

# Aggression, Escalation, and Other Latent Themes in Legal Intervention Deaths of Non-Hispanic Black and White Men: Results From the 2003–2017 National Violent Death Reporting System

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**Objectives.** To investigate racial/ethnic differences in legal intervention–related deaths using state-of-the-art topic modeling of law enforcement and coroner text summaries drawn from the 2003–2017 US National Violent Death Reporting System (NVDRS).

**Methods.** Employing advanced topic modeling, we identified 8 topics consistent with dangerousness in death incidents in the NVDRS death narratives written by public health workers (PHWs). Using logistic regression, we then evaluated racial/ethnic differences in PHW-coded variables and narrative topics among 4981 males killed by legal intervention, while adjusting for age, county-level characteristics, and year.

**Results.** Black, as compared with White, decedents were younger and their deaths were less likely to include PHW-coded mental health or substance use histories, weapon use, or positive toxicology for alcohol or psychoactive drugs, but more likely to include “gangs-as-an-incident-precipitant” coding. Topic modeling revealed less frequent thematic representation of “physical aggression” or “escalation” but more of “gangs or criminal networks” among Black versus White decedents.

**Conclusions.** While Black males were more likely to be victims of legal intervention deaths, PHW-coded variables in the NVDRS and death narratives suggest lower threat profiles among Black versus similar White decedents. The source of this greater risk remains undetermined. (*Am J Public Health.* 2021;111(S2):S107–S115. <https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2021.306312>)

In the United States, Black Americans are disproportionately more likely to die in what are labeled legal intervention–related deaths, such as police shootings.<sup>1</sup> Indeed, legal intervention deaths are estimated to be 2.8 times greater among Blacks than among Whites.<sup>2</sup> These deaths occur under a variety of circumstances, including confrontation

with police or other legally acting persons during arrests or while in legal confinement. Legal intervention deaths have become increasingly prevalent over the past 2 decades.<sup>3</sup>

Previous research has sought to identify characteristics of legal intervention decedents and the circumstances surrounding their deaths in the

hopes of illuminating the basis of the race disparity. For example, it could be hypothesized that victims who pose a clear threat to legal authorities (such as by being armed or acting unpredictably, perhaps because of mental illness or substance use) might be at increased risk for suffering a legal intervention death. If legal intervention incidents

involving Black men include more indicators of threat, such as weapon use, then this could explain the greater risk for death. However, previous work finds that Black legal intervention decedents, compared with similar White or Hispanic decedents, are less likely to be armed, exhibit less evidence of mental health difficulties, and are less likely to have positive toxicology for illicit substances or alcohol at time of death.<sup>2-5</sup> Nevertheless, there may be subtle, but unrecognized, clues in descriptions of lethal legal interventions that could clarify unrecognized risk indicators contributing to the greater likelihood of these deaths of Black men.

In the current study, we applied advanced topic modeling methods to illuminate indicators of threat that may be associated with legal intervention deaths among men varying by race/ethnicity. Employing records from the 2003–2017 National Violent Death Reporting System (NVDRS), we used the written summaries of violent deaths in the NVDRS to inductively identify latent descriptors of threat and dangerousness, such as physical aggression. This possibility has not been studied at scale before, to our knowledge. Our goal was to investigate whether unidentified race-related factors play a role in the excess risk for legal intervention deaths seen among Black men.

## METHODS

The NVDRS, compiled by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), provides public health surveillance for violent deaths (e.g., suicide, homicide) in the United States.<sup>1</sup> As of 2017, the NVDRS included information on more than 330 000 deaths forwarded by state public health departments from 34 states and the District of Columbia. The death records themselves are created

by trained public health workers (PHWs) who use a common, highly articulated CDC coding manual to assign values to multiple variables (e.g., demographics, factors surrounding the death, toxicology results). PHWs also compose 2 brief, narrative summaries describing the circumstances of the death, one drawn from law enforcement reports and the other from medical examiner or coroner reports. We preprocessed these 2 narratives (to standardize abbreviations and correct misspellings) and combined them. We then applied a phrase detector<sup>6</sup> to transform commonly co-occurring words into single tokens (e.g., “African American” became “African\_American”). This resulted in 307 249 death narratives in which the decedent was aged 12 years or older at time of death. Of these, 79 062 were homicides, with the great majority being males (n = 63 263).

We then classified male deaths as to legal intervention status. Following Barber et al.,<sup>7</sup> we categorized deaths as legal intervention–related if at least 1 of the following precoded attributes was present in the record:

- 1 manner of death coded as “legal intervention,”
- 2 circumstances of the incident involved a “legal intervention” death,
- 3 victim–suspect relationship coded as “killed by law enforcement,”
- 4 in the absence of a coded victim–suspect relationship, homicide committed by law enforcement officer in line of duty or a civilian in self-defense,
- 5 death received legal intervention *International Classification of Diseases, Tenth Revision (ICD-10; Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 1992) code (Y35.0–Y35.4, Y35.6, Y35.7, and Y89.0, excluding legal executions), or*
- 6 death occurred while victim was “in custody.”

This categorization identified 5159 deaths. Finally, we excluded 2 deaths in which the victim was a law enforcement officer and 176 deaths in which the narrative text had fewer than 50 words, as these narratives are unlikely to provide informative contributions to the topic modeling. This exclusion resulted in a final study sample of 4981 deaths. Most (n = 4238; 85%) were by firearms. Further description of the NVDRS data system, data quality, and data validation is available elsewhere.<sup>8</sup>

## Study Measures

**Public health worker–coded death features.** Death records included decedent age at time of death, race/ethnicity, and incident year. We recoded race into 3 categories (non-Hispanic Black, non-Hispanic White, and other). In addition, we used several PHW-coded variables that may reflect dangerousness of encounters: whether the death was precipitated by a serious crime, the decedent used a weapon in the incident, the killing was motivated by or involved gang members, and the decedent had a history of alcohol or substance use problems or a history of mental health difficulties. These 5 variables were coded as yes (1) versus no or unknown (0). Finally, in approximately 70% of cases, the death record included toxicology reports. We recoded these for reported versus not reported: blood alcohol level 0.08 or higher and positive result for any psychoactive drug.

**Characteristics of the county where the death occurred.** We linked 2 aspects of county-level data to the NVDRS-coded county where the incident occurred: county-level violent crime rate (offenses per 100 000 population) and proportion of non-White county residents.<sup>9</sup>

**Narrative-based topics reflecting dangerousness of encounters.** To identify latent topics in the narratives, we applied a topic modeling approach. Topic modeling is a machine-learning technique for extracting latent themes from large-scale text data and scoring themes to specific documents.<sup>10-13</sup> A full description of our technique, as implemented in the NVDRS narratives, can be found elsewhere.<sup>14</sup> Briefly, we first used word2vec<sup>15</sup> with Continuous-Bag-of-Words,<sup>6</sup> a word-embedding method, to quantitatively represent the meanings of words in the NVDRS narratives based on their co-occurrences. This method identifies vector representations for words by predicting the presence or absence of words from their various contexts in the corpus. Words sharing more similar contexts—and thus sharing more meaning—tend to have more similar word vectors; similarity between 2 vectors is measured using cosine similarity. We set the dimensionality of word vectors to be 200; we selected this dimensionality by using established quality metrics for word embeddings.<sup>15,16</sup> The resulting embedding matrix had 28 222 rows (1 for each unique word in the narratives) and 200 columns (1 for each component of the 200-dimensional word vectors). This matrix can be thought of as a semantic space, which encodes the meaning of the corpus text.

Next, employing the approach of Arora et al.,<sup>12</sup> we applied a sparse dictionary learning algorithm (K-singular value decomposition, or K-SVD)<sup>17</sup> on this matrix to identify latent topics in the semantic space. We then used several established topic modeling quality metrics to find the best configuration of the model, including coherence of the topics<sup>18</sup> and distinctiveness of topics from one another.<sup>19</sup> These quality measures supported selection of a final model with 225 topics. Adopting methods developed by Arora

et al.<sup>10,11</sup> and Arseniev-Koehler et al.,<sup>14</sup> we then assigned each death record a score (0 or 1) for whether the latent topic was present or not in the narrative. This conservative approach assigns a score of 1 to narratives with any amount of a topic present. Finally, we confirmed the robustness and validity of the topic model by employing narratives' topic assignments to predict, using a logistic regression classifier, 25 PHW-coded binary death characteristics with 10-fold cross validation (e.g., whether the victim died in an emergency department, a firearm was the primary weapon, and the victim was recently released from any kind of institution). Across the 25 outcomes evaluated, mean classification accuracy was 82.3% (SD = 7.4%) on held-out validation folds.

The face validity of these latent topics can be discerned by examining words loading highest on each topic, as indexed by cosine similarity scores (these are the most representative words for the topic). As might be expected, the 225 topics ranged across the descriptive landscape of violent death, including administrative words, weapons and ammunition, sounds and smells, emotions, syntactic jargon, body parts, drugs, and locations. From these, 2 of the authors (S. D. C. and A. A.-K.) independently identified 8 topics with 100% agreement that, by face validity, address aspects of dangerous encounters (Table 1).

## Data Analysis

We analyzed data by using multiple imputation procedures as implemented in R version 4.0.3 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Missing data were rare (<2.0% for any variable) except for toxicology reports, which were analyzed as subsamples. As a first step, we used linear regression to investigate racial/ethnic differences in

study covariates: age, incident year, and county-level characteristics (crime rate and proportion of non-White residents). Previous work suggests that younger individuals are at heightened risk of death by police force<sup>20</sup> and, given the changing state composition of the NVDRS, we adjusted for effects attributable to this factor. County-level violent crime rates and proportion of non-White residents were also treated as possible confounders given previous findings<sup>21</sup> that legal intervention deaths and racial disparities in policing are linked to the place where the incident happened, not merely characteristics of the victim or encounter.

Next, we examined potential racial/ethnic variation in the word count of summaries by using a negative binomial regression model, adjusting for incident year to account for any potential changes in NVDRS reporting. Last, we used logistic regression to investigate race/ethnicity differences in selected PHW-coded variables and the 8 narrative topics potentially indexing dangerousness of the lethal encounter while adjusting for age, incident year, and county-level factors. In the analyses of narrative topics, we additionally adjusted for the number of words in each narrative; our descriptive analyses found Black decedents' narratives were often shorter in length, and shorter narratives are less likely to include any particular topic. From these analyses, we report adjusted odds ratios and their 95% confidence intervals. We also report results of regression modeling and the Wald F test. All significance tests were based on the criterion of a P value of less than .05.

## RESULTS

As shown in Table 2, compared with White decedents, Black decedents were

**TABLE 1— Latent Topics Within the 2003–2017 National Violent Death Reporting System Legal Intervention Death Narratives Indicative of Dangerous Encounters: United States**

| Narrative Topic Label      | % (SE) of Narratives With This Topic | Ten Most Representative Terms   |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| Physical aggression        | 84.5 (0.5)                           | tackled, lunged_toward, began_attacking, advanced_toward, attacked, slapped, intervened, shoved, lunged, pepper_sprayed   |
| Fight beginnings           | 87.8 (0.5)                           | fight_ensued, gunfire_erupted, physical_altercation_ensued, another_individual, pistol_whipped, gunman, struggle_ensued, scuffle_ensued, suspect, intruders       |
| Justification              | 24.4 (0.6)                           | ruled_justifiable, remains_unsolved, 558, gang_motivated, pedestrian_vs_train, road_rage, random_violence, justifiable_self_defense, 3289, considered_justifiable |
| Escalation                 | 8.3 (0.4)                            | becoming_increasingly, becoming_more, become_more, increasingly, noticeably, notably, become_increasingly, profoundly, grown_increasingly, generally              |
| Physical posture           | 41.5 (0.7)                           | crouching, silhouette, kneeling, northeast, crouched, walkway, platform, stagger, laying, leaning   |
| Causal language            | 12.3 (0.5)                           | sparked, preceded, triggered, precipitated, led, prompted, culminated, may_have_contributed, occurred, completely_unexpected                                      |
| Gangs or criminal networks | 45.8 (0.7)                           | gang, rival_gang, bloods, crips, gang_activity, drug_trade, crips_gang, rival, rival_gang_members, revenge  |
| Hostile confrontation      | 39.2 (0.7)                           | home_invasion_robbery, card_game, drug_transaction, gunfight, shootout, scuffle, hostage_situation, verbal_exchange, confrontation, brawl                         |

Note. The sample size was  $n = 4981$ . “Most representative terms” are the 10 terms with highest cosine similarity to the relevant topic.

far younger ( $b = -9.30$ ;  $P < .001$ ) as were decedents of other races/ethnicities ( $b = -6.89$ ;  $P < .001$ ). More than 69% of all Black men dying by legal intervention were younger than 35 years, and 25% were younger than 22 years. By contrast, just 38% of White men were younger than 35 years with 6% younger than 22 years. Timing of the deaths varied in the NVDRS; Black decedents tended to have an earlier incident year in the database ( $b = -0.27$ ;  $P < .05$ ) as compared with Whites, while decedents of other races/ethnicities tended to have a more recent incident year ( $b = 0.51$ ;  $P < .01$ ). We also observed racial/ethnic differences in the county characteristics where the lethal event occurred: compared with Whites, Black decedents tended to die in counties with higher rates of violent crime ( $b = 249.02$ ;  $P < .001$ ) and higher percentages of non-White residents ( $b = 19.07$ ;  $P < .001$ ), as did decedents

of other races/ethnicities ( $b = 115.78$ ;  $P < .001$  and  $b = 7.26$ ;  $P < .001$ , respectively). Narratives describing events for Black decedents included fewer words (adjusted  $b = -0.28$ ;  $P < .001$ ) than those for White decedents, while narratives for decedents of other races/ethnicities included more words (adjusted  $b = 0.10$ ;  $P < .001$ ), after we controlled for year when the death occurred.

Legal intervention deaths often occurred in the context of the commission of a serious crime where weapons were used during the encounter (Table 2). Many decedents were also potentially impaired by consumption of alcohol or other psychoactive substances or had histories of mental health or substance use problems. However, compared with death records of White decedents, Black decedents' records less frequently included positive histories of mental health or substance use

problems or use of a weapon by the decedent during the incident (Table 3), after we adjusted for covariates. Furthermore, in the subsamples of deaths in which toxicology results were available, Black decedents were less likely than Whites to be intoxicated or to screen positive for psychoactive drugs at the time of death, after we adjusted for covariates.

Narrative summaries of these deaths revealed subtle but critical Black–White differences in how these legal intervention deaths were described by the PHW. Compared with incidents involving White decedents, Black decedents' incidents were less likely to include topics describing physically aggressive actions or indicators of escalation, but more likely to include language related to characterizations of gangs or criminal networks. Finally, compared with White decedents, narratives for decedents of

**TABLE 2—** Characteristics of Legal Intervention–Related Deaths Among Males, Aged 12 Years and Older, by Racial/Ethnic Background: United States, National Violent Death Reporting System, 2003–2017

| Characteristics  | Non-Hispanic Black, No. or % (SE) | Non-Hispanic White, No. or % (SE) | Other, No. or % (SE) |
|--|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------|
| No. of deaths  | 1752                              | 2317                              | 912                  |
| County of incident   |                                   |                                   |                      |
| County violent crime offenses, no. per 100 000 population*** | 589.4 (7.9)                       | 340.4 (4.7)                       | 456.2 (7.4)          |
| County non-White population, %**                             | 40.3 (0.4)                        | 21.2 (0.3)                        | 28.5 (0.5)           |
| Victim age in years, mean***                                 | 31.3 (0.3)                        | 40.6 (0.3)                        | 33.7 (0.4)           |
| Proximal factors, %  |                                   |                                   |                      |
| Positive history alcohol or substance use problems***        | 7.1 (0.6)                         | 23.9 (0.9)                        | 25.5 (1.4)           |
| Positive history of mental health problems***                | 6.2 (0.6)                         | 17.8 (0.8)                        | 11.1 (1.0)           |
| Death precipitated by a serious crime*                       | 73.7 (1.1)                        | 74.6 (0.9)                        | 78.2 (1.4)           |
| Victim used a weapon***                                      | 52.7 (1.2)                        | 62.4 (1.0)                        | 61.4 (1.6)           |
| Death was motivated by or involved gangs***                  | 3.5 (0.4)                         | 0.9 (0.2)                         | 4.1 (0.7)            |
| Narrative topics for dangerous encounters present, %         |                                   |                                   |                      |
| Physical aggression***                                       | 78.5 (1.0)                        | 88.0 (0.7)                        | 87.1 (1.1)           |
| Fight beginnings*  | 87.4 (0.8)                        | 87.0 (0.7)                        | 90.5 (1.0)           |
| Justification  | 25.4 (1.0)                        | 24.4 (0.9)                        | 22.7 (1.4)           |
| Escalation***  | 5.0 (0.5)                         | 10.5 (0.6)                        | 9.0 (0.9)            |
| Physical posture, %***                                       | 38.0 (1.2)                        | 43.7 (1.0)                        | 42.6 (1.6)           |
| Causal language**  | 11.7 (0.8)                        | 13.7 (0.7)                        | 10.0 (1.0)           |
| Gangs or criminal networks***                                | 46.8 (1.2)                        | 42.5 (1.0)                        | 52.2 (1.7)           |
| Hostile confrontation***                                     | 32.8 (1.1)                        | 41.5 (1.0)                        | 45.3 (1.6)           |
| Characteristic of narrative: narrative word count, mean***   | 203.9 (3.7)                       | 267.0 (4.5)                       | 310.5 (9.8)          |
| <b>Subsamples of deaths that included toxicology reports</b> |                                   |                                   |                      |
| Blood alcohol level  |                                   |                                   |                      |
| No. of deaths tested for alcohol levels                      | 1117                              | 1656                              | 724                  |
| Blood alcohol level > 0.8, %***                              | 21.5 (1.0)                        | 35.5 (1.0)                        | 28.5 (1.5)           |
| Presence of psychoactive drugs                               |                                   |                                   |                      |
| No. of deaths screened for psychoactive drug toxicology      | 1225                              | 1716                              | 758                  |
| Positive for psychoactive drugs, %***                        | 48.7 (1.2)                        | 58.6 (1.0)                        | 61.8 (1.6)           |

Note. The sample size was 4981. For death records that included toxicology reports, n = 3497 for blood alcohol level and n = 3699 for toxicology screen for psychoactive drugs.

\* $P < .05$ ; \*\* $P < .01$ ; \*\*\* $P < .001$ .

other races/ethnicities were also more likely to include the gangs or criminal networks topic.

## DISCUSSION

Legal intervention deaths are a relatively rare occurrence among the

nation's total homicides.<sup>2,3,7</sup> They are, however, among some of the most highly contested homicides. Investigations of these deaths have revealed that approximately a fifth likely involve mental health crises or substance use problems,<sup>22</sup> which may lead to confrontational behavior with law

enforcement (so-called "suicide by cop"). Many others occur in the context of serious, felonious crime. Legal intervention deaths are also marked by important risk patterns wherein Black men, and young Black men especially, are at much greater risk in their interactions with law enforcement than are White

**TABLE 3—** Partial Results of Logistic Regression Models Estimating Proximal Factors and Narrative Topics Associated With Legal Intervention Deaths Among Males, Age 12 Years and Older, by Race/Ethnicity: United States, National Violent Death Reporting System, 2003–2017

| Characteristics  | Race/Ethnicity <sup>a</sup>             |                            |
|--|---|----------------------------|
|  | Non-Hispanic Black, No. or AOR (95% CI) | Other, No. or AOR (95% CI) |
| Total sample   | 1752                                    | 912                        |
| Proximal factors   |   |                            |
| Positive history alcohol or substance use problems           | 0.29 (0.28, 0.37)                       | 1.09 (0.90, 1.33)          |
| Positive history of mental health problems                   | 0.38 (0.30, 0.50)                       | 0.60 (0.47, 0.77)          |
| Death precipitated by a serious crime                        | 0.86 (0.72, 1.01)                       | 1.10 (0.91, 1.33)          |
| Victim used a weapon   | 0.64 (0.55, 0.74)                       | 0.93 (0.80, 1.11)          |
| Death was motivated by or involved gangs                     | 4.07 (2.32, 7.15)                       | 4.23 (2.40, 7.45)          |
| Narrative topics for dangerous encounters present            |   |                            |
| Physical aggression  | 0.65 (0.52, 0.81)                       | 0.87 (0.67, 1.13)          |
| Fight beginnings   | 1.11 (0.89, 1.40)                       | 1.20 (0.91, 1.57)          |
| Justification  | 1.07 (0.90, 1.28)                       | 0.76 (0.63, 0.93)          |
| Escalation   | 0.73 (0.54, 0.99)                       | 0.78 (0.58, 1.05)          |
| Physical posture   | 1.01 (0.86, 1.19)                       | 0.79 (0.66, 0.94)          |
| Causal language  | 1.16 (0.92, 1.45)                       | 0.63 (0.48, 0.82)          |
| Gangs or criminal networks                                   | 1.34 (1.14, 1.56)                       | 1.26 (1.07, 1.50)          |
| Hostile confrontation  | 0.91 (0.78, 1.07)                       | 1.14 (0.97, 1.35)          |
| <b>Subsamples of deaths that included toxicology reports</b> |   |                            |
| Blood alcohol level  |   |                            |
| No. of deaths tested for blood alcohol levels                | 1117                                    | 724                        |
| Blood alcohol level > 0.8                                    | 0.55 (0.45, 0.67)                       | 0.77 (0.63, 0.94)          |
| Presence of psychoactive drugs                               |   |                            |
| No. of deaths screened for psychoactive drug toxicology      | 1225                                    | 758                        |
| Positive for psychoactive drugs                              | 0.60 (0.50, 0.81)                       | 0.93 (0.77, 1.12)          |

Note. AOR = adjusted odds ratio; CI = confidence interval. The sample size was  $n = 4981$ , including 2317 non-Hispanic Whites. For toxicology screening variables, the sample size was  $n = 3497$  (including 1656 Whites) for blood alcohol levels and 3699 (including 1716 Whites) for psychoactive drug toxicology reports. Effects tested by adjusting for decedent's age, characteristics of the county where the incident occurred, year of the incident, and, for narrative topics only, narrative word count.

<sup>a</sup>Referent = non-Hispanic White.

men.<sup>2</sup> Importantly, some of these risk patterns may represent public health opportunities to reduce mortality, particularly among young Black men.

The NVDRS represents an important official source for much of what is known about violent death in the United States, including legal intervention deaths.<sup>1,23</sup> Using variables coded into the NVDRS (e.g., sex, ICD code, type of weapon, toxicology report), previous studies have shown that Black men who die by legal intervention appear to pose lower

immediate threat to law enforcement as compared with White men who also die by legal intervention.<sup>24</sup> In addition, their deaths are less consistent with possible “suicide by cop” motivations,<sup>2,24</sup> as Black legal intervention decedents are less likely than similar Whites to have histories of mental health problems or substance abuse, or evidence of current drug or alcohol consumption at time of death.<sup>24</sup>

Our study extends these findings by making use of a large, mostly untapped

source of information on the legal intervention deaths within the NVDRS death narratives. Traditional qualitative methods are impractical for analyzing the hundreds of thousands of NVDRS narratives, though previously some have mined small portions of them. For example, researchers have used simple text searches<sup>25,26</sup> and case sampling employing combinations of precoded variables(s)<sup>22,24,27,28</sup> to isolate samples of death narratives that are then subjected to traditional qualitative methods. This

work has successfully isolated the importance of bullying in sexual minority youth suicides,<sup>25</sup> characteristics of gang-related killings,<sup>28</sup> and the variables that we used to identify legal intervention deaths in the NVDRS.<sup>7</sup> But much of the potential value of the narratives has remained out of reach.

To that end, we applied a novel machine-learning approach to unlock the thematic information contained within the narratives. Focusing on themes relevant to aggression, threat, and danger posed by the incident, we found that nuanced themes of danger are described in these narratives, such as specific physically aggressive actions (e.g., “lunged toward”). We also observed a pattern of racial/ethnic differences in the frequency of these themes among legal intervention deaths. For example, incidents involving Black male decedents, as compared with similar Whites, were less likely to involve descriptions of physically aggressive actions or escalation (e.g., “becoming increasingly”) but more likely to include descriptions of gangs and criminal networks. By using topic modeling, we were able to both confirm and extend characterization of race differences associated with descriptions of legal intervention deaths.

At a more general level, our topic modeling methodology also offers 2 potential benefits when applied to administrative data such as the NVDRS. First, it may prove a useful approach to inductively identify characteristics of death incidents mentioned in the NVDRS narratives, but not as yet included in its precoded variables. Second, it offers a way to validate PHW coding of variables. For example, although gang-motivated or -involved factors, as indexed by the PHW-coded variable, were rarely present in legal intervention deaths, topic modeling revealed that this characterization was

quite common in the death narratives. Elsewhere,<sup>28</sup> NVDRS underreporting of gang involvement, especially among deaths involving non-Hispanic Whites and American Indian/Alaska Natives, has already received note. Other topics picked up by our model but not examined in this study (e.g., topics about mental health) might also be useful to extend or triangulate other PHW-coded variables.

## Limitations

Our study has several limitations to be considered. First, while we investigated characteristics of the incident, victim, and county where the incident occurred, we did not directly account for the local racial climate, something that has been suggested as playing a role in the racial disparities observed in legal intervention deaths.<sup>29</sup> In some neighborhoods, Black men may be more likely to be stopped by police in the first place, and Blacks are more likely than Whites to be subject to use of force by law enforcement.<sup>2</sup> Second, the NVDRS is a relatively new administrative database that has been shown to include a fairly comprehensive count of fatal police shootings<sup>30</sup> and legal intervention deaths,<sup>7</sup> but only within the limited set of states that it covers. The recent expansion of the NVDRS to include all 50 states will enable more detailed future work on geographic variation.

Third, the NVDRS is a set of abstracted records compiled by multiple state-based PHWs. Although coders undergo extensive training and use a detailed, standardized codebook, and the abstracted information undergoes numerous, ongoing data validation checks, PHWs may still vary somewhat in their reporting. Also, the database summarizes existing death records but does not investigate original circumstances.

Hence, data quality may vary in indeterminate ways at multiple levels (the death is underinvestigated, the report is inaccurately or underreported, or the PHW errs in completing the NVDRS record). All of these factors may introduce biases. Finally, our topic modeling approach, though ideal for processing large databases and avoiding limitations of the need for a priori text search terms, uses alternate validity checks rather than traditional text search strategies<sup>25,30</sup> where all identified cases are closely read for accuracy by human analysts. Metrics reported here support the validity of our approach, but some records remain inaccurately classified. The likely direction of bias is toward the null.

Despite these limitations, results presented here provide further evidence for the role of racially infused perceptions of threat in incidents of legal intervention and police shooting deaths.<sup>2</sup> In both the PHW-coded variables and the topics identified via a novel topic modeling approach, our results suggest that circumstances involving Black decedents from legal interventions include fewer indicators of threat when compared with similar White male decedents. These findings hint at differential, race-related threat thresholds for lethal legal intervention. Elsewhere,<sup>31</sup> research indicates that there is a greater propensity to associate perceptions of threat and criminality with Black men where, for example, young Black men's size and muscularity tend to be overestimated. Furthermore, the overestimation occurs more often with Black men than with White men. This propensity appears to lead to overestimation of danger in situations in which law enforcement is required to interpret ambiguous behavior and circumstances.<sup>32</sup> As a consequence, evidence reported elsewhere suggests that Black

individuals are more likely than Whites to be erroneously perceived as holding weapons, when they are in fact holding benign objects.<sup>33</sup> Simulation studies also find that the decision to shoot occurs faster when the target is Black versus White.<sup>29</sup>

Finally, while our core interest lay in characterizing narrative descriptions of the danger or threat posed by the incident, we unexpectedly observed that legal intervention narratives tended to be systematically shorter for Black versus White men. Whether this reflects the amount of information gathered in original law enforcement, coroner, and medical examiner reports or the level of detail retained by PHWs is indeterminable. Regardless of the origin for difference in length, the NVDRS is an official source of information for ascertaining circumstances of death, and shorter narratives provide less information for investigations.

## Public Health Implications

Substantively, this work builds on a growing body of scholarship seeking to understand racial disparities in legal intervention deaths, especially police shootings. Using written summaries from public health workers in the 2003–2017 NVDRS, the current study offers new evidence that incidents involving Black decedents who die by legal intervention are described differently than those involving White men. As predicted, the narratives suggest that Black legal intervention deaths, as compared with Whites, are associated with characteristics that pose lower objective threat profiles for law enforcement. At the same time, there is also evidence that these deaths are less fully described for reasons that are unknowable at this point. By applying a state-of-the-art topic modeling technique to a public health

administrative database, we were also able to demonstrate the utility and efficiency of this approach, offering a pathway for greater exploration of racial inequities using this important federal data system. Future public health efforts to reduce racial differences in perceived threat or harm in police interactions with young Black males are clearly warranted. *AJPH*

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## CONTRIBUTORS

All authors have contributed substantially to this article. A. Arseniev-Koehler and S. D. Cochran conceptualized and designed the study. All authors contributed to the conceptualization of the topic modeling approach. The analytic plan was developed by A. Arseniev-Koehler, J. G. Foster, K. W. Chang, and S. D. Cochran. A. Arseniev-Koehler implemented analyses along with J. G. Foster and K. W. Chang. The initial draft of the article was written by A. Arseniev-Koehler and S. D. Cochran, and all authors edited subsequent versions of the article.

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## CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors have no conflicts to disclose.

## HUMAN PARTICIPANT PROTECTION

This study was ruled exempt from human participant review by the UCLA institutional review board because it used secondary, de-identified data.

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