including stopping passengers on a bus, a train, or a skateboard.[20] Any analysis of pedestrian stops should consider that transit riders — who may be subject to fare inspection, or stopped on suspicion of fare evasion or other activity prohibited on a public transportation system — are considered to be pedestrians for the purposes of RIPA reporting.[21]

This new data element is of particular interest in determining if there is a difference in stops depending on the mode of transportation and race of the person stopped. For example, in 2021, a Los Angeles Times investigation found that Los Angeles County Sheriff's deputies disproportionately used minor traffic infractions to stops to initiate searches of bicyclists, particularly of Latinos.[22] The investigation found that 85 percent of bicyclists stopped were searched, four times more often than other stops, despite a lower instance of citations or arrests.[23] The investigation raised concerns that these were pretext stops, that bicyclists were being treated systematically different than motorists or pedestrians, and that Latino bicyclists were disproportionately stopped by the practice.[24]

Transportation usage in California varies by race and ethnicity. For example, the American Community Survey provides an estimate for the primary method of transportation for working

---

[17] Cal. Code Regs. tit. 11, § 999.226, subd. (a)(2).

[18] Cal. Code Regs., tit. 11, Section § 999.226, subd. (a)(2). A vehicle is further defined in the code as "motor vehicles as defined in Vehicle Code section 670; motorcycles, mopeds, and motorized scooters as defined in Vehicle Code sections 400, 406, and 407.5, respectively; and any motorized vehicles, including boats." (Cal. Code Regs., tit. 11, Section § 999.224, subd. (a)(24).)

[19] Cal. Code Regs., tit. 11, Section § 999.226, subd. (a)(2).

[20] Cal. Code Regs., tit. 11 § 999.226, subd. (a)(2).

[21] See Cal. Pen. Code, § 640.

[22] Tchekmedyian et al., *L.A. sheriff's deputies use minor stops to search bicyclists, with Latinos hit hardest*, LA Times (Nov. 4, 2021) <https://tinyurl.com/y9cmv4u4> [as of XX, 2025].

[23] Tchekmedyian et al., *L.A. sheriff's deputies use minor stops to search bicyclists, with Latinos hit hardest*, LA Times (Nov. 4, 2021) <https://tinyurl.com/y9cmv4u4> [as of XX, 2025].

[24] Tchekmedyian et al., *L.A. sheriff's deputies use minor stops to search bicyclists, with Latinos hit hardest*, LA Times (Nov. 4, 2021) <https://tinyurl.com/y9cmv4u4> [as of XX, 2025].

adults in California in 2023.[25] Excluding persons who work from home, the survey estimates that the group of Californians most likely to commute to work via car, truck, or van were Hispanic or Latino persons (91.54%) and persons identifying as two or more races (91.80%), while Black alone (87.05%) or Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islanders (87.57%) persons are least likely to commute via car, truck, or van.[26] Black (6.57%) and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (6.12%) Californians were most likely to use public transportation to travel to work, whereas White non-Hispanic (2.65%) and persons identifying as two or more races (3.01%) were least likely to use public transportation for their work commute.[27] White non-Hispanic (3.64%) and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (3.61%) Californians were most likely to walk to work, whereas Hispanic or Latino persons (2.40%) and persons identifying as two or more races (2.65%) were least likely to walk to work.[28] Bicycle use could not exceed 3.24 percent for any one group, but was not reported separately from motorcycles and taxicabs.[29]

The RIPA Board previously analyzed stops connected to a mode of transportation.[30] Because of data limitations, the analysis was limited to bicycle-related violations, not bicycle stops generally, and to pedestrian roadway violations, not pedestrian stops generally.[31] That analysis found an intersection between race and mode of transportation demonstrated by racially disproportionate actions taken during a stop.[32]

---

[25] American Community Survey, https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.html.
[26] American Community Survey, https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.html.
[27] American Community Survey, https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.html.
[28] American Community Survey, https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.html.
[29] The American Community Survey combines bicycles with motorcycles and taxicabs in reporting 2023 commuting data by race and geography. Additionally, the data product used in this report includes Hispanic or Latino persons in the racial or ethnic categories described in the paragraph, other than White non-Hispanic. The technical race and ethnic category definitions in the American Community Survey vary from those used in RIPA, so the terminology of the American Community Survey is used. For further information, please see the American Community Survey, https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs.html.
[30] Racial and Identity Profiling Advisory Board, *Annual Report* (2023) pp. 74-78 <https://oag.ca.gov/system/files/media/ripa-board-report-2023.pdf> [as of XX, 2025].
[31] Racial and Identity Profiling Advisory Board, *Annual Report* (2023) p. 12 <https://oag.ca.gov/system/files/media/ripa-board-report-2023.pdf> [as of XX, 2025]. Bicyclists are generally required to obey the California Vehicle Code rules for vehicles, Cal. Veh. Code, § 21200, so a common code violation may be either a bicycle or automobile stop. For example, running a stop sign by any vehicle is prohibited by California Vehicle Code section 22450. Bicyclists are also subject to their own set of possible moving violations and equipment requirements under the Vehicle Code, as well as varying local ordinances. For instance, during darkness a bicycle is required to have a white illuminated front lamp and a rear red reflector or light, as well as a reflector on each ankle, foot, or pedal, and a reflector on each wheel. Cal. Veh. Code, § 21201, subd. (d). A further summary of common vehicle code violations for bicyclists can be found at POST, *Learning Domain 28: Traffic Enforcement - Chapter 3: Common Vehicle Code Violations*, pp. 3-20 –26 <https://tinyurl.com/3u86ndt2> [as of XX, 2025].
[32] Racial and Identity Profiling Advisory Board, *Annual Report* (2023) pp. 74-78 <https://oag.ca.gov/system/files/media/ripa-board-report-2023.pdf> [as of XX, 2025].

The 2024 data show that vehicle stops were the most common type of stop across all races and ethnicities, followed by pedestrian stops, and then bicycle stops. Officers reported the highest rates of vehicle stops for individuals perceived as Middle Eastern/South Asian (95.08%, 261,580 stops) and Asian (93.05%, 276,735 stops) and the lowest rates of vehicle stops for individuals perceived as Native American (75.79%, 10,070 stops) and Black (77.63%, 475,444 stops). Officers reported the highest rates of pedestrian stops for individuals perceived as Native American (22.96%, 3,050 stops) and Black (21.56%, 132,020 stops) and lowest rates for individuals perceived as Middle Eastern/South Asian (4.47%, 12,285 stops) and Asian (6.2%, 18,428 stops). Officers reported the highest rates of bicycle stops for individuals perceived as Native American (1.25%, 166 stops) and White (1.23%, 19,507 stops) and the lowest rates of bicycle stops for individuals perceived as Middle Eastern/South Asian (0.45%, 1,241 stops) and Pacific Islander (0.74%, 197 stops).

Figure X. Type of Stop by Race

Race/Ethnicity	Bicycle		Pedestrian		Vehicle	
	Count	**%**	**Count**	**%**	**Count**	**%**
Asian	2,232	0.75%	18,428	6.2%	276,735	93.05%
Black	4,979	0.81%	132,020	21.56%	475,444	77.63%
Hispanic/Latine(x)	25,220	1.15%	282,793	12.89%	1,885,604	85.96%
Middle Eastern/ South Asian	1,241	0.45%	12,285	4.47%	261,580	95.08%
Multiracial	684	1.09%	9,204	14.73%	52,591	84.17%
Native American	166	1.25%	3,050	22.96%	10,070	75.79%
Pacific Islander	197	0.74%	3,330	12.45%	23,221	86.81%
White	19,507	1.23%	244,527	15.43%	1,320,320	83.33%
All	**54,226**	**1.07%**	**705,637**	**13.93%**	**4,305,565**	**85%**

At a statewide level, across all races and ethnicities, officers reported the highest search and frisk rate for pedestrian stops, followed by bicycle stops, and then vehicle stops. Across each type of stop, officers reported the lowest search and frisk rates for individuals perceived to be Middle

Eastern/South Asian and Asian except for pedestrian stops, where individuals perceived to be White (42.39%, 103,646 stops) and Asian (42.00%, 7,733 stops) have the lowest search and frisk rates. Officers reported the highest search and frisk rates in pedestrian stops for individuals perceived as Native American (50.95%, 1,554 stops) and Hispanic/Latine(x) (48.07%, 135,941 stops). Officers reported the highest search and frisk rates in vehicle stops for individuals perceived as Black (10.93%, 51,941 stops) and Native American (9.39%, 946 stops). Officers reported the highest search and frisk rates in bicycle stops for individuals perceived as Hispanic/Latine(x) (41.32%, 10,419 stops) and Pacific Islander (38.07%, 75 stops).

The highest discovery rates across all races and ethnicities were in bicycle stops, followed by pedestrian stops for every race/ethnicity, except individuals perceived to be Native American and White. Officers reported the highest discovery rates in pedestrian stops of individuals perceived to be Multiracial (29.06%, 1,251 stops) and White (28.23%, 29,259 stops), and the lowest rates in stops of individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (22.38%, 1,177 stops) and Asian (23.57%, 1,823 stops). Officers reported the highest discovery rates in vehicle stops of individuals perceived to be White (28.83%, 17,210 stops) and Multiracial (27.73%, 885 stops), and the lowest rates in stops of individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (18.91%, 864 stops) and Hispanic/Latine(x) (21.77%, 30,419 stops). Officers reported the highest discovery rates in bicycle stops of individuals perceived to be Pacific Islander (42.67%, 32 stops) and Multiracial (40.49%, 100 stops), and the lowest rates in stops of individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (31.43%, 33 stops) and Asian (32.79%, 80 stops).

Figure X. Search, Frisk, and Discovery Rates by Types of Stop and Race

Race/Ethnicity	Bicycle		Pedestrian		Vehicle	
	Search & *Terry* Frisk Rate	**Discovery Rate**	**Search & *Terry* Frisk Rate**	**Discovery Rate**	**Search & *Terry* Frisk Rate**	**Discovery Rate**
Asian	10.93%	32.79%	42.00%	23.57%	2.02%	21.88%
Black	36.47%	35.85%	47.63%	27.51%	10.93%	25.79%
Hispanic/Latine (x)	41.32%	33.52%	48.07%	26.83%	7.41%	21.77%
Middle Eastern/ South Asian	8.46%	31.43%	42.80%	22.38%	1.75%	18.91%
Multiracial	36.11%	40.49%	46.83%	29.06%	6.07%	27.73%
Native American	27.71%	36.96%	50.95%	23.68%	9.39%	26.43%
Pacific Islander	38.07%	42.67%	46.1%	26.12%	5.21%	25.48%
White	26.09%	35.88%	42.39%	28.23%	4.52%	28.83%
All	**33.27%**	**34.54%**	**45.75%**	**27.27%**	**6.20%**	**24.19%**

B. Consent Searches and Type of Consent Data Element

A consent search is when an officer approaches a person and asks if they may search their person, car, or even residence. Officers are permitted to use their own discretion, which is rooted in the officer's personal and professional experience, and do not need to suspect any criminal wrongdoing in order to request consent to search.[33] Consent searches, by their nature, are vulnerable to bias. Examining consent searches and discovery rates, then, especially in comparison to non-discretionary searches, could lead to important insights in bias in policing. Consent searches, in this analysis, occur when an officer's sole basis for search is the consent of the individual they have stopped. This serves as a proxy for an instance where an officer used more discretion. On the other hand, a non-discretionary search is classified as such when the basis for search was either incident to arrest, vehicle inventory, or search warrant. That is, an

[33] *See Florida v. Royer* (1983) 460 U.S. 491; *see also Schneckloth v. Bustamonte* (1973) 412 U.S. 218.

officer was required to search the person or property due to, for instance, an individual being arrested.

Overall, searches where consent was the only basis for search accounted for 12.87 percent (66,808 stops) of all searches in 2024.[34] Searches with a non-discretionary basis for search accounted for 65.98 percent (262,532 stops) of all searches. Non-discretionary searches (51.21%, 69,316 stops) yielded much higher evidence discovery than consent-only searches (20.30%, 13,559 stops). These trends are mirrored in every demographic group described below: consent searches happened at lower rates than non-discretionary searches, and non-discretionary searches yielded much higher evidence discovery than consent only searches.

Additionally, and new to this year's dataset, across the entire dataset for the 121,082 stops with a search type provided, officers received verbal consent in 97.63 percent of stops (118,284), implied consent in 1.65 percent of stops (1,999), and written consent in 0.72 percent of stops (877). Across all demographic groups, verbal consent was by far the most common type of consent, with over 95 percent for every demographic group. However, the slight variation in consent type proportions may provide insight into stop characteristics for certain demographic groups.

Race and Ethnicity

Officers reported the highest percentage of consent-only searches in searches of individuals perceived as Hispanic/Latine(x) (15.12% of searches, 36,045 stops) and Asian (13.85%, 1,670 stops) and the lowest rates in stops of individuals they perceive as Native American (7.39%, 175 stops) and Black (9.39%, 9,042 stops). Additionally, officers reported the highest rates of non-discretionary searches in searches of individuals perceived as Middle Eastern/South Asian and Asian and the lowest rates in searches of individuals perceived as Black (58.36%, 45,008 stops) and Multiracial (63.88%, 3,234 stops).

Discovery rates for non-discretionary searches were much higher than discovery rates for consent searches across all races and ethnicities. In consent searches, officers reported the highest discovery rates in stops of individuals perceived to be Pacific Islander (25.26%, 74 stops) and White (24.16%, 4,300 stops) and lowest in stops of individuals perceived to be Black (16.59%, 1,500 stops) and Native American (18.29%, 32 stops). In non-discretionary searches, officers reported the highest discovery rates in stops of individuals perceived to be Native American (75.53%, 358 stops) and Pacific Islander (68.35%, 378 stops) and the lowest rates in

[34] In this section, the denominator is not all stops, as it is in most other analyses in this report, but all *searches.* Also, as of the 2024 RIPA data collection, officers are not required to record a basis for search in *Terry* frisks, so this analysis only analyzes stops in which a search of person or property occurred.

stops of individuals perceived to be Black (41.91%, 13,460 stops) and Hispanic/Latine(x) (51.87%, 29,461 stops).

Officers reported receiving implied consent most often from individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (2.27%, 42 stops) and Multiracial (2.11%, 36 stops) and written consent the most often from individuals perceived to be Middle Eastern/South Asian (1.30%, 24 stops) and Asian (1.26%, 37 stops).

Gender

Officers reported the highest percentage of consent searches in searches of individuals perceived as cisgender male (13.34%, 55,888 stops) and nonbinary (11.69%, 490 stops), and the lowest in searches of individuals perceived to be transgender women/girls (8.75%, 110 stops) and transgender men/boys (10.87%, 244 stops). Officers reported the highest rate of non-discretionary searches in searches of individuals perceived to be cisgender females (73.03%, 54,156 stops) and transgender women/girls (and the lowest rates in searches of individuals perceived to be nonbinary (60.00%, 1,833 stops) and cisgender males (64.36%, 204,596 stops).

Officers discovered evidence/contraband much more frequently in non-discretionary searches compared to consent searches across all genders. In consent searches, the highest discovery rates were in searches of individuals perceived to be transgender women/girls (24.55%, 27 stops) and cisgender females (23.79%, 2,397 stops) and the lowest in searches of individuals perceived to be cisgender males (19.66%, 10,988 stops) and nonbinary (20.00%, 98 stops). In non-discretionary searches, the highest discovery rates were in searches of individuals perceived to be transgender women/girls (65.23%, 197 stops) and cisgender females (61.10%, 12,219 stops) and the lowest were in searches of individuals perceived to be nonbinary (42.06%, 514 stops) and cisgender males (49.48%, 56,053 stops).

Among gender groups, officers received implied consent the most often from individuals perceived to be nonbinary (4.22%, 48 stops) and transgender women/girls (3.18%, 7 stops) and written consent the most often from individuals perceived to be transgender men/boys (1.47%, 7 stops) and cisgender females (0.90%, 164 stops).

Age

Officers reported the highest percentage of consent searches for individuals perceived as 45-54 (13.94%, 10,323 stops) and youth perceived to be 1-9 (13.68%, 39 stops) and the lowest for youth perceived to be 10-14 (8.98%, 238 stops) and individuals perceived to be 65+ (10.10%, 909 stops). Officers reported the highest rate of non-discretionary searches in searches of individuals perceived to be age 65+ (77.66%, 5,684 stops) and 55-64 years old (72.91%, 16,973 stops) and the lowest rates in searches of youth perceived to be 15-17 (55.44%, 5,266 stops) and 10-14 (56.90%, 1,237 stops).

Discovery rates for non-discretionary searches are much higher than discovery rates for consent searches across all perceived age ranges. In consent searches, the highest discovery rates were in searches of individuals perceived to be 45-54 (23.68%, 2,444 stops) and youth perceived to be 1-9 (23.08%, 9 stops) and the lowest in searches of youth perceived to be 18-24 (13.20%, 1,133 stops) and 15-17 (15.50%, 204 stops). In non-discretionary searches, the highest discovery rates were in searches of individuals perceived to be 65+ (70.28%, 1,149 stops) and 55-64 years old (67.60%, 4,262 stops). The lowest discovery rates were in searches of youth perceived to be 10-14 (34.47%, 323 stops) and 18-24 (35.18%, 6,948 stops).

Officers received verbal consent least often from youth perceived to be 1-9 (93.33%, 56 stops) and 10-14 years old (95.16%, 452 stops). Rates of implied consent were highest for youth perceived to be 1-9 years old (5.00%, 3 stops) and individuals perceived to be 65+ (2.79%, 47 stops). Additionally, rates of written consent were highest for youth perceived to be 10-14 (2.32%, 11 stops) and 1-9 years old (1.67%, 1 stop).

Disability

Officers discovered evidence/contraband much more frequently in non-discretionary searches compared to consent searches across both categories. Officers reported higher rates of both consent searches and non-discretionary searches in searches of individuals perceived to not have a disability compared to individuals with a disability. Likewise, discovery rates for both types of searches are higher in searches of individuals not perceived to have a disability, compared to those perceived to have a disability.

Officers reported more than twice the rate of implied consent for individuals perceived to have a disability (4.24%, 121 stops) compared to individuals perceived to have no disability (1.59%, 1,878 stops). Officers reported relatively similar rates for written consent.

English Fluency

Discovery rates for non-discretionary searches were much higher than discovery rates for consent searches across both categories of perceived English fluency. Officers reported higher rates of both consent searches and non-discretionary searches in searches of individuals perceived to have limited/no English fluency compared to individuals perceived to be fluent in English. In consent only searches, discovery rates were higher in searches of individuals perceived to be fluent in English (20.38%, 12,478 stops). The opposite was true in non-discretionary searches; the highest discovery rates across both categories were in non-discretionary searches of individuals with limited/no English fluency.

Officers reported higher rates of implied and written consent for individuals perceived to have limited/no English fluency (2.12%, 204 stops with implied consent and 1.3%, 125 stops with written consent) compared to individuals perceived to be fluent in English (1.61%, 1,795 stops with implied consent and 0.67%, 752 stops with written consent).

LGB+

Discovery rates for non-discretionary searches were much higher than discovery rates for consent-only searches across both categories. Officers performed consent searches more frequently in searches of individuals perceived as straight/heterosexual (12.91%, 65,824 stops) and non-discretionary searches less frequently in searches of individuals perceived as straight/heterosexual (65.86%, 257,280 stops) compared to individuals perceived as LGB+.

Discovery rates for each type of search were higher in searches of individuals perceived to be LGB+ compared to individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual.

Officers reported relatively similar consent type rates for individuals perceived to be LGB+ or straight/heterosexual.

Housing Status

Officers discovered evidence/contraband much more frequently in non-discretionary searches compared to consent searches across both housed and unhoused individuals. Discovery rates were higher for both search types in searches of individuals perceived to be unhoused compared to individuals perceived to be housed. Officers reported relatively similar search rates for both housed and unhoused individuals for both consent searches and non-discretionary searches. However, consent search rates were slightly higher for individuals perceived to be housed (12.95%, 58,280 stops) and non-discretionary searches were slightly lower for housed individuals (65.77%, 226,849 stops).

Officers reported relatively similar rates of consent, verbal, implied, and written, type for housed and unhoused individuals.

C. Stop Results Between Calls for Service and Officer-Initiated Stops

Generally, police exercise more discretion in officer-initiated stops than in calls for service. Calls for service stops represent stops where officers are *responding* to a call for service. Officer-initiated stops represent stops where officers *choose* who they stop and therefore demonstrate an opportunity to use more discretion. Analyses comparing these two stop categories could provide insights into officer bias.

The annual stop data analyses provided above present rates of calls for service and officer-initiated stops broken down for demographic groups. This additional analysis compares the results of officer-initiated stops and calls-for-service stops. The first part of the analysis uses all available RIPA data; the second part excludes traffic data, which represent an overwhelming majority of RIPA stops and are distinct from other types of police stops.

Overall, results demonstrate that when traffic data is included, arrest rates are more than five times higher in stops initiated by a call for service (53.02%, 238,201 stops) compared to stops that are officer-initiated (8.47%, 391,124 stops). Stops that are officer-initiated most frequently result in a citation (50.43%, 2,327,853 stops), followed by a warning (34.87%, 1,609,384 stops). When traffic data is excluded, arrest rates for stops initiated by a call for service (57.50%, 221,950 stops) and stops that are officer initiated (44.87%, 186,445 stops) become more equal, though arrests are more frequent in stops initiated due to a call for service.

Traffic data included

Stops initiated by a call for service resulted in arrests (53.02%, 238,201 stops), no action (12.30%, 55,277 stops), and "other" results (12.88%, 57,877 stops) at a higher rate compared to

officer-initiated stops. Officer-initiated stops resulted in a citation (50.43%, 2327853 stops) and warning (34.87%, 1,609,384 stops) more frequently compared to stops initiated by a call for service.

Traffic data excluded

Stops initiated by a call for service resulted in an arrest at a higher rate (57.50%, 221,950 stops) compared to stops initiated an officer (44.87%, 186,445 stops). The same trend exists for "other" results of stop. Stops initiated by an officer resulted in a citation, no action, and warnings more frequently compared to stops initiated by a call for service.

D. Interstop Co-Occurrences

This year, the Board examines which elements of stops tend to occur together and whether each step of a stop (initiation → action during stop → result of stop) is influenced by the previous steps. This section analyzes: 1) what actions are most likely to co-occur during a stop; 2) whether and how demographics change the likelihood of certain actions being taken; and 3) whether and how actions during stop affected the likelihood of certain outcomes of stops when they begin with similar conditions.

i. What actions are most likely to co-occur during a stop?

The correlation matrices in Figure 1 and Table 1 show which actions occur together more or less often. Correlations can exist between -1 and 1; the farther the correlation coefficient is from zero, the stronger the relationship between the two variables. A positive correlation means the two actions tend to happen or not happen together, while a negative correlation means as one variable tends to happen, the other one does not. For instance, asking for consent and receiving consent share a strong positive relationship with a correlation of .92. However, the threshold for what is considered a strong, moderate, or weak correlation differs by discipline and what is under study.

The results revealed interesting relations between actions that commonly occur together. For instance, an officer asking a passenger for identification and running the name of the passenger have a moderately sized correlation, at .40. Detention and searches or frisks are correlated at .45, and detention and use of force are correlated at .42. Search or frisk and property seizure are correlated at .33. Though somewhat weaker correlations, sobriety test and vehicle impound share a correlation of .25, sobriety test and use of force of .22, and sobriety test and removed by vehicle order of .20. See Figure 1 for a visual representation of these correlations, and Table 1 for more detailed information on correlation size.

Figure 19. Correlation Matrix of Actions During Stop

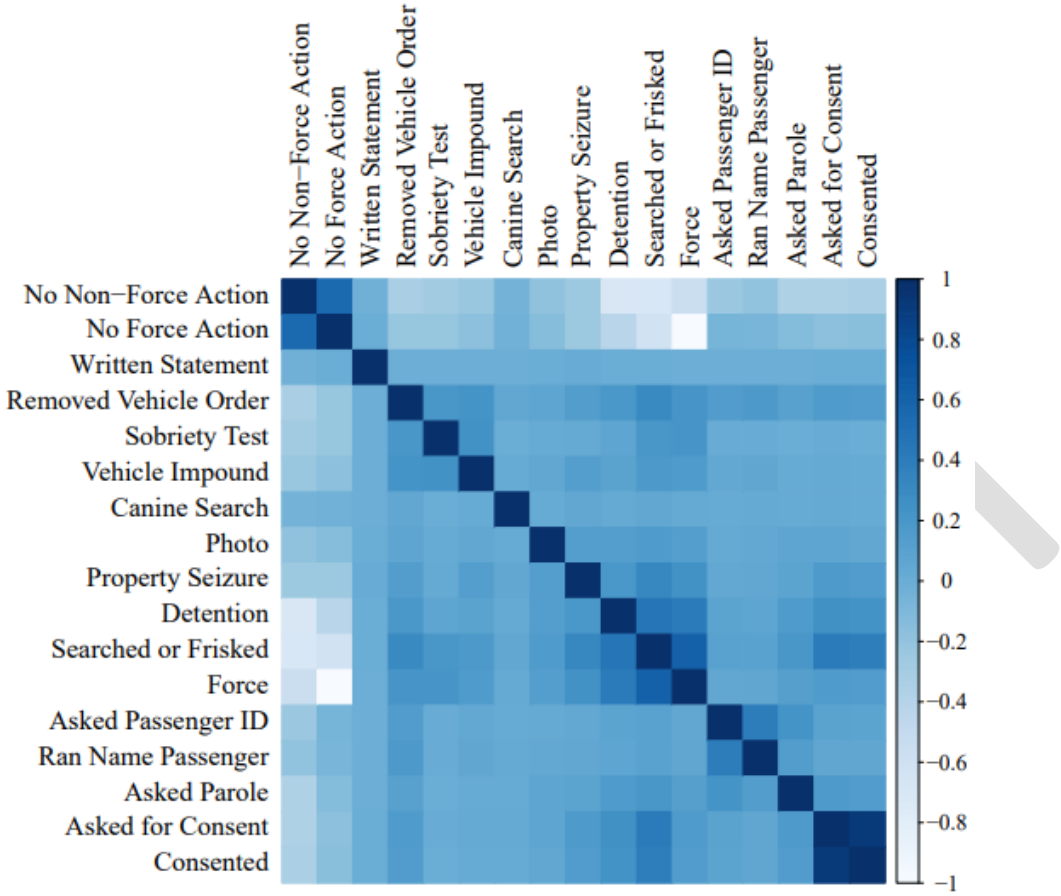


Table 1. Correlation Matrix of Actions During Stop[35]

	Written Statement	Asked Passenger ID	Asked Parole	Sobriety Test	Detention	Canine Search	Photo Taken	Removed Vehicle Order	Property Seizure	Ran Name Passenger	Vehicle Impound	No Non-Force Actions Taken	No Force Actions Taken	Searched or Frisked	Asked for Consent to Search	Consented to Search	Force Action Taken
Written Statement	1																
Asked Passenger ID	-0.001	1															
Asked Parole	-0.002	0.222	1														
Sobriety Test	-0.002	0.018	0.002	1													
Detention	0.000	0.083	0.161	0.071	1												
Canine Search	0.000	0.024	0.024	0.002	0.036	1											
Photo Taken	0.003	0.035	0.072	0.029	0.135	0.024	1										
Removed Vehicle Order	-0.002	0.154	0.119	0.203	0.199	0.059	0.072	1									
Property Seizure	0.018	0.046	0.086	0.036	0.192	0.054	0.135	0.142	1								
Ran Name Passenger	-0.001	0.403	0.146	0.018	0.079	0.032	0.042	0.189	0.058	1							
Vehicle Impound	-0.001	0.045	0.025	0.249	0.091	0.024	0.052	0.228	0.135	0.062	1						
No Non-Force Actions Taken	-0.024	-0.234	-0.351	-0.275	-0.694	-0.048	-0.186	-0.327	-0.248	-0.191	-0.227	1					
No Force Actions Taken	0.001	-0.051	-0.121	-0.219	-0.417	-0.031	-0.137	-0.214	-0.240	-0.069	-0.162	0.555	1				
Searched or Frisked	0.002	0.104	0.206	0.200	0.451	0.054	0.167	0.304	0.326	0.108	0.185	-0.688	-0.613	1			
Asked for Consent to Search	0.002	0.094	0.173	0.013	0.256	0.039	0.075	0.163	0.176	0.066	0.031	-0.360	-0.167	0.415	1		
Consented to Search	0.002	0.085	0.155	0.009	0.235	0.028	0.059	0.154	0.153	0.061	0.025	-0.330	-0.152	0.394	0.917	1	
Force Action Taken	-0.001	0.051	0.121	0.219	0.417	0.031	0.137	0.214	0.240	0.069	0.162	-0.555	-1	0.613	0.167	0.152	1

[35] A 1 in the correlation matrix indicates the two variables are perfectly correlated, meaning that any time one of the two actions happens, the other does as well. In Table 1, the 1's in the diagonal line indicate that the row variable and column variable are the same, thus making a perfect correlation. A -1 indicates that the two variables have a perfect negative correlation, meaning that any time one of the actions happens, the other one does not.

ii. How do demographics change the odds of certain actions being taken during a stop?

Regression Analysis Methods

Regression analysis provides the ability to identify disparities between groups by analyzing multiple variables simultaneously. Regressions with multiple variables can identify the impact of specific variables by changing one variable at a time to examine its impact, while holding all other variables constant. The independent variables included in the regression are listed below, along with what they are being compared to (the comparison group). For instance, a regression examining the impact of an officer perceiving an individual to be Black (the independent variable) can identify how the chances of being handcuffed change compared to an individual perceived to be White individual (the comparison group), when holding all other variables constant.

Table 2 shows the variables used in the analyses. Some variables were combined in these analyses due to low case counts. For race, the Middle Eastern/South Asian, Multiracial, Pacific Islander, and Native American categories were combined into an Other Race category. For gender, both transgender categories and the nonbinary category were combined into a Non-Cisgender category. The following reasons for stop were combined into an Other Reason category: known to be on parole/probation/PRCS/mandatory supervision, knowledge of outstanding arrest warrant/wanted person, investigation to determine if person is truant, consensual encounter and search, possible conduct warranting discipline under Education Code, determine if student violated school policy, probable cause to arrest or search, probable cause to take into custody under Welfare and Institutions Code section 5150.

Table 2. Independent Variables and Their Comparison Categories

Independent Variable	*Comparison Group*
Asian	White
Black	White
Hispanic/Latine(x)	White
Other Race	White
Cisgender Cisgender Woman/Girl	Cisgender Cisgender Man/Boy
Non-Cisgender	Cisgender Cisgender Man/Boy
Age 1 to 9	Age 10 to 14
Age 15 to 17	Age 10 to 14
Age 18 to 24	Age 10 to 14
Age 25 to 34	Age 10 to 14
Age 35 to 44	Age 10 to 14
Age 45 to 54	Age 10 to 14
Age 55 to 64	Age 10 to 14

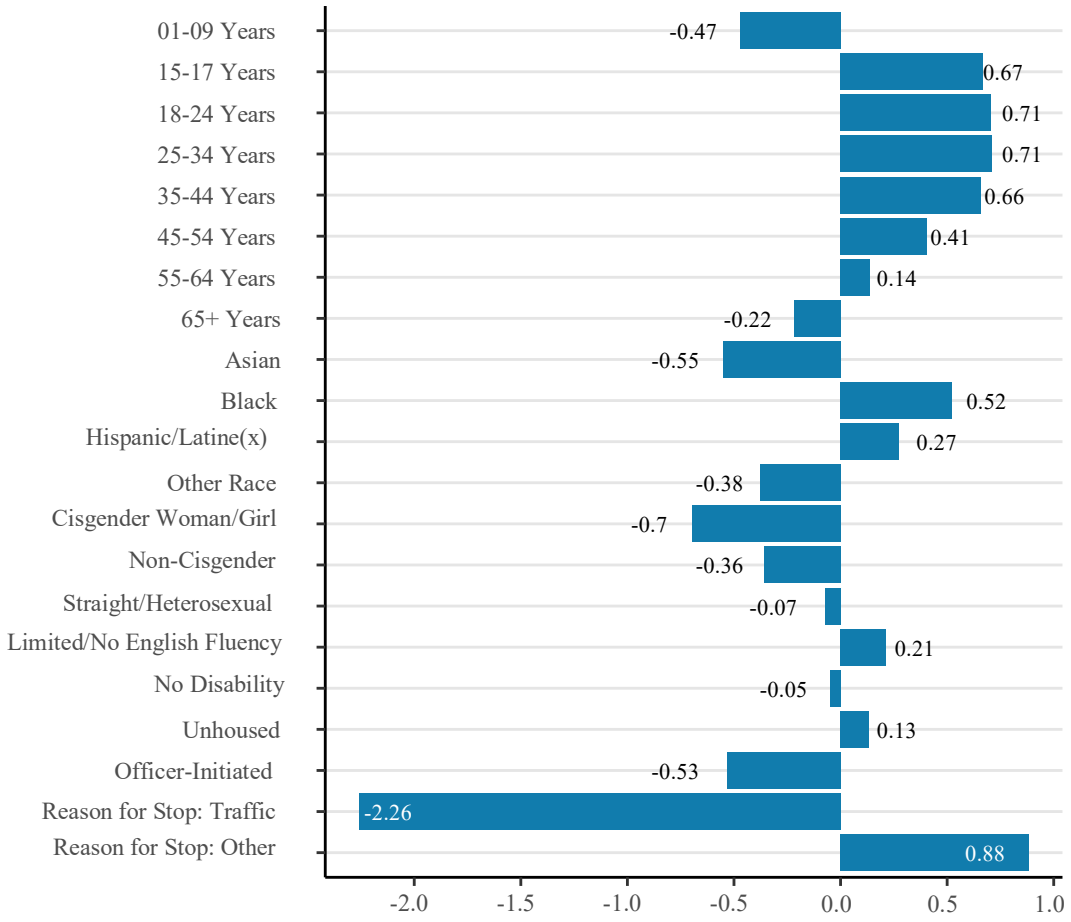
Age 65+	Age 10 to 14
Straight/Heterosexual	LGB+
Limited English Fluency	Fluent English
No Disability	Any Disability
Unhoused	Housed
Officer-initiated Stop	Call for Service Stop
Reason for Stop: Traffic	Reason for Stop: Reasonable Suspicion
Reason for Stop: Other	Reason for Stop: Reasonable Suspicion

Five regressions were conducted to understand how demographics change the odds of certain actions being taken. The five actions during stop (or "outcome variables") are searches and *Terry* frisks, handcuffing, curbside or patrol car detention, asking for consent, and force. The results of these regressions are displayed using bar graphs, with the bar indicating the direction and size of the change in chances that an individual experiences that action. A bar that goes to the left indicates a negative relation in contrast to the comparison group, i.e., the independent variable makes a person less likely to experience that action during a stop. In contrast, a bar that goes to the right indicates a positive relation, i.e., an increased chance of those things occurring. Most variables in these regressions are statistically significant, meaning that there is a high level of confidence that the differences between the variable and the comparison group did not occur by random chance. The variables that are not statistically significant are noted in the results section below.

Regression Results

Chances to be searched or *Terry* frisked compared to the related comparison group

Figure 20. Change in Chance of Being Searched or Frisked[36]



Every variable in this regression shares a statistically significant relationship with the outcome variable, searches or *Terry* frisks.

Individuals perceived as Black or Hispanic/Latine(x) have a higher chance of being searched or frisked compared to individuals perceived as White. Individuals perceived as Asian or Other Race have a lower chance of being searched or frisked compared to White individuals.

[36] See Table 2 for a further explanation of independent variables included in the regression along with what they are being compared to (the comparison group).

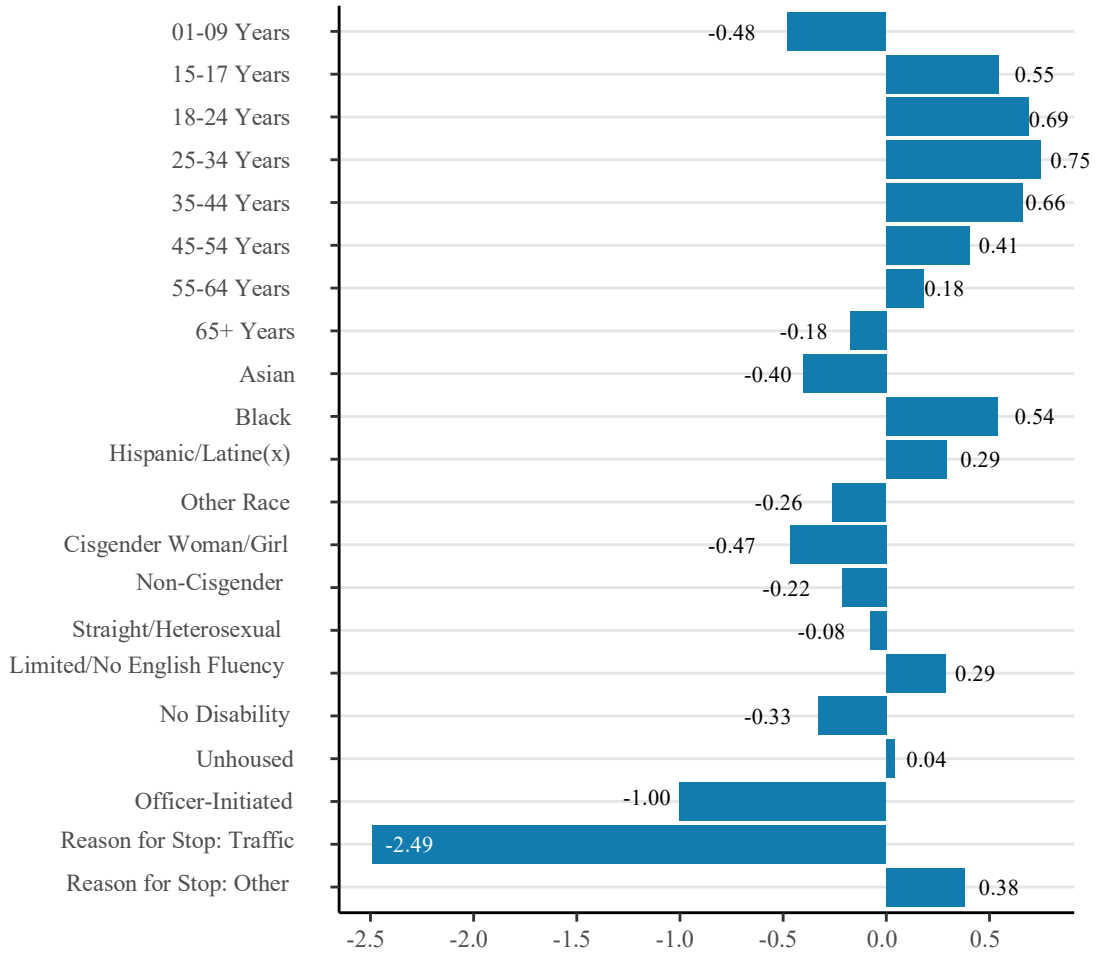
Individuals with no perceived disability have a lower chance of being searched or frisked compared to individuals with a perceived disability. Individuals perceived as having limited/no English fluency have a higher chance of being searched or frisked compared to individuals perceived to be fluent in English.

Individuals perceived to be either cisgender women/girl or non-cisgender have a lower chance of being searched or frisked compared to individuals perceived to be cisgender men/boys. Individuals perceived to be unhoused have increased chances of being searched or frisked compared to individuals perceived to be housed. Individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual have a lower chance of being searched or frisked compared to individuals perceived to be LGB+. Youth perceived to be 1-9 and individuals perceived to be 65+ have a lower chance of being searched or frisked compared to youth perceived to be 10-14, while the rest of the perceived age groups have an increased chance of being searched or frisked compared to youth perceived to be 10-14.

Officer-initiated stops have a lower chance of involving searches or frisks compared to call for service stops. Stops with traffic violation as a reason for stop have lower chances of involving a search or frisk compared to stops initiated for reasonable suspicion. Stops with Other as a reason for stop have higher chances of involving a search or frisk compared to stops initiated due to reasonable suspicion.

Chances of being handcuffed compared to the related comparison group

Figure 21. Change in Chance of Being Handcuffed[37]



Every variable in the regression shares a statistically significant relationship with the outcome variable, being handcuffed.

Individuals perceived as Black or Hispanic/Latine(x) have a higher chance of being handcuffed compared to individuals perceived as White. Individuals perceived as Asian or Other Race have a lower chance of being handcuffed compared to individuals perceived as White.

[37] See Table 2 for a further explanation of independent variables included in the regression along with what they are being compared to (the comparison group).

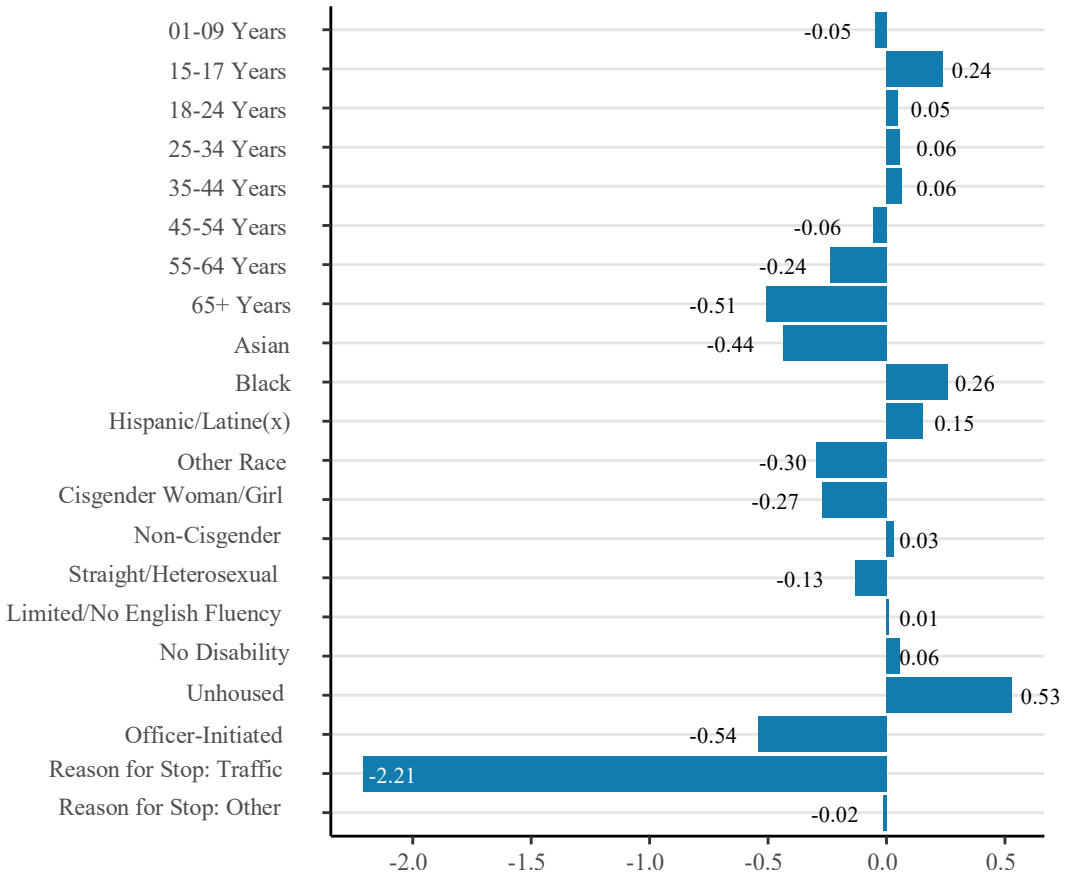
Individuals with no perceived disability have a lower chance of being handcuffed compared to individuals with a perceived disability. Individuals perceived as having limited/no English fluency have a higher chance of being handcuffed compared to individuals perceived to be fluent in English.

Being perceived as either a cisgender woman/girl or non-cisgender lowers the chances of being handcuffed compared to cisgender men/boys. Individuals perceived to be unhoused have an increased chance of being handcuffed compared to individuals perceived to be housed. Individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual have a lower chance of being handcuffed compared to individuals perceived to be LGB+. Youth perceived to be 1-9 and individuals perceived to be 65+ have a lower chance of being handcuffed compared to youth perceived to be 10-14, while the rest of the perceived age groups have a higher chance of being handcuffed compared to youth perceived to be 10-14 year.

Stops that are officer-initiated have a lower chance of involving handcuffing compared to call for service stops. Stops with traffic violation as a reason for stop have a lower chance of involving handcuffing compared to stops initiated for reasonable suspicion. Stops with Other as a reason for stop have a higher chance of involving handcuffing compared to stops initiated due to reasonable suspicion.

Chances of being detained compared to the related comparison group

Figure 22. Change in Chance of Being Detained[38]



Every variable, except youth perceived to be 1-9 years and individuals perceived to have limited/no English fluency, shares a statistically significant relationship with the outcome variable, detention in a patrol car or curbside. This means that there is a lower level of confidence that the differences between those variables and the comparison group did not occur by random chance, and therefore we cannot determine that these groups differ from their comparison groups.

[38] See Table 2 for a further explanation of independent variables included in the regression along with what they are being compared to (the comparison group).

Individuals perceived to be Black or Hispanic/Latine(x) have a higher chance of being detained compared to individuals perceived to be White. Individuals perceived to be Asian or Other Race have a lower chance of being detained compared to individuals perceived to be White.

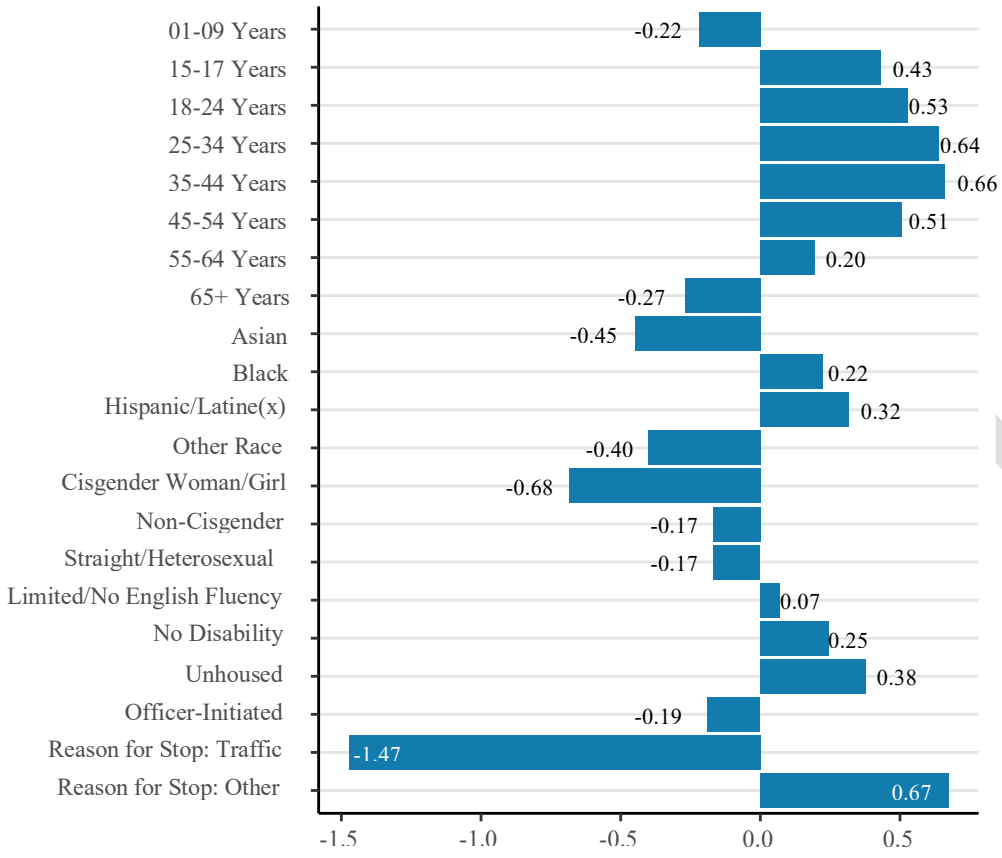
Individuals with no perceived disability have a higher chance of being detained compared to individuals with a perceived disability. Individuals perceived as having limited/no English fluency have a higher chance of being detained compared to individuals perceived to be fluent in English.

Being perceived as a cisgender women/girl decreases the chance of being detained compared to cisgender men/boys. Being perceived as a non-cisgender individual increases the chance of being detained compared to cisgender men/boys. Individuals perceived as unhoused have a higher chance of being detained compared to individuals perceived to be housed. Individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual have a lower chance of being detained compared to individuals perceived to be LGB+. Youth perceived to be 1-9 and individuals perceived to be 45-54, 55-64, and 65+ have a lower chance of being detained compared to youth perceived to be 10-14, while the rest of the perceived age groups have an increased chance of being detained compared to youth perceived to be 10-14.

Stops that are officer-initiated have a lower chance of including detainment compared to call for service stops. Stops with traffic violation or Other reason as the reason for stop have a lower chance of involving detainment compared to stops initiated for reasonable suspicion.

Chances of being asked for consent to search compared to the related comparison group

Figure 23. Change in Chance of Being Asked to Search[39]



Every variable except youth perceived to be 1-9 shares a statistically significant relationship with the outcome variable, asked for consent to search.

Individuals perceived to be Black or Hispanic/Latine(x) have a higher chance of being asked for consent to search compared to individuals perceived to be White. Individuals perceived to be Asian or Other Race have a lower chance of being asked for consent compared to individuals perceived to be White.

Individuals with no perceived disability have a higher chance of being asked for consent compared to individuals with a perceived disability. Individuals perceived as having limited/no

[39] See Table 2 for a further explanation of independent variables included in the regression along with what they are being compared to (the comparison group).

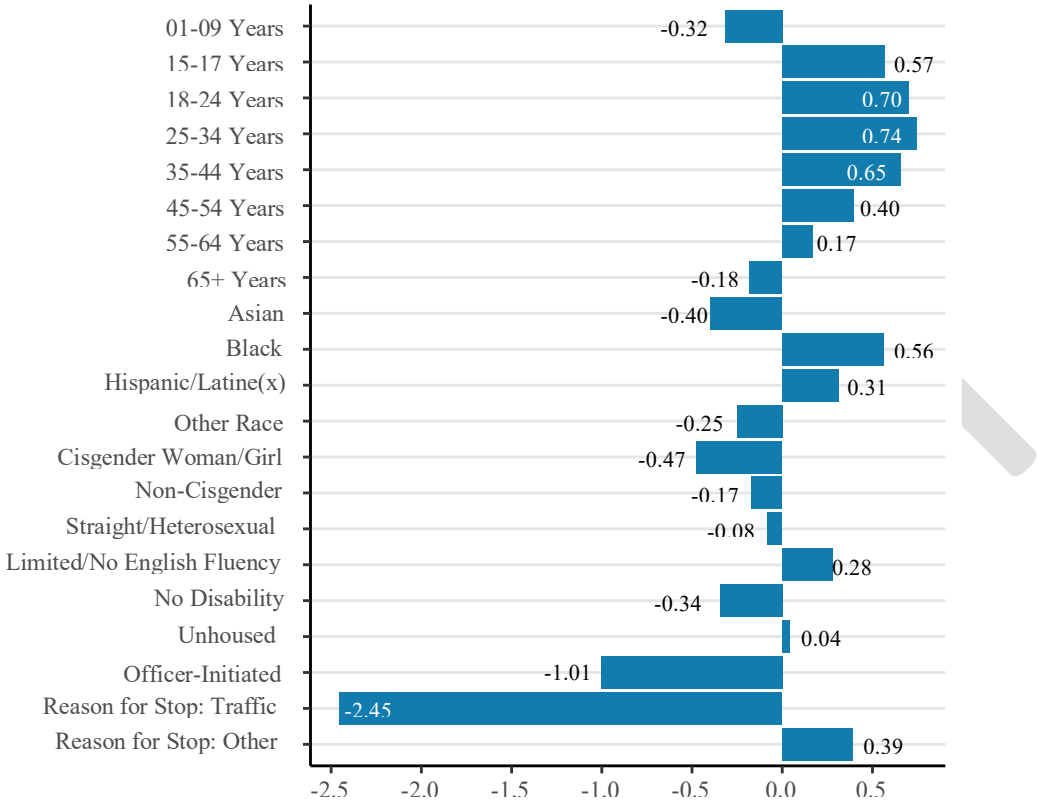
English fluency have a higher chance of being asked for consent compared to individuals perceived to be fluent in English.

Being perceived as a cisgender woman/girl or a non-cisgender individual decreases the chance of being asked for consent compared to cisgender man/boy. Individuals perceived to be unhoused have a higher chance of being asked for consent compared to individuals perceived to be housed. Individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual have a lower chance of being asked for consent compared to individuals perceived to be LGB+. Youth perceived to be 1-9 and 65+ have a lower chance of being asked for consent compared to youth perceived to be 10-14 year, while the rest of the perceived age groups have a higher chance of being asked for consent compared to youth perceived to be 10-14.

Stops that are officer-initiated have a lower chance of being asked for consent compared to call for service stops. Stops with traffic violation as a reason for stop have a lower chance of being asked for consent to search compared to stops initiated for reasonable suspicion. Stops with Other Reason as a reason for stop have a higher chance of being asked for consent to search compared to stops initiated for reasonable suspicion.

Chances of experiencing use of force compared to the related comparison group

Figure 24. Change in Chance of Use of Force[40]



Every variable in the regression shares a statistically significant relationship with the outcome variable, use of force.

Individuals perceived as Black or Hispanic/Latine(x) have a higher chance of experiencing force during a stop compared to individuals perceived as White. Individuals perceived as Asian or Other Race have a lower chance of experiencing force compared to individuals perceived as White.

Individuals with no perceived disability have a lower chance of experiencing force compared to individuals with a perceived disability. Individuals perceived as having limited/no English

[40] See Table 2 for a further explanation of independent variables included in the regression along with what they are being compared to (the comparison group).

fluency have a higher chance of experiencing force compared to individuals perceived to be fluent in English.

Being perceived as a cisgender woman/girl or non-cisgender increases the chances of experiencing force compared to individuals perceived to be a cisgender man/boy. Individuals perceived to be unhoused have a higher chance of experiencing force compared to individuals perceived to be housed. Individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual have a lower chance of experiencing force compared to individuals perceived to be LGB+. Youth perceived to be 1-9 and individuals perceived to be 65+ have a lower chance of experiencing force compared to youth perceived to be 10-14, while the rest of the perceived age groups have a higher chance of experiencing force compared to youth perceived to be 10-14.

Officer-initiated stops have a lower chance of involving force compared to call for service stops. Stops with traffic violation as a reason for stop have a lower chance of involving force compared to stops initiated for reasonable suspicion. Stops with Other Reason as a reason for stop have a higher chance of involving force compared to stops initiated for reasonable suspicion.

How do actions impact the odds of certain outcomes of stops when they begin with similar conditions?

Correlations

The general methods used to answer the first research question were used to answer this question. Correlations between the actions explored in the preceding analysis and the results of stop were calculated. Compared to the other results of stop, arrest had the strongest relationship with each of the actions. The strongest correlation was between handcuffing and arrest (.60), followed by force (.60),[41] searches and frisks (.52), detention (.39), and then asked for consent (.16).

Table 3. Correlations between Actions During Stop and Results of Stop

	Searched or Frisked	Handcuffed	Detention	Asked for Consent	Force
Arrest	0.522	0.597	0.390	0.164	0.596
Citation	-0.311	-0.286	-0.271	-0.157	-0.290
No Action	0.061	-0.004	0.049	0.074	0.000
Other	0.151	0.137	0.138	0.069	0.139
Warning	-0.113	-0.156	-0.053	-0.007	-0.154

[41] This is expected because 96.20 percent of the cases of force are due to handcuffing.

Regression Methods

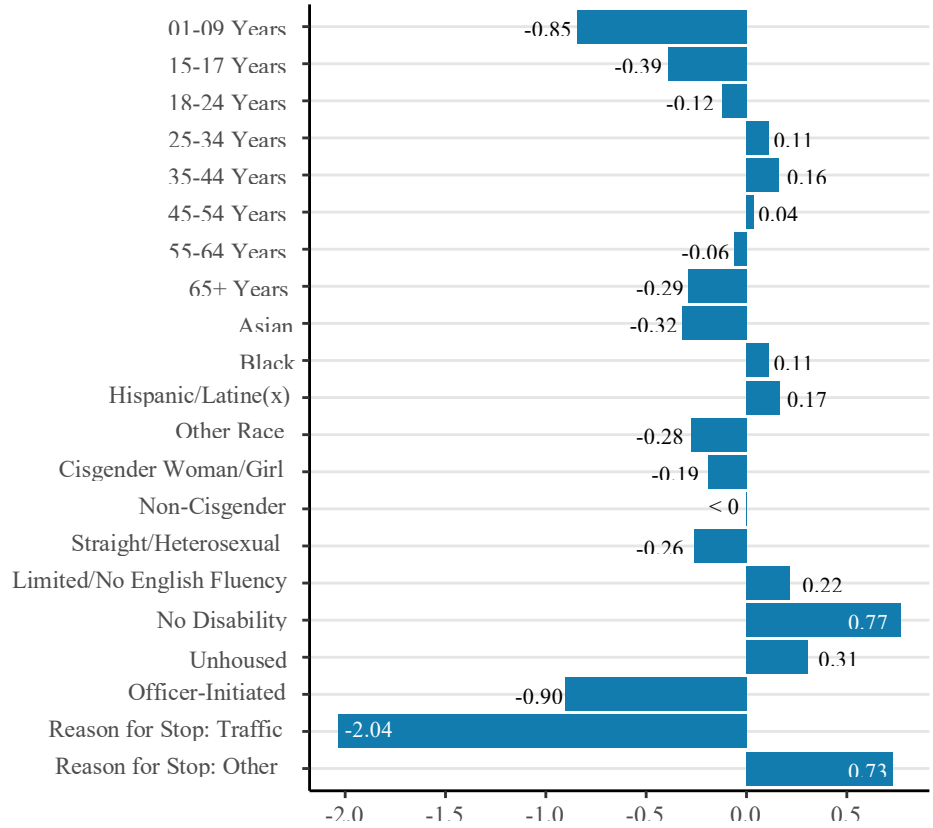
Because each of the actions described in Table 3 and correlated highly with arrest compared to the other actions, what actions predict arrest was further investigated using the regression methods used in the preceding analysis. Force was omitted from the regression because it is a very similar variable to handcuffing and having such similar variables in one regression can lead to inaccurate results.

Two regressions were conducted. The first analyzed the impact of demographics and characteristics of stop initiation on the chances of arrest. The second included all of the same variables from the first regression and adds the actions that were explored in the previous analysis. This strategy was used to better highlight the role of the variables of interest (the actions taken during stop) in the chances of arrest.

Regression Results

Change in the chance of being arrested compared to the related comparison group, excluding actions during stop

Figure 25. Change in Chance of Being Arrested, Excluding Actions During Stop[42]



Every variable in the regression shares a statistically significant relationship with the outcome variable, arrest.

Individuals perceived to be Black or Hispanic/Latine(x) have a higher chance of being arrested compared to individuals perceived to be White. Individuals perceived to be Asian or Other Race have a lower chance of being arrested compared to individuals perceived to be White.

Individuals with no perceived disability have a higher chance of being arrested compared to individuals with a perceived disability. Individuals perceived as having limited/no English fluency have a higher chance of being arrested compared to individuals perceived to be fluent in

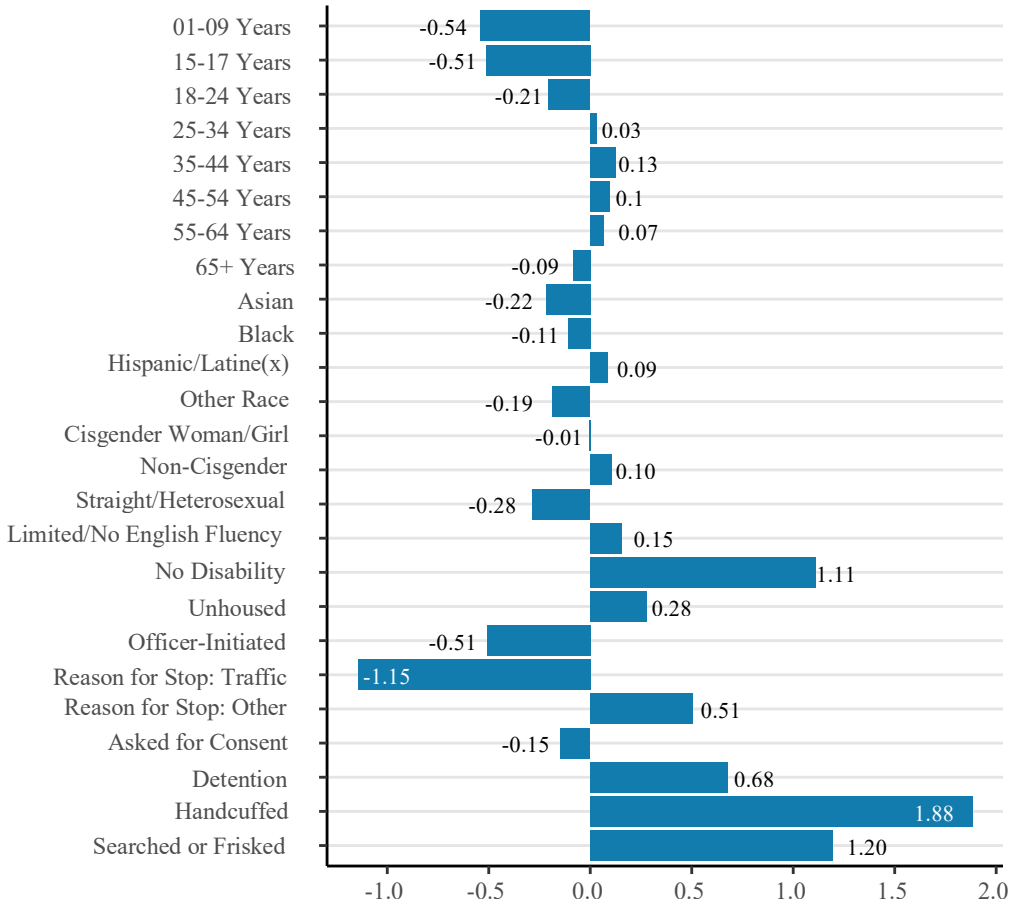
[42] See Table 2 for a further explanation of independent variables included in the regression along with what they are being compared to (the comparison group).

English. Being perceived as a cisgender woman/girl or a non-cisgender individual decreases the chance of being arrested compared to individuals perceived to be cisgender men/boys. Individuals perceived to be unhoused have a higher chance of being arrested compared to individuals perceived to be housed. Individuals perceived to be straight/heterosexual have a lower chance of being arrested compared to individuals perceived to be LGB+. Youth perceived to be 1-9, 15-17, 18-24, and individuals perceived to be 55-64, and 65+ have a lower chance of being arrested compared to youth perceived to be 10-14, while the rest of the perceived age groups have a higher chance of being arrested compared to youth perceived to be 10-14.

Stops that are officer-initiated have a lower chance of involving arrest compared to call for service stops. Stops with traffic violation as a reason for stop have a lower chance of involving arrest compared to stops initiated for reasonable suspicion. Stops with Other Reason as a reason for stop have a higher chance of involving arrest compared to stops initiated for reasonable suspicion.

Change in the chance of being arrested compared to the related comparison group, actions during stop included

Figure 26. Change in Chance of Being Arrested, Actions During Stop Included[43]



To examine the influence of actions during a stop, a follow up regression was conducted. The follow up regression is identical to the prior one, with the addition of the added actions during stop variables. Every variable in the regression shares a statistically significant relationship with arrest except for youth perceived to be -9 years and 15-17 years.

With respect to the newly added actions variables, being searched or frisked, handcuffed, or detained increases the chances of the stop resulting in an arrest. On the other hand, an officer asking for consent to search decreases the chances of the stop resulting in an arrest.

[43] See Table 2 for a further explanation of independent variables included in the regression along with what they are being compared to (the comparison group).

All the general conclusions from the previous regression were the same for the regression after including the actions during a stop variables except for the following: individuals perceived to be 55-64, Black, and non-cisgender. After the actions variables are added, being perceived as Black reduces the chance of arrest compared to individuals perceived to be White. Additionally, being perceived as age 55-64 increases the chance of arrest compared to youth perceived to be 10-14, and being perceived as non-cisgender increases the chance of arrest compared to being perceived as a cisgender man/boy. This switch in direct (i.e., from a positive relation to a negative relation) indicated a suppression effect.

Interpretation of Suppressor Effect of Handcuffing and Searching on Likelihood of Arrest

To fully examine these suppression findings, the Board conducted four separate regressions, each including one of the different potential suppressor actions. This strategy allows for the identification of which actions were most responsible for the relationship between being perceived as Black and arrest shifting from positive to negative, the relationship between being perceived as 55-64 and arrest changing from negative to positive, and the relationship between being perceived as non-cisgender and arrest changing from negative to positive. The Board found that the two actions with the largest impact on individuals perceived as 55-64, Black, and non-cisgender were handcuffing and search or frisk. The interpretation of results below only mentions these two actions.

Overall, individuals perceived to be non-cisgender have lower chances of being arrested than individuals perceived to be cisgender men/boys. However, when focusing on stops involving handcuffing or searching, individuals perceived to be non-cisgender are more likely to be arrested than individuals perceived to be cisgender men/boys. Similarly, individuals perceived to be age 55-64 have lower chances of being arrested than youth perceived to be 10-14. However, when focusing on stops involving handcuffing or searching, individuals perceived to be 55-64 are more likely to be arrested than youth perceived to be 10-14. Conversely, overall, individuals perceived to be Black are more likely to be arrested than individuals perceived to be White during a stop. However, when focusing on stops involving handcuffing or searching an individual, individuals perceived to be Black are less likely to be arrested than individuals perceived to be White.

One explanation for these results could be that the chance of arrest changes because some groups are handcuffed and searched more than others *without an arrest following those actions*. For instance, individuals perceived to be non-cisgender are overall less likely to be arrested than individuals perceived to be cisgender men/boys. However, perhaps they have a larger chance of being arrested when they are handcuffed or searched because officers handcuff or search them during stops that are more likely to result in arrest. Therefore, when focusing on stops involving

handcuffing or searching an individual, individuals perceived to be non-cisgender are more likely to be arrested than individuals perceived to be cisgender men/boys. With respect to individuals perceived to be cisgender men/boys, perhaps police handcuff or search those individuals more often in situations that are less likely to warrant an arrest. Therefore, when focusing on stops involving handcuffing or searching an individual, individuals perceived to be cisgender men/boys have a lower chance of being arrested than individuals perceived to be non-cisgender.

The same explanation can be offered for the findings regarding the relationship between being perceived as Black and being arrested.[44] It is possible that the chance of arrest decreases between the two regressions because individuals perceived to be Black are handcuffed and searched more than their White counterparts, without an arrest following those actions. Thus, it is plausible that police handcuff or search individuals perceived to be Black more often in stops that are less likely to result in an arrest. Therefore, when focusing on stops involving handcuffing or searching an individual, individuals perceived to be Black have a lower chance of being arrested than individuals perceived to be White.

iii. Limitations

While using multiple regression has many benefits, there are also some limitations of the methodology. These analyses do not include every variable that could influence changes in each of the outcome variables. The RIPA data reports a limited number of variables, and certainly does not include all variables that could possibly influence, for instance, use of force. For example, an officer using force could be because the person they stopped was being violent. The RIPA data does not contain information regarding whether the stopped individual was acting in a violent manner or not. Other variables like this could possibly change some of the relationships the regressions in this analysis show. The same sort of limitation extends to the correlation matrices; the relationships shown in Table 1 and Table 2 do not account for any other variables that may influence the relationship between actions.

[44] Being perceived as Black has a strong positive indirect effect on being arrested through being handcuffed and other actions taken during stops. In the final analysis Black shows a small negative direct effect on being arrested when the actions are included, but overall, the total effect of being perceived as Black makes an individual more likely to be arrested. Sobel tests indicate that the mediation effects of actions taken during stops were highly statistically significant.