

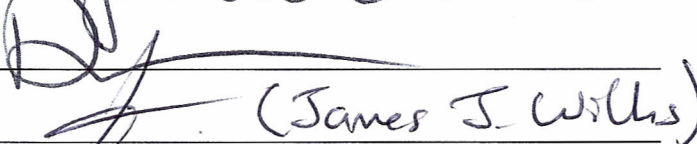
POLICE TRAINING: THE EFFECT OF THE ACADEMY ON RECRUIT ATTITUDES  
TOWARD THE COMMUNITY

by

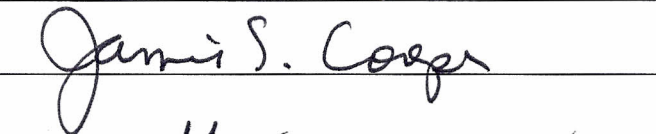
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Police Training: The Effect of the Academy on Recruit Attitudes toward the Community

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Name of Degree, as in Master or Doctor of Science or Philosophy at George Mason University

by

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I can do all things through Christ who strengthens me {Philippians 4:13}

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **POLICE TRAINING: THE EFFECT OF THE ACADEMY ON RECRUIT ATTITUDES TOWARD THE COMMUNITY**

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George Mason University, 2014

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Members of law enforcement are often categorized under a singular police culture or police personality that is highlighted by cynical attitudes and an “us versus them” mentality. The present study examines a cohort of police recruits enrolled in a police training academy on their attitudes toward typically disenfranchised groups (racial and ethnic minorities, women, members of the LGBT community, senior citizens, and juveniles) prior to and following their police training experience. Previous police research has focused largely on defining the police personality and most recently the interaction between the police and members of the community with regard to the community policing initiative. The current study examines if enrollment in the police training academy causes a change in recruit response to questions about the community. A comprehensive survey concerning various aspects of policing was administered to a cohort of police recruits enrolled in a training academy located in a large metropolitan

area before and after the academy experience. The amount of change from before and after the police academy is calculated; this difference is analyzed with a paired samples test for any significant difference in responses and with chi-square tests for associations with the participant's race/ethnicity, age, gender, level of education, and prior experiences in the military or as a sworn officer in another jurisdiction. Understanding recruit attitudes and how they are influenced is crucial because these attitudes are believed to influence the decisions officers make in the field, namely who to stop and who to arrest. While no statistically significant relationships are identified, there are several trends presented within the data that may be useful to future researchers. Future research ideas are also explored.

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

In both scholarship and media, police officers are often characterized as having an “us versus them” mentality (Cochran & Bromley, 2003). Specifically, the police are portrayed by a “police personality” which has been described to include cynicism, suspicion of non-officers, bigotry, authoritarianism, and solidarity (Balch, 1972; Balch, 1977; Skolnick, 1977; Twerskey-Glasner, 2005).

Several real consequences can result from the negative attitudes associated with police culture. Unlike other agencies within the U.S. government, law enforcement has the most consistent and direct contact with the general public (Peak, Bradshaw, & Glensor, 1992). Peak, Bradshaw, and Glensor (1992) note that

Whatever the citizen thinks of the police, they can hardly be ignored.

Whereas other public bureaucrats are often lost from the public’s view, locked in rooms filled with typewriters and anonymity, police officers are out in the world—on the sidewalks and in the streets and shopping malls, cruising, strolling, watching (p. 28).

The very nature of the policing profession grants officers another unique component unlike other branches of the government: officers have power over everyday citizens and their work directly impacts the entire criminal justice process. Police officers “have wide discretionary powers to stop, question, arrest, search and detain

suspects” (Chan, p. 88, 1997). Officer attitudes, especially cynicism and an “us versus them mentality,” are believed to directly influence these actions. Further, such perceived attitudes, coupled with actual examples of police misconduct, can hinder the public’s perception of law enforcement, placing a major strain on relationships between law enforcement and the communities they police (Brown & Benedict, 2002; Lasley, 1994; Jefferis, Kaminski, Holmes, & Hanley, 1997; Tuch & Weitzer, 1997; Brown & Benedict, 2002; Weitzer, 2002; Tyler, 2005; Chermak, McGarrell, & Gruenewald, 2006; Graziano, Schuck, & Martin 2010).

When analyzing police attitudes a few questions must be considered: (1) where do police attitudes come from, are they established prior to the academy and do they persist throughout their policing career, and (2) are the people who join the police more likely to exhibit these types of attitudes, or does the policing organization and the policing experience foster them? Some argue that this police culture is a natural byproduct of the policing profession wherein officers routinely experience dangerous environments that require a certain professional response. Paoline (2003), for example notes that the type of environment and problems that members of law enforcement encounter lead to a police culture which is defined by social isolation from non-officers and group loyalty to fellow officers. Others have found that police culture varies by departmental goals, individual rank, region, and countless other variables that fluctuate with the personnel who compose law enforcement (Britz, 1997; Haarr, 1997; Herbert, 1998; Paoline, Myers, & Worden, 2000; Paoline, 2003).

The focus of this study centers around one potential source of police attitudes toward society and others: training within the police academy. The police academy is the first point of socialization for police officers; this period of socialization presents a time where recruits might develop an “us versus them” or cynical attitude toward society. Previous research on police academies and trainings has focused on: the underlying emphasis on hegemonic masculinity (Prokos & Padavic, 2002; Bevan & MacKenzie, 2012), the curriculum of police academies (Marion, 1998; Birzer, 1999; Birzer & Tannehill, 2001), and the physiological effects of training on recruits (Daniels, Kowal, Vogel, & Stauffer, 1979; Violanti, 1992). This study will add to this literature by empirically examining possible changes in officer attitudes towards society more generally, and towards minorities and other disenfranchised populations more specifically. To do this, a survey adapted from the National Police Research Platform (see Appendix A) and developed under a larger project by Lum and Koper<sup>1</sup> was administered to recruits in a large police academy in a metropolitan area before and after their police academy training to determine if their attitudes on a wide variety of measures changed as a result of their time within the academy. This study will focus on measures within that survey related to community policing, relevant police training, and officer attitudes towards minorities, women, the LGBT community, the elderly, and juveniles.

Understanding these types of officer attitudes and where they develop is especially important to understanding one component of police discretion. As previously

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<sup>1</sup> The survey is part of a larger project on the receptivity of police research, led by Cynthia Lum and Christopher Koper for the Bureau of Justice Assistance (“Matrix Demonstration Project”, Cooperative Agreement 2011 DB-BXB-K012).

mentioned, police have copious amounts of discretion when deciding how to handle crime incidents and situations. Social psychologists have linked decision-making to innate attitudes or biases, finding that people unconsciously associate an item or a belief with an assumed characteristic, and these unconscious associations drive overt behaviors (Bertrand, Chugh, & Mullainathan, 2005). Other scholars, such as Mastrofski (2000), have emphasized the importance of situational factors that encourage officers to behave in one manner over another. Officer attitudes about various groups within society, coupled with a variety of situational factors, may lead to differential discretion (particularly in regard to use of force, traffic stops, and decisions to arrest), and concerns about racial profiling in stop and frisks, and the overall treatment of minority populations. Examining the attitudes held by police officers, and whether police training academies potentially foster negative attitudes, may help us better understand the point within the police experience that such attitudes begin so interventions to address these views are implemented at the proper time.

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

This study examines the attitudes of police recruits and whether their overall experiences within the training academy cause their pre-established beliefs to change. To better understand the general attitudes of police officers, and how they might be influenced by the police training academy, this chapter explores literature that describes what scholars have characterized as the “police personality,” where certain attributes may arise as a result of the profession itself which in turn influence aspects like decision-making while on the job.

### **Police Attitudes**

Describing the “police personality” is no simple task. Many scholars have examined this police personality as attitudes and behaviors exhibited by officers in the broader context of a “police culture.” One such attitude that has garnered the attention of most research has been police cynicism. Niederhoffer (1967), for example, distributed a 20-item survey to 220 New York police officers in an effort to analyze attitudes and values among the police. Several key findings resulted from this research: (1) police cynicism increased with length of service, (2) college-educated officers who were denied promotion became more cynical than other officers, and (3) the type of training recruits endured caused them to be more cynical about themselves, the department, and the community as a whole (Regoli & Poole, 1979). These findings led Niederhoffer to



conclude that officers become cynical because of the daily events characterized by their profession.

Niederhoffer's research was followed by other studies, like one by Regoli and Poole (1979), which sought to test the consistency and legitimacy of this cynicism instrument. Regoli and Poole (1979) found that Niederhoffer's cynicism scale was not a one-dimensional construct which meant police officers could be cynical toward one component of their profession and not others, or they could be cynical towards multiple aspects simultaneously. By conducting a factor analysis, the researchers also noted that Niederhoffer's 20-item instrument could be reduced to 13-items, which would increase the predictive power of the variables. Regoli and Poole (1979) noted several shortcomings within Niederhoffer's scale of cynicism and attempted to correct them. These corrections however, were also flawed and led to the continued use of Niederhoffer's original scale by police scholars.

Since Niederhoffer's work, other research has focused on the cause of cynicism in police officers. Graves (1996) and Behrend (1980) note three characteristics of the police profession that lead to officer cynicism: street conditions, loss of respect for the law, and occupational stagnation. Behrend (1980) also adds withdrawal from friends and increased association with fellow members of law enforcement. Although many view police cynicism as a destructive characteristic of law enforcement that disrupts ties to the community, some recognize police cynicism as a positive component of the profession. Paoline, Myers, and Worden (2000) believe that cynicism gives the police an edge over other members of the community. Many researchers also believe that cynical attitudes

allow the police to erect an emotional barrier which enables them to function more effectively with their daily encounters. Moreover, the constant danger of police work causes officers to be more suspicious of non-officers in general (Edge, Buffington, & Slemons, 1980; Skolnick, 1966). Given past research on the seemingly inevitable development of cynicism and through self-analysis of his personal experience as a police officer, Caplan (2003) analyzed the pros and cons to police cynicism. Along with Niederhoffer (1967) and Albanese (1999), Caplan (2003) believes that police officers do not differ from the general population with regard to personality; rather, cynicism is encouraged in officers by the policing profession and social environment. Cynicism is beneficial to policing because the constant suspicion of non-officers forces law enforcement to be better prepared if a crisis occurs. This characteristic also allows police to focus exclusively on the crime-fighting component of their profession (Caplan, 2003). Since previous research deems cynicism unavoidable for police officers, Caplan (2003) suggests that officers learn about cynicism and how to use it as a technique to fight crime as opposed to alienate the communities they serve.

Cynicism represents only one component of what researchers deem the police personality. The police personality has also been described as having dimensions of an “us versus them” mentality of suspicion of non-officers, cynicism, bigotry, authoritarianism, and solidarity (Cochran & Bromley, 2003; Balch, 1972; Balch, 1977; Skolnick, 1994; Twerskey-Glasner, 2005). McNamara (1999) argues that the police personality is established during the police training academy where recruits become socialized and learn of the values and behavior patterns of experienced officers. The

police “culture” is thereby representative of the shared attitudes, values, and norms typically associated in the policing profession (Paoline, Myers, & Worden, 2000). One shared attitude among police officers that Worden (1989) highlights is the awareness that the public has low respect for law enforcement. This cognizance leads many officers to alter their behavior in anticipation of the lack of trust and potentially hostile interactions with ordinary citizens (Worden, 1989, p. 688-689). This alteration of behavior *before* actually encountering the public is what Merton terms self-fulfilling prophecy. Self-fulfilling prophecy occurs when an individual falsely defines a situation and reacts based on false knowledge, which inadvertently causes the original false assessment to come true (Merton, 1948). Officers, for example, may act in a hostile manner towards the public because they falsely assume that citizens have no respect towards law enforcement; this in turn causes citizens to act hostile toward the police because of how the police interacted with them.

Despite assumptions that there is one unique police personality or culture, research has shown otherwise. In 1998, Steve Herbert criticized prior research on the police subculture because of the distinctions made between formal rules and informal daily practices of the officers, and because most researchers treat the police and perceived police culture as a cohesive whole. Paoline, Myers, & Worden (2000) examined survey data collected from two police departments to determine if there was variation across officers with regard to seven outlooks typically associated with conventional police culture. This study found variation among officer outlooks, and most importantly, that these differences could not be explained by race, gender, or other personal characteristics.

It was originally hypothesized that a change in police personnel over time (including the increased hiring of women and minorities), would also change the presumed uniform police culture (Paoline, Myers, & Worden, 2000). This research however, rejected this hypothesis and instead found that police culture was more fragmented than once assumed. Gould (2000) also determined that officer personality characteristics changed after entering the police environment. Although his previous study (Gould, 1995) found that female officers were less likely to house the “us versus them” mentality towards members of the community, African American females displayed the most change after joining the policing profession and Caucasian females the least (Gould, 2000).

While much of criminological research focused on Niederhoffer’s cynicism scale, Frank & Brandl (1991) argued that police research should take note of the social psychological methodology to obtain an accurate empirical analysis of police attitudes. Social psychologists believe that attitudes reflect an internal assessment that influences all behavior. For this reason, the present study will also examine research on decision-making and the empirical assessment of attitudes.

### **Police Personality, Attitudes, and Decision-Making**

The study of police attitudes is also important because of the influence they might have on officer decision-making. A cynical attitude towards certain communities, for example, may lead officers to rely on their formal enforcement powers in those areas and issue more citations and arrests. Frank & Brandl (1991) mention that police research could greatly benefit from using psychological methodology to better understand police

culture, or the police personality, and how attitudes such as cynicism influence their professional behavior.

Decisions are based on a variety of components. Herbert Simon (1948) argued that no decisions were truly rational as they were the result of an individual's limited knowledge, or bounded rationality, about a specific subject. March & Simon's (1958) bounded rationality emphasized the idea that decisions were more about "satisficing" a need by using the first solution that comes to mind as opposed to "optimizing" and considering all decisions that could be made. This understanding of decision-making is important because of the assumption that an individual is always consciously aware of the decisions they make by either satisficing or optimizing. This understanding also applies to Mastroski's (2000) situational explanations wherein context is needed to understand officer decisions within the field. Social psychologists argue that two processes occur when individuals process information. Automatic processing transpires as an individual is able to recall or act on information without additional effort; this differs from controlled processing where an individual must actively search for cues that trigger the necessary information (Schneider & Shiffrin, 1977). For example, automatic processing occurs when someone is asked what high school or college they attended; this differs from controlled processing which is necessary to answer questions like the number of tablespoons in a cup. Schneider and Shiffrin (1977) found that automatic processing occurs because of constant training, or priming, of specific information.

Since Schneider and Shiffrin's work, the concepts of automatic and controlled processing have become synonymous with implicit and explicit attitudes where implicit

attitudes are automatic responses that an individual is often unaware of and explicit attitudes are controlled responses of which an individual is consciously aware. Although this concept of attitudes was established, and primarily utilized, within the field of psychology, and although this is not the focus of this study, learning which attitudes are frequent in policing and how these attitudes are influenced can help future research better address the differences between implicit and explicit attitudes.

Using attitudes to explain or predict behavior is no easy task. Frank and Brandl (1991) emphasize several shortcomings to police research on attitudes and behavior. First, police research needs to have an appropriate link between the attitude in question and the associated behavior (Weigel & Newman, 1976). Another shortcoming of police research on attitudes and behaviors has been the focus on one attitude to explain or predict a single behavior when multiple attitudes could lead to the same or similar actions. An example would be examining officer cynicism as the predictor of aggressive behavior by the police, when the behavior could be the result of a number of other attitudes such as frustration in their personal life or fear from underperforming on the job. Scales that measure multiple related attitudes can protect against confounding variables (or attitudes); the best way to correlate attitudes with behaviors is to consider the “situational characteristics, organizational factors, political culture, and the legal environment” that affect police behavior (Frank & Brandl, 1991). For these reasons, Frank and Brandl (1991) believe police researchers could benefit from psychological methodology on attitudes.

### **Police-Citizen Interaction**

While some scholars have focused on the influence of situational and organizational factors on police behavior, others have focused on psychological explanations, including an officer's own predispositions or the way that officers interact with an individual citizen. As previously mentioned, attitudes affect decision-making; these decisions lead to behaviors that affect how citizens perceive law enforcement. To understand how police attitudes towards different groups, or society in general, impact discretionary practices, it is necessary to examine the literature on police-citizen interactions.

Previous research on police-citizen interactions stemmed from an interest in how the public and law enforcement interacted. Over the past few decades, this interest has become more substantial as more police departments have moved towards a community-oriented method of policing in an effort to further reduce crime. As more departments have incorporated community-oriented policing, police-citizen interactions have become more significant (Cordner, 1995; Frank, Smith, & Novak, 2005; Lai & Zhao, 2010).

Much of the aforementioned police culture stems from the media's perception of the police. Many would even argue that these typically negative characteristics frequently associated with the police hinder the effectiveness and efficiency of law enforcement in the eyes of the public, particularly programs that require input from both the police and the community (Greene & Decker, 1989; Webb & Marshall, 1995). Frank, Smith, and Novak (2005) administered a survey to residents concerning their general and specific perspectives of local police. Findings from this survey found that despite the negative characteristics highlighted by the media, citizens were generally pleased with

law enforcement. This perception varied inconsistently within and between different social groups however. As other research has emphasized, one of the most important factors that contribute to community perceptions of the police is personal contact (Frank, Smith, & Novak, 2005). Although millions of citizens interact with law enforcement annually, only a small portion of citizens viewed their contact negatively and even fewer filed complaints of misconduct (Langton & Durose, 2013).

Scaglion and Condon (1990) found that personal contact had a great influence on citizen attitudes. Personal contact with the police encompasses both voluntary and involuntary interaction. Several bodies of research have found that positive voluntary interactions with the police have very small effects on citizen attitudes toward the police whereas negative interactions, both voluntary and involuntary, significantly impact police perception (Furstenberg & Wellford, 1973; Hawdon & Ryan, 2003; Jacob, 1971; Walker, et al., 1972; Webb & Marshall, 1995). Like other research findings concerning police-citizen interactions, Scaglion and Condon (1990) found that race had the greatest impact on police perception and that this variable often hides the effects that belonging to a specific neighborhood, gender, or socioeconomic group have on perceptions. Vicarious police encounters are also important to one's perception of the police. Rosenbaum, Schuck, Costello, Hawkins, & Ring (2005) found that both positive and negative vicarious experiences influenced how favorably citizens viewed the police. In fact, they found that positive vicarious experiences led to a greater, more positive, change to citizen attitudes toward the police than did direct contact and negative vicarious encounters (Rosenbaum et al., 2005). Alongside previous findings, Rosenbaum et al. (2005) also



found that minorities were more prone to rely on vicarious police experiences than Caucasians. Another important finding by Rosenbaum et al. (2005) was that attitudes toward the police are difficult to change. This finding is important because it is possible that the police training academy will not be enough to produce significant change in recruit attitudes pre and post enrollment.

Outside of the influence of personal contact with law enforcement, several other variables have been linked to less favorable attitudes toward the police—race, socioeconomic status, age, gender, and neighborhood cohesion (Decker, 1981; Hawdon & Ryan, 2003; Jones-Brown, 2000; Kusow, Wilson, & Martin, 1997; Scaglione & Condon, 1980; Webb & Marshall, 1995). Research concerning police interaction with racial and ethnic minorities has received the most attention among scholars, and studies regularly find that minorities tend to view law enforcement less favorably (Furstenburg & Wellford, 1973; Hadar & Snortum, 1974; Jacob, 1971; Lai & Zhao, 2010; Parker, Onyekwuluje, & Murty, 1995; Skogan, 1978). Specifically, research found that minorities tend to believe that they are targets of the police (Brown & Benedict, 2002; Engel, 2005; Lai & Zhao, 2010) whereas law enforcement believes they are constant targets of accusations of discriminatory and prejudicial behavior (Carter, 1985). The significance of these findings leads to several questions relevant to the present study. First, do police officers have negative perceptions of minorities that cause their discretion and behavior to negatively influence how minorities view them? If so, where do officers acquire these negative attitudes: do they exist before entering the police training academy, are they the outcome of the academy, or do they arise throughout the course of

the officer's career? The present study will focus on the perceptions of police recruits immediately before and after their experiences in the police training academy.

While minorities overall assume behavior by the police is prejudicial, Hispanic attitudes tend to be less favorable of police than their Caucasian counterparts, and more favorable than the perception of African Americans (Lai & Zhao, 2010; Schuck, Rosenbaum, & Hawkins, 2008). In fact, Carter (1985) found that Hispanics were mostly unsatisfied with law enforcement because of the high expectations they held for the police that were unmet. African Americans on the other hand tended to disfavor the police because of the underlying racial tensions that have plagued U.S. society since the establishment and later abolishment of slavery (Carter, 1985; Jones-Brown, 2000). One incident that highlights these tensions, and has continued to hold significant weight on minority perceptions of law enforcement, was the beating of Rodney King in 1991 (Brown & Benedict, 2002; Jesilow, Meyer, & Namazzi, 1995; Lasley, 1994; Webb & Marshall, 1995). Despite video evidence, juries acquitted each officer involved. Public perceptions about the lack of fairness and legitimacy within the criminal justice system as a result of this verdict sparked the Los Angeles riots in 1992 (Brown & Benedict, 2002).

Although studies have supported the finding that African Americans tend to view the police less favorably, it is important to note that among every racial or ethnic group, there are notable differences in perception of the police based upon socioeconomic status, marital status, gender, age, and the crime rate of each individual's neighborhood (Parker, Onyekwuluje, & Murty, 1995). For instance, some studies suggest that middle-class African Americans and other minorities without criminal involvement tend to view the

police more negatively than their counterparts (Browning et al., 1994). Jones-Brown (2000) examined the perceptions of African American males in high school toward law enforcement. She found that the participants recognized most police tactics aimed at reducing drug and youth crimes as specifically targeting minorities; the participants also attributed an individual's race to the frequency with which he, or others who look like him, had encounters with the police (Jones-Brown, 2000). This research concerning juvenile perceptions of law enforcement is important because it illustrates how different variables, in this case race/ethnicity and age, can interact to better explain attitudes toward the police. These findings again solicit questions about how police officers view this group within society and whether the academy influences these views. Despite consistent findings of negative perceptions toward the police by minorities and juveniles, scholars must consider that these attitudes are only perceptions and not reality.

### **Police Training and Attitudes**

The impact that police attitudes and police discretion have had on police-citizen interactions, as illustrated by previous research, leads us to question where these attitudes emerge. In relation to this study: Do they emerge in the training academy? Public service professions, such as law enforcement or the military, are known to have trainings and camps that attempt to erase individual identities and re-socialize recruits based on their organization's beliefs. Fielding (1986) termed this process "organizational socialization." In his study, the researcher examined changes in police recruit attitudes in the UK from training to an officer's probationary period. Fielding (1986) highlights work that disputes the idea that the police, and similar agencies, search for recruits who

exhibit characteristics preferred by that organization. Rather, the selected recruits are socialized to reflect organizational initiatives. This study found that a change in attitude was reflective of recruits' internalizing and better understanding the role of police officers (Fielding, 1986). In a similar study, Haarr (2001) found that while police training academies positively influenced attitudes, these attitudes often changed as a result of organizational culture, which was determined by a recruit's assigned agency and field training officer.

The influence of field training officers over recruits led Sun (2002) to examine socialization between field training officers, or FTOs, and non-field training officers, to see if the officers differed across attitudes toward their peers, supervisors, top managers, and the community. The socialization of new officers was believed to positively influence how FTOs viewed their profession. Specifically, Van Maanen (1975) found that recruits were highly motivated and excited upon joining their department but other officers viewed this excitement negatively. Although recruit motivation declined over time, this study showed that urban police departments socialized officers to "not make waves" and go follow the lead of their superiors and veteran officers (Van Maanen, 1975). Sun (2002) found that FTOs were more critical of their superiors, which was likely the result of having specified knowledge in training and developing higher expectations of their profession. FTOs, like officers identified as non-FTOs in this study, held similar attitudes toward squad members and communities (Sun, 2002). The latter finding is also reflective of the socialization process that occurs during trainings, which lead individuals to regard similar components with the same mindset.

Unlike previous studies concerning law enforcement, Rosenbaum, et al. (2011a, 2011b) designed a mixed methods longitudinal study that followed roughly 1,000 officers from large and small departments across five different states. This study was backed by the National Police Research Platform, an initiative headed by police scholars who are dedicated to improving research in the art of policing, which is funded by the National Institute of Justice. Rosenbaum et al. (2011) make several contributions to police research: first, the research follows a large group of police officers across different departments and locations; second, the use of multiple data collection techniques; and third, the duration of this study supersedes that of other police-oriented studies. The purpose of this study was to examine the life course of police officers from their time in the police training academy until they leave the force in hopes of improving how officers are recruited, types of training in the academy, the retention of officers, officer productivity, holding officers accountable, and human services (Rosenbaum, Schuck, & Cordner, 2011). Several theoretical frameworks were used to examine the professional progression of law enforcement including “developmental, ecological, organizational, victimization-stress, and life course theories” (Rosenbaum et al., 2011). Numerous factors that were likely to influence an officer’s life course were analyzed in this study including family background, exposure to violence, communication skills, cynicism, job assessment, ethics, health and wellbeing. Descriptively, researchers found significant differences between the large and small police departments: the larger departments were more heterogeneous across race and gender and more officers had advanced education, whereas the small departments were largely comprised of officers with prior experience

in the military or as law enforcement (Rosenbaum, Schuck, & Cordner, 2011).

Preliminary results illustrate that new recruits differ from one another. For example, views on the mistreatment of minorities and women by society were split across groups that agree (25%), disagree (35%) or are neutral (40%) (Rosenbaum, Schuck, & Cordner, 2011). As this study is ongoing, the researchers have limited their analysis of the data to recruits who completed the pre and post tests during the first and last weeks of their training academy, but report success at the variety of responses and diverse expression of attitudes they have received thus far. The next phase of this study will incorporate additional mixed methods to analyze additional officers (Rosenbaum et al., 2011).

### **The Current Study- Research Questions**

The aforementioned literature discusses the “police personality” which develops from numerous facets of policing that facilitate organizational attitudes. The present study explores how existing attitudes might be changed by experiencing police training. More specifically, this study focuses on cynicism and the “us versus them” mentality that can influence police discretion, and in turn, police-citizen interactions. Do officer attitudes towards citizens, specifically minorities, women, the elderly, juveniles, and the lesbian gay bisexual and transgender (LGBT) communities, change during early organizational socialization in the police academy? These specific groups were selected as the police-citizen literature indicates that they are most affected by officer discretionary practices, which may be linked with officer attitudes toward people and society. Given the literature, an exploratory analysis is conducted to determine if there is a change in recruit attitudes. No specific directional change is predicted in this analysis

because it is believed that all recruits will display some increment of change, the magnitude of which will likely vary based on personal experiences before and during enrollment. Other factors such as the makeup of the recruit class and the type(s) of multicultural training the recruits receive, if any, may also play a large role in how much change is exhibited in attitudes toward the community. The very nature of organizations such as the military or the police also ensure a socialization process that encourages certain beliefs and behaviors over others.

### 3. METHOD

This study explores whether officer attitudes toward racial and ethnic minorities, women, the LGBT community, and juveniles change during police academy training. Toward this goal, this study uses an academy receptivity survey developed by Lum, Telep, Grieco, and Ghoston that includes portions of Rosenbaum et al.'s National Police Research Platform (2011) as well as Lum, Telep, Koper, and Grieco's (2012) receptivity survey to assess changes in recruit attitudes across a wide variety of issues before and after participation in a police training academy.

#### **Sample of Academy Recruits**

The present study examines change in recruit attitudes from the beginning to the end of the police training academy. This particular police academy was located in a large metropolitan area where recruits in the same cohort represent multiple municipal and county police agencies. Sixty nine of the 71 recruits completed the pre-test and 64 completed the post-test.<sup>2</sup>

The participants included 11 females (15.9%) and 58 males (84.1%). They ranged in age from 22 to 54 years of age, and had a mean age of 28.97 with a standard deviation of 5.40 units. Nineteen participants, or 27.5%, had previously served in the military while only 13 (18.8%) had served as sworn officers in other jurisdictions.

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<sup>2</sup> A unique identifier was assigned to each participant, which allowed the researchers to match the pre-academy survey with the post-academy survey for specific individuals.



The majority of the participants, 68.1%, were Caucasian and 31.9% were minorities of various ethnic backgrounds (see demographics in Table 1). An overwhelming majority had some college, an Associate's degree, or a college degree (53 participants or 76.8%).<sup>3</sup>

**Table 1. Participant Demographics**

	Frequency	Percent
<b><u>Race/Ethnicity</u></b>		
Other	1	1.4 %
Black or African American	8	11.6
Hispanic or Latino/Latina	9	13.0
White or Caucasian	47	68.1
Asian	2	2.9
<b><u>Gender</u></b>		
Female	8	11.6
Male	55	79.7
<b><u>Education</u></b>		
G.E.D. or High School	5	7.2
College	53	76.8
Graduate Degree	6	8.7
<b><u>Prior Military Service</u></b>		
No	50	72.5
Yes	19	27.5
<b><u>Prior Officer</u></b>		
No	56	81.2
Yes	13	18.8
<b><u>Age Category</u></b>		
21-25	15	21.7
26-30	28	40.6
31-35	10	14.5
36-40	5	7.2
51-55	1	1.4

<sup>3</sup> Demographic data was collected from the post-test responses. This decision was made because some recruits responded to the demographics differently in the post-test than they did in the pre-test. For example, someone who previously identified him or herself as mixed later identified as African American.

**Survey Administration**

Pre- and post-academy surveys were administered in paper-format to the police recruits preceding their lunch break. Prior to the study, the recruits were told of the researchers' affiliation with George Mason University and the Criminology, Law and Society program. It was explained that the survey being administered included a variety of questions aimed at better understanding various aspects of the policing profession. While the cohort was encouraged by their superiors to participate in the study, the participants were recruited solely on a volunteer basis. For the pretest, recruits were asked to complete the surveys within the next 3 to 4 days and submit the surveys into a locked drop box for the researchers to pick up later. Despite the time allotted, the majority of participants spent a portion of their break completing and returning the surveys. This quick turn around was noted for the post-test where no additional time, outside of the administration of the second survey, was allotted for recruits to participate.

**Survey Instrument**

Participants received a survey that included questions from Rosenbaum et al. (2011) and the National Police Research Platform survey, as well as Lum and Telep's receptivity survey. The survey instrument included a broad range of questions on various topics (see Appendix A). The present study analyzed selected questions from Sections E, J, and M of the police recruit survey (specific questions are outlined in the "Independent Variables" section below).

Section E asks participants to rank various police strategies from "very effective" to "not effective" or note if they are "unsure" about the specific tactic or have never heard of it. Participant views on community policing are especially important to this specific

study for several reasons. First, as mentioned previously, community-oriented policing has gained popularity with police departments nationwide. Second, this increased implementation has made establishing and maintaining strong ties between the community and law enforcement more important (Cordner, 1995; Frank, Smith, & Novak, 2005; Lai & Zhao, 2010). Third, community-policing appears to be a primary focus of the training academy analyzed in this study according to recruits who were informally interviewed about their experiences (discussed in further detail below). Finally, how recruits view community-oriented policing could shed a light on the reasoning behind their responses to questions in Section M.

Section M measures perceptions of “people and society,” and features more targeted questions about specific groups. These include questions about the treatment of minorities, women, senior citizens, and juveniles, all of whom may be considered marginalized groups, especially in terms of police-citizen relations. In conjunction with Sections E and J, questions in Section M are analyzed as a means to understand if and how the police training academy influences recruit attitudes toward populations that are typically associated with low or negative views of law enforcement. Similarly, the relevance of police trainings directed towards specific communities (Section J) could also explain responses to recruit perceptions of mistreatment (Section M).

## **Variables**

### **Dependent Variables**

The change in response to the following questions, before and after experiencing the police training academy, represent the dependent variables of this study:

1. If you have ever heard of this tactic [community policing], how effective do you think it is for reducing crime. [Section E]
2. Please give your opinion of the relevance of the following training (policing ethnic/minority communities) to practical police work. [Section J].
3. Please give your opinion of the relevance of the following training (policing gay communities) to practical police work. [Section J].
4. Overall, minorities have been mistreated by society. [Section M].
5. Overall, women have been mistreated by society. [Section M].
6. Overall, senior citizens have been mistreated by society. [Section M].
7. Overall, young people have been mistreated by society. [Section M].

This change is reflected by the differences from the scored responses on the pre-test to the responses on the post-test. Specifically, the dependent variables are: 1) the difference in the perceived effectiveness of community-oriented policing by academy recruits; 2) the difference in perceived relevance of training tailored to policing specific communities; and 3) the differences in recruit attitudes towards specific groups in society.

**Independent Variables**

For this study, the main independent variable of interest is the training received by the recruits in the police academy. The cohort examined in this study was enrolled in a 20-week law enforcement program (deputy sheriffs receive 5 additional weeks of training prior to the start of each class for a total of 25-weeks). Over the course of 20 weeks, recruits attend the academy four days a week, 10 hours a day. A typical day in the academy features classes in the morning and skills training in the afternoon; an additional 2 hours is dedicated to skills training at the end of each week. Although recruits take a variety of classes while in the academy, the majority of class hours are spent on patrol-related courses, which include modules on domestic violence, juvenile offenders, leadership, and use of force. The other course sections are: administration, criminal investigation, legal components, and practicals. In all, recruits experience roughly 800 hours of instruction over their course of enrollment in the academy. They are also tested several times throughout the academy on state-mandated material. Successful completion of the academy requires that recruits pass each examination (up to 3 attempts are allowed), and maintain at least a 70% grade point average in each academic section. The academy experience as a whole, as opposed to specific trainings within the academy, is examined as the intervention of interest.

Other independent variables of interest include gender, race/ethnicity, age, education, and military or previous experience as law enforcement. Age was categorized by intervals of 5 (i.e. 21-25, 26-30, and so on). Level of completed education was collapsed into 3 categories: GED/High school, College, and Graduate Degree (See Table 1 for participant demographics).

**Method of Analysis**

A change is expected to occur in attitudes; it is hypothesized that at least some change will be attributable to the participant's personal immutable characteristics (race/ethnicity, gender) and other changes may occur based on an individual's age and level of completed education or experience as a sworn officer or a member of the military.

Each wave of data was first analyzed descriptively to determine the types of people who participated in the study and how consistent the participants were in reporting their personal characteristics from pre to post test. There was a slight drop off in participation from pre to post test, but the overall response rate was high for both waves. Over ninety percent (92.9%) of the police academy cohort answered both waves of the survey, resulting in an N of 66. Following the descriptive analyses, the frequencies of each question of interest were generated. A paired samples test was used to determine if the differences in the change of response per question were statistically significant. The questions examined in this study were then summarized categorically with cross tabulation for any observable trends within the data. Finally, a chi-square test for association was used to determine if the amount of change the recruits exhibited across each question of interest from the beginning to the end of their experience in the academy was associated with their race/ethnicity, gender, level of education, age group, prior military service, or prior experience as a sworn officer.

#### **4. ANALYSIS & RESULTS**

To analyze the change in recruit response before and after their experiences in the police training academy a series of paired sample t-tests and chi-squared tests are used. The paired samples t-tests are used to determine if the differences in response to the survey questions before and after experiencing the training academy are statistically significant. Both Cramer's V and Kendall's Tau C were used within the chi-squared tests as a means to better understand if the observed differences were associated with a participant's race/ethnicity, gender, level of education, age, or prior experiences within the military or as a sworn officer in another jurisdiction. For the purpose of these analyses, all dichotomous variables were treated as ordinal.

Table 2 represents the distribution of change, before and after the training academy experience, for each question of interest. Negative amounts of change represent more disagreement by the participant and positive amounts of change represent more agreement. Across each question, the majority of participants demonstrated no change in response. The corresponding scale for each question and the association between these differences and the control variables are described in greater detail below.

**Table 2. The Distribution of Change Scores for Each Question of Interest**

Amount of Change	Mistreat Minorities	Mistreat Women	Mistreat Seniors	Mistreat Juveniles	Policing Ethnic Communities	Policing LGBT Communities	Community Policing
-3	2 (2.9%)	2 (2.9%)	1 (1.4%)	-	-	-	-
-2	5 (7.2%)	2 (2.9%)	8 (11.6%)	2 (2.9%)	3 (4.3%)	4 (5.8%)	5 (7.2%)
-1	10 (14.5%)	14 (20.3%)	12 (17.4%)	11 (15.9%)	12 (17.4%)	15 (21.7%)	21 (30.4%)
0	19 (27.5%)	17 (24.6%)	17 (24.6%)	27 (39.1%)	34 (49.3%)	22 (31.9%)	19 (27.5%)
1	18 (26.1%)	21 (30.4%)	22 (31.9%)	21 (30.4%)	12 (17.4%)	15 (21.7%)	13 (18.8%)
2	8 (11.6%)	7 (10.1%)	2 (2.9%)	3 (4.3%)	2 (2.9%)	5 (7.2%)	4 (5.8%)
3	2 (2.9%)	1 (1.4%)	1 (1.4%)	-	-	1 (1.4%)	2 (2.9%)
4	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 (1.4%)

### **Overall, minorities have been mistreated by society**

The overall change in participant response to minority mistreatment by society is demonstrated in Table 2. These changes were calculated by subtracting the coded responses for the question before and after the academy. For this analysis, 1 = Strongly Agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Disagree; and 5 = Strongly Disagree. A respondent who strongly agreed that minorities are mistreated by society before the academy but feels neutral after the academy, for example, will have a difference score of -2.



Table 3 illustrates the distribution of responses by participating police recruits. In both the pre- and post- test, many of the participants took a neutral stance on minority mistreatment by society. Another interesting observation from the Table 3 results is that more recruits seemed to agree with the statement following their experience in the academy (23.2%) than before (17.4%). Even though the most common answer before and after the academy experience did not change, it appears recruits tended to have positive change scores from before to after the academy indicating that their views of minorities in society may have been slightly influenced by their experience in the academy. However, Table 4 shows that there was no statistically significant difference from the pre and post test in recruit responses to the statement: “Overall minorities have been mistreated by society.”

**Table 3. Results to the statement, "Overall, minorities have been mistreated by society."**

	<b><u>Pre-Test Frequency</u></b>	<b><u>Post-Test Frequency</u></b>
<b><u>Strongly Agree</u></b>	5 (7.2%)	4 (5.8%)
<b><u>Agree</u></b>	12 (17.4%)	16 (23.2%)
<b><u>Neutral</u></b>	25 (36.2%)	28 (40.6)
<b><u>Disagree</u></b>	23 (33.3%)	14 (20.3%)
<b><u>Strongly Disagree</u></b>	4 (5.8%)	2 (2.9%)
<b><u>N</u></b>	69	64
<b><u>Mean Average Score</u></b>	3.13	2.91

**Table 4. Paired Samples Test for the Mistreatment of Minorities.**

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig (2-tailed)</b>
<b>Overall, minorities have been mistreated by society</b>	0.219	1.339	1.307	63	0.196

Following the descriptive examination of the response to this question, several cross tabulations and chi-squared tests were run to determine if various independent variables such as race/ethnicity, gender, level of education, prior military service, and prior experience as a sworn officer are significantly correlated to the amount of change in a recruit's response across his or her academy experience. Through these cross-examinations, no significant correlations between the independent variables and the amount of change in perception of minority mistreatment by society were found (see Table 5). One interesting observation from Table 5 is that females tend to disagree more than males that minorities have been mistreated by society, even though these differences are not significant.

**Table 5. The correlations between the following control variables and the amount of change to the statement: "Overall, minorities have been mistreated by society."**

<b><u>Independent Variable</u></b>	<b><u>Correlation Statistic Used</u></b>	<b><u>Correlation Coefficient</u></b>	<b><u>Significance</u></b>	<b><u>Interpretation</u></b>
<b><u>Race/Ethnicity</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.220	0.978	Race and ethnicity has a weak effect on perception however this effect is not significant.
<b><u>Gender</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.008	0.937	There appears to be a negative association between gender and perception: females tend to have a higher perception than males.
<b><u>Education</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.304	0.476	Education also had a weak association with perception.
<b><u>Prior Military</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	0.004	0.976	Prior military experience has a low association with this perception.
<b><u>Prior Officer</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	0.121	0.215	Experience as a sworn police officer in another jurisdiction also has a low association with perception.
<b><u>Age Range</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.297	0.649	Age range had a weak effect on perception.

### **Overall, women have been mistreated by society**

Table 6 illustrates the distribution of responses to the statement, "Overall, women have been mistreated by society." Experiencing the police training academy appeared to improve recruit attitudes toward the mistreatment of women, leading to more neutral

perspectives, although the change in response to this statement also failed to reach statistical significance (see Table 7). About forty percent (40.6%) of the participants took a neutral stance on this statement following their experience within the academy compared to 34.8% previously.

**Table 6. Results to the following statement: "Overall, women have been mistreated by society."**

	<b><u>Pre-Test Frequency</u></b>	<b><u>Post-Test Frequency</u></b>
<b><u>Strongly Agree</u></b>	3 (4.3%)	4 (5.8%)
<b><u>Agree</u></b>	14 (20.3%)	16 (23.2%)
<b><u>Neutral</u></b>	24 (34.8%)	28 (40.6)
<b><u>Disagree</u></b>	23 (33.3%)	14 (20.3%)
<b><u>Strongly Disagree</u></b>	5 (7.2%)	2 (2.9%)
<b><u>N</u></b>	69	64
<b><u>Mean Average Score</u></b>	3.19	2.91

**Table 7. Paired Samples Test for the Mistreatment of Women.**

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig (2-tailed)</b>
<b>Overall, women have been mistreated by society</b>	0.219	1.228	1.426	63	0.159

Again, the overall change in participant response can be found in Table 2. This distribution illustrates that many of the recruits had slight, 1-point-, changes that were largely positive. For example, at least one-third of the participants disagreed that women had been mistreated by society before engaging in the police academy training, following the training however 40% of the participants held a neutral stance to the same question (a change from 4 to 3).

Through each cross tabulation, none of the control variables were found to have a statistically significant relationship with the change in perception towards the mistreatment of women by society (Table 8). One interesting finding from this table is the differences between the dichotomous variables. Both gender and prior military experience have negative, inverse relationships; women and participants without military experience are more likely to disagree that women have been mistreated by society than men and those who have served in the military. Prior experience as a sworn officer in another jurisdiction has the opposite association however. Although this association is weak and insignificantly influences the change from before and after experiencing the training academy, participants who previously served as sworn officers were slightly more likely to disagree that women have been mistreated by society.

**Table 8. The correlations between the following control variables and the statement: "Overall, women have been mistreated by society."**

<b><u>Independent Variable</u></b>	<b><u>Correlation Statistic Used</u></b>	<b><u>Correlation Coefficient</u></b>	<b><u>Significance</u></b>	<b><u>Interpretation</u></b>
<b><u>Race/Ethnicity</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.231	0.958	Race/ethnicity has a small and weak association with the perception that women have been mistreated by society.
<b><u>Gender</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.022	0.836	Females are more likely to disagree that women have been mistreated by society in comparison to men.
<b><u>Education</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.349	0.224	The moderate association between education and this perception is not significant.
<b><u>Prior Military</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.054	0.697	Prior military experience was negatively associated with the perception of the mistreatment of women by society.
<b><u>Prior Officer</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	0.076	0.538	Prior experience as a sworn officer had a small, weak correlation to this but was not statistically significant.
<b><u>Age Range</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.334	0.336	The association between age and perception is small and insignificant.

### **Overall, senior citizens have been mistreated by society**

Participant responses to the statement: "Overall, senior citizens have been mistreated by society" are distributed in Table 9. In comparison of the pre- and post- test responses to the above statement, participation in the police training academy does not appear to have any effect on the perceptions of the recruits toward senior citizens, there was no statistically significant difference in response (Table 10).

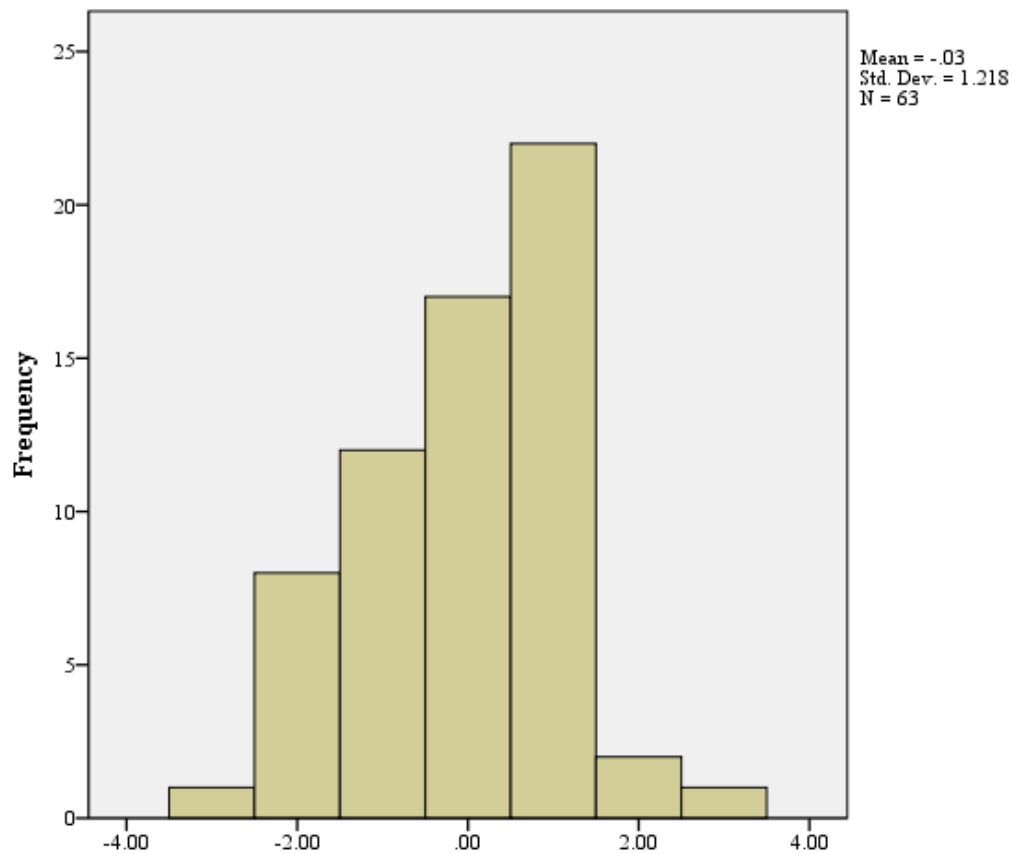
**Table 9. Results to the following statement: "Overall, senior citizens have been mistreated by society."**

	<b><u>Pre-Test Frequency</u></b>	<b><u>Post-Test Frequency</u></b>
<b><u>Strongly Agree</u></b>	1 (1.4%)	2 (2.9%)
<b><u>Agree</u></b>	14 (20.3%)	10 (15.6%)
<b><u>Neutral</u></b>	30 (43.5%)	31 (44.9%)
<b><u>Disagree</u></b>	19 (27.5%)	18 (26.1%)
<b><u>Strongly Disagree</u></b>	4 (5.8%)	3 (4.3%)
<b><u>N</u></b>	68	64
<b><u>Mean Average Score</u></b>	3.16	3.16

**Table 10. Paired Samples Test for the Mistreatment of Senior Citizens by Society.**

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig (2-tailed)</b>
<b>Overall, senior citizens have been mistreated by society</b>	-0.032	1.218	-0.207	62	0.837

Despite the frequencies of participant responses noted in Table 9, Figure 1 illustrates that many recruits had an average of a one-point change, either positive or negative, towards the mistreatment of senior citizens by society. Figure 1 further illustrates that the number of responses to each answer choice masks any changes the police recruits adopt as a result of involvement with the training academy.



**Figure 1. The distribution of change scores to the statement: "Overall, senior citizens have been mistreated by society."**

Cross-examination of the control variables with the differences between recruit responses prior to and following police training, found no significant influences to a participant's perception of the mistreatment of senior citizens by society (Table 11). Although the level of education is not associated with a significant change in perception, in comparison to the other variables of interest, education has the strongest association with a participant's opinion on the mistreatment of senior citizens by society.



**Table 11. The correlations between the following control variables and the statement: "Overall, senior citizens have been mistreated by society."**

<b><u>Independent Variable</u></b>	<b><u>Correlation Statistic Used</u></b>	<b><u>Correlation Coefficient</u></b>	<b><u>Significance</u></b>	<b><u>Interpretation</u></b>
<b><u>Race/Ethnicity</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.232	0.961	The small association between race/ethnicity and perception of the mistreatment of senior citizens is not significant.
<b><u>Gender</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.127	0.189	The negative, weak association between gender and this perception are not statistically significant.
<b><u>Education</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.349	0.236	Moderately associated with this perception, education was found not to be significantly associated.
<b><u>Prior Military</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.026	0.843	Prior military experience was not significantly correlated with a change in perception to this question.
<b><u>Prior Officer</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	0.055	0.596	Service as a prior officer is not significantly associated with a change in opinion to this question.
<b><u>Age Range</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.252	0.928	Age range was not significantly correlated with a change in perception.

**Overall, young people have been mistreated by society**

The distribution of responses to the statement: “Overall, young people have been mistreated by society” is depicted by Table 12 below. Prior to the training academy, recruits primarily disagreed or held a neutral position concerning the mistreatment of juveniles. Following police training however, 50% of the participants held neutral views. Despite these changes, the differences in responses were not statistically significant (Table 13).

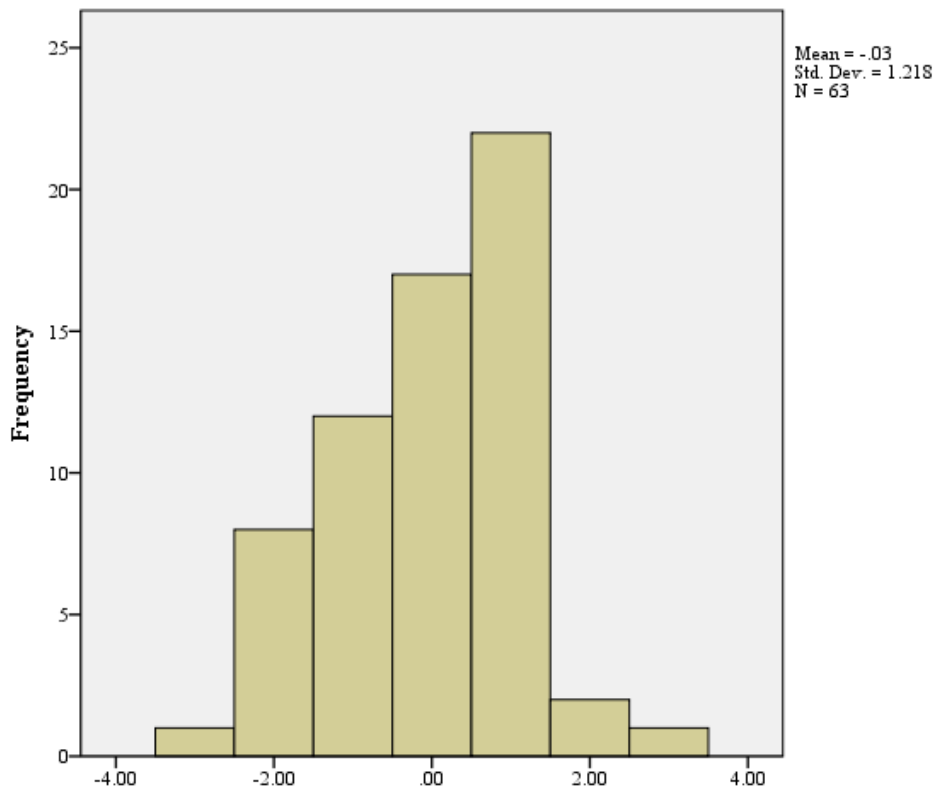
**Table 11. Results to the statement: "Overall, juveniles have been mistreated by society."**

	<b><u>Pre-Test Frequency</u></b>	<b><u>Post-Test Frequency</u></b>
<b><u>Strongly Agree</u></b>	1 (1.4%)	--
<b><u>Agree</u></b>	8 (11.6%)	9 (13.0%)
<b><u>Neutral</u></b>	27 (39.1%)	35 (50.7%)
<b><u>Disagree</u></b>	26 (37.7%)	18 (26.1%)
<b><u>Strongly Disagree</u></b>	7 (10.1%)	2 (2.9%)
<b><u>N</u></b>	69	64
<b><u>Mean Average Score</u></b>	3.43	3.20

**Table 12. Paired Samples Test for the Mistreatment of Juveniles**

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig (2-tailed)</b>
<b>Overall, juveniles have been mistreated by society</b>	0.219	1.339	1.307	63	0.196

Figure 2 illustrates that many of the participants had a positive one-unit change in their perception of the mistreatment of juveniles by society. The next largest group experienced no change across their time in the training academy. This small increment of change, one unit, coupled with the large number of participants who did not change their perceptions as a result of the academy may account for the increase in neutral perspectives from the pre to post test represented in Table 12.



**Figure 2. The distribution of change scores to the statement: "Overall, young people have been mistreated by society."**

Once again, the cross-examinations show no statistically significant influence of the control variables on the opinion that juveniles have been mistreated by society (see Table 13). The level of completed education is close to predicting a significant association with the perception of juvenile mistreatment by society,  $p = 0.068 > \alpha = 0.05$ . Another interesting finding from Table 10 is that prior experience as an officer has a small correlation with opinions that typically agree that society has mistreated young people.

**Table 13. The correlations between the following control variables and the statement, "Overall, young people have been mistreated by society."**

<b><u>Independent Variable</u></b>	<b><u>Correlation Statistic Used</u></b>	<b><u>Correlation Coefficient</u></b>	<b><u>Significance</u></b>	<b><u>Interpretation</u></b>
<b><u>Race/Ethnicity</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.152	0.990	Race/ethnicity was not significantly correlated to the change in perception towards this question.
<b><u>Gender</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	0.056	0.497	The correlation between gender and change in perception were not significant.
<b><u>Education</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.340	0.068	The moderate correlation between education and a change in perception is not significant.
<b><u>Prior Military</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	0.114	0.392	Prior military experience was not statistically associated with a change in perception to this question.
<b><u>Prior Officer</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.006	0.956	Previously serving as a sworn officer was not associated with a change in perception.
<b><u>Age Range</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.226	0.738	The correlation between age range and perception to this question were not statistically associated.

**Relevance of training in policing in ethnic/minority communities to practical police work**

Table 14 represents the distribution of participant responses to the question that receiving specific training to police ethnic and minority communities is relevant. Unlike the previous questions that ask the participants about their personal views towards the aforementioned groups, this question is concerned with the participants' professional views. Prior to experiencing the police academy, over half of the recruits (62.3%) identified specific training on how to police ethnic and minorities communities as very relevant. Although over half of the recruits (56.5%) still reported that this community-specific training was very relevant in the post-academy survey, there was a clear decline in this belief following the academy. The difference in responses was not statistically significant (see Table 15).

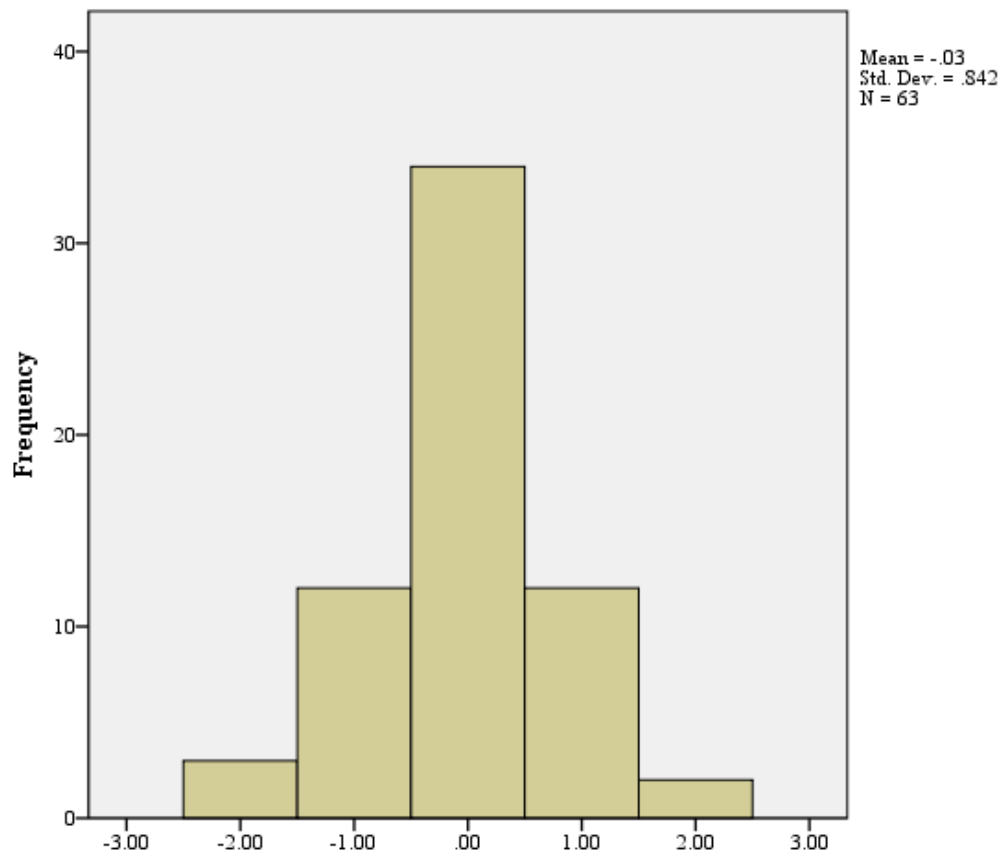
**Table 14. Results to the question: How relevant is training to police ethnic/minority communities?**

	<u>Pre-Test Frequency</u>	<u>Post-Test Frequency</u>
<u>Very Relevant</u>	43 (62.3%)	39 (56.5%)
<u>Somewhat Relevant</u>	19 (27.5%)	21 (30.4%)
<u>Not Very Relevant</u>	5 (7.2%)	5 (7.2%)
<u>N</u>	67	65
<u>Mean Average Score</u>	1.43	1.48

**Table 15. Paired Samples Test for the Relevance of Policing Ethnic/Minority Communities?**

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig (2-tailed)</b>
<b>How relevant is training to police ethnic/minority communities?</b>	0.219	1.339	1.307	63	0.196

The amount of change before and after experiencing the training academy appears normally distributed (see Figure 3). Although Table 15 appears to show some differences between the responses to the pre and post test, Figure 3 illustrates that the majority of participants did not change their opinion on the relevance of policing ethnic and minority communities as a result of participation in the police academy. These changes were calculated by subtracting the coded responses for the question before and after the training academy. For this analysis, 1 = Very Relevant; 2 = Somewhat Relevant; 3 = Not Very Relevant; and 4 = Not At All Relevant. As with the previous questions, someone who believes training about policing ethnic and minority communities is not very relevant before the academy but feels it is somewhat relevant after the academy will have a difference score of 1.



**Figure 3. The distribution of change to the question: How relevant is policing ethnic/minority communities?**

Even though Table 15 illustrates that fewer participants believed that specific training concerning how to police ethnic and minority communities was relevant following the academy, Figure 3 reveals that most participants did not change their opinions at all. It is possible that the decline is more reflective of the reduction in participation than actual change in response.

Cross tabulations with Cramer's V and Kendall's Tau-c were once again calculated and found no significant associations between race/ethnicity, gender,



education, prior military experience, prior experience as a sworn officer, or age category and opinions about the relevance of trainings concerning policing ethnic and minority communities (see Table 16). Although the correlations were weak , race/ethnicity and level of education were most closely associated with the participant opinions.

**Table 16. The correlations between the following control variables and the question: How relevant is training to police ethnic/minority communities?**

<u><b>Independent Variable</b></u>	<u><b>Correlation Statistic Used</b></u>	<u><b>Correlation Coefficient</b></u>	<u><b>Significance</b></u>	<u><b>Interpretation</b></u>
<u><b>Race/Ethnicity</b></u>	Cramer's V	0.274	0.289	Race/ethnicity was not significantly associated with the change in perception to this question.
<u><b>Gender</b></u>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.035	0.739	Gender was not significantly correlated with perception of this question.
<u><b>Education</b></u>	Cramer's V	0.283	0.268	Education was also not significantly associated with the change in perceptions in this question.
<u><b>Prior Military</b></u>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.027	0.799	The correlation between prior military experience and the change in perception is not significant

<b><u>Prior Officer</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	0.044	0.663	Previous experience as an officer was not associated with any
<b><u>Age Range</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.194	0.929	Age range was not significantly associated with reduce.

### **Relevance of training in policing in gay communities to practical police work**

The distribution of responses to the relevance of training to police gay

communities are depicted by Table 17 below. In both the pre- and post- test, nearly half of the participants identified this type of training as very relevant. There also appears to be a decrease in the number of recruits who saw this training as not very relevant prior to experiencing the policing academy (17.4%) compared to those who felt similarly afterwards (10.1%). Again these differences were not statistically significant (Table 18).

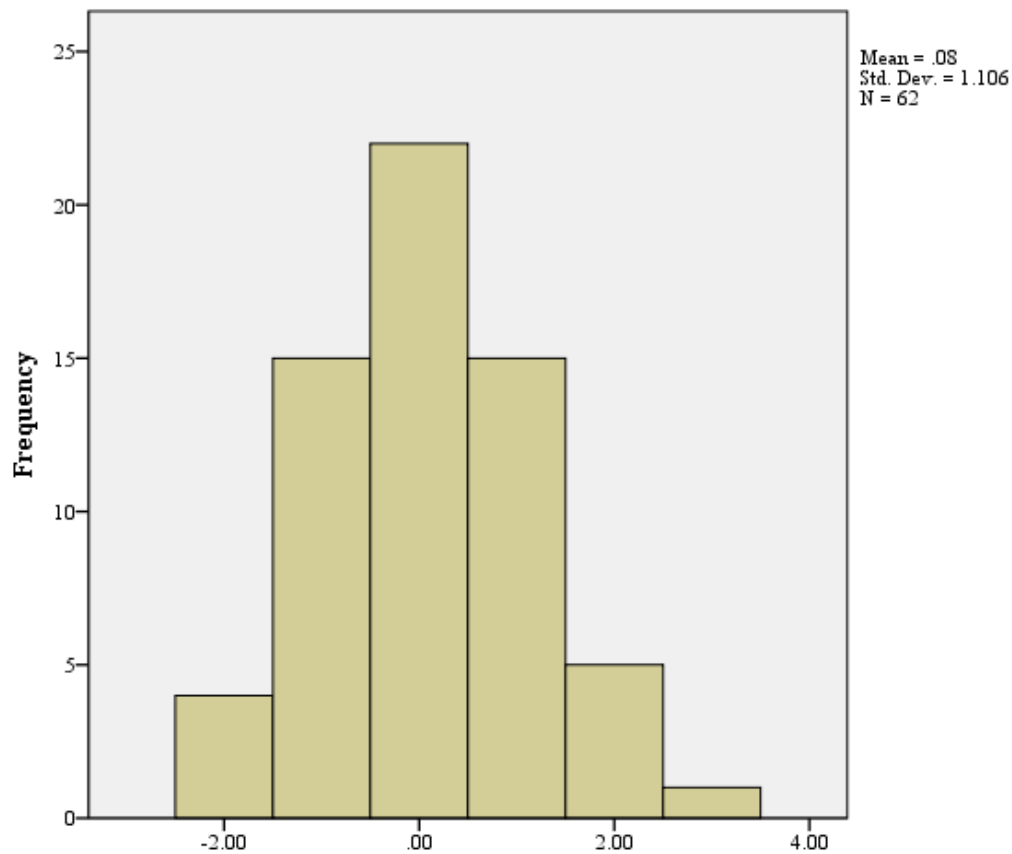
**Table 17. Results to the question: How relevant is training to police gay communities?**

	<b><u>Pre-Test Frequency</u></b>	<b><u>Post-Test Frequency</u></b>
<b><u>Very Relevant</u></b>	34 (49.3%)	32 (46.4%)
<b><u>Somewhat Relevant</u></b>	19 (27.5%)	23 (33.3%)
<b><u>Not Very Relevant</u></b>	12 (17.4%)	7 (10.1%)
<b><u>Not At All Relevant</u></b>	2 (2.9%)	2 (2.9%)
<b><u>N</u></b>	67	64
<b><u>Mean Average Score</u></b>	1.73	1.67

**Table 18. Paired Samples Test for the Relevance of Training to Police Gay Communities**

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig (2-tailed)</b>
<b>How relevant is training to police gay communities?</b>	0.081	1.106	0.574	61	0.568

The overall change in participant response to the relevance of training to police gay communities are represented by Figure 4. This distribution of change appears approximately normal with a large number of police recruits reporting no change in their opinion to this type of training despite their experiences within the academy.



**Figure 4. The distribution of change scores to the question: How relevant is training to police gay communities?**

Cross examination of the independent variables show no significant correlations with the amount of change in the perception of the relevance of training to policing gay communities (Table 19). Gender and prior military experience have the least associations with the change in opinions prior to and following the training academy. Once again the level of education has the largest association with the change in perception despite being statistically insignificant.

**Table 19. The correlations between the following control variables and the question: How relevant is training to police gay communities?**

<b><u>Independent Variable</u></b>	<b><u>Correlation Statistic Used</u></b>	<b><u>Correlation Coefficient</u></b>	<b><u>Significance</u></b>	<b><u>Interpretation</u></b>
<b><u>Race/Ethnicity</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.308	0.282	Race/ethnicity is not significantly correlated with the change in the perception of this question.
<b><u>Gender</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.009	0.935	Gender was not significantly associated with the change in perception.
<b><u>Education</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.345	0.150	The moderate correlation with education was not significantly associated with perception
<b><u>Prior Military</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	0.001	0.993	Prior military experience was not significantly correlated with the change in perception.
<b><u>Prior Officer</u></b>	Kendall's Tau-c	0.032	0.745	Previous experience as an officer was not associated with a change in perception.
<b><u>Age Range</u></b>	Cramer's V	0.242	0.873	Age range was not significantly correlated with the change in perception.

### **Community policing and its effectiveness**

The final question analyzed in this study concerns the perceived effectiveness of community policing. Table 20 represents the distribution of responses to this question in

the pre- and post- test. In both administrations of the survey, participants largely believed that community policing is very effective or effective: for the pre-test, 73.9% believed this method of policing is effective versus 69.5% in the post-test. These differences were not statistically significant (Table 21).

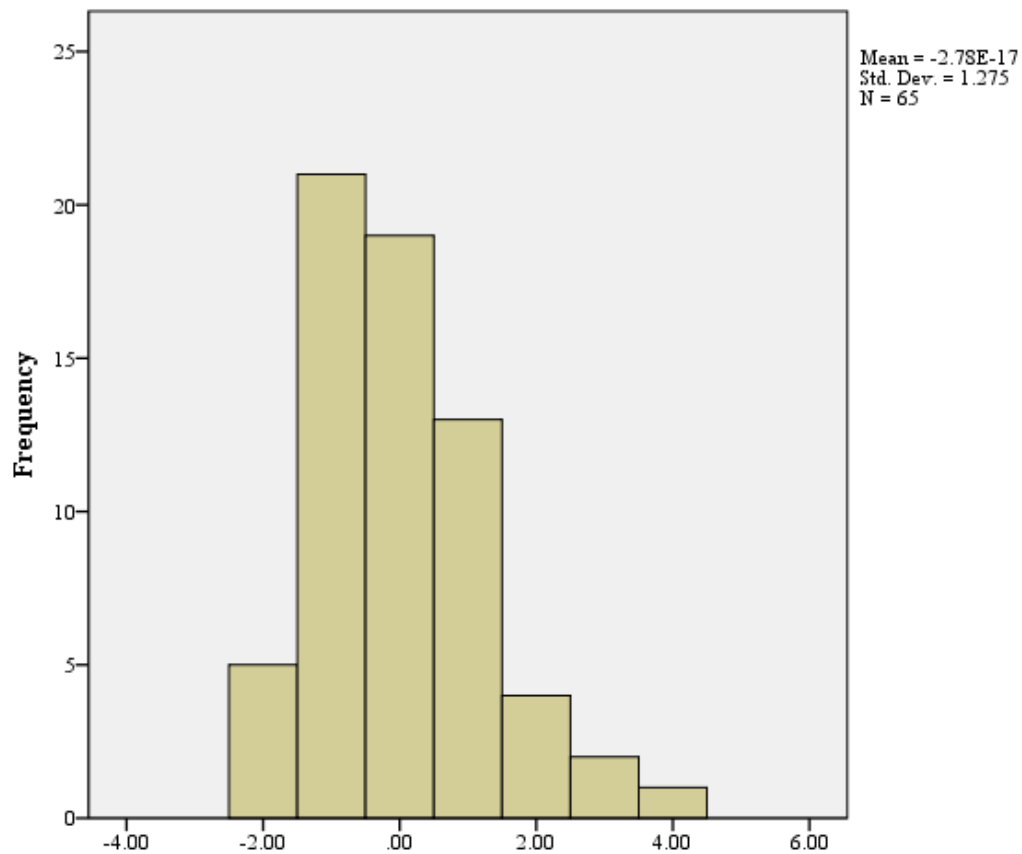
**Table 20. Results to the follow question: How effective is community policing?**

	<u>Pre-Test Frequency</u>	<u>Post-Test Frequency</u>
<u>Very Effective</u>	26 (37.7%)	21 (30.4%)
<u>Effective</u>	25 (36.2%)	27 (39.1%)
<u>Somewhat Effective</u>	13 (18.8%)	15 (21.7%)
<u>Not Effective</u>	2 (2.9%)	2 (2.9%)
<u>Have Not Heard of this Tactic</u>	3 (4.3%)	--
<u>N</u>	69	65
<u>Mean Average Score</u>	2.04	1.97

**Table 21. Paired Samples Test for the Effectiveness of Community Policing**

Statement	Mean Difference	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
How effective is community policing?	0.000	1.275	0.000	64	1.000

Figure 5 depicts a change in perception that is right skewed wherein most of the police recruits experienced a decrease in their opinion by one unit and only a couple recruits reported a large change in their perceptions of the effectiveness of community policing. These changes were calculated by subtracting the coded responses from before and after the training academy. For this particular question, 1 = Very Effective; 2 = Effective; 3 = Somewhat Effective, 4 = Not Effective; and 5 = Have Not Heard of this Tactic.



**Figure 5. The distribution of change to the question: How effective is community policing?**

While the frequencies of recruit responses remained the same, Figure 5 illustrates some fluctuation in recruit opinion about the effectiveness of community policing. Despite the large number of participants who perceived community policing as less effective following their experience in the academy, a good portion of recruits also exhibited no change following the academy.

The cross examination of the control variables and the amount of change concerning the effectiveness of the community policing tactic produced only one



statistically significant association (Table 21). Gender was found to have a weak, negative correlation with the difference in opinion before and after experiencing the police training academy. According to Table 22, women were more likely to view the community policing tactic as a less effective means to policing than were men.

**Table 22. The correlations between the following control variables and the question: How effective is community policing?**

<u><b>Independent Variable</b></u>	<u><b>Correlation Statistic Used</b></u>	<u><b>Correlation Coefficient</b></u>	<u><b>Significance</b></u>	<u><b>Interpretation</b></u>
<u><b>Race/Ethnicity</b></u>	Cramer's V	0.368	0.074	Race/ethnicity was not significantly associated with a change in perception.
<u><b>Gender</b></u>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.198	0.013	A weak negative association was found between gender and the change in perception to this question. Women were less likely to view community policing as effective than men.
<u><b>Education</b></u>	Cramer's V	0.217	0.915	Education was not statistically associated with change in perception.
<u><b>Prior Military</b></u>	Kendall's Tau-c	-0.144	0.278	Prior military service was also not significantly associated with a change in perception.
<u><b>Prior Officer</b></u>	Kendall's Tau-c	0.035	0.739	Prior service as a sworn officer was also not significantly correlated.
<u><b>Age Range</b></u>	Cramer's V	0.298	0.639	Age range was not significantly associated with the change in perception.

## **5. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION**

Previous research has focused on the culture of police (or the police personality), officer cynicism, and the relationship between the community and law enforcement with regard to community policing. Over the last few decades, one of the largest points of interest by policing scholars has been the consistently negative media attention directed towards law enforcement and how (un)favorably various groups within society, such as minorities and juveniles, view police officers and their mission (Decker, 1981; Hawdon & Ryan, 2003; Jones-Brown, 2000; Kusow, Wilson, & Martin, 1997; Scaglione & Condon, 1980; Webb & Marshall, 1995). The present study approached community policing and the relationship between law enforcement and the community in a different manner, by questioning the officers directly. Such a study is important to the realm of policing because of the increased use of community-oriented policing and the need to establish positive relationships between law enforcement and various groups within society, particularly with those who lack a history of positive relations with the police.

For this study, the pre- and post- survey responses to each question were analyzed to see if there were any changes in recruit perceptions from the time they began training at the police academy until it ended. All post-test responses were subtracted from the pre-test responses to generate a change score; the significance of these differences was observed through paired samples tests. These change scores were further analyzed with

cross tabulations to determine if the observed differences were associated with a recruit's race/ethnicity, gender, education, prior service in the military, prior experience as a sworn officer in another jurisdiction, or age.

Across each question of interest there was an equal amount of change (both positive and negative) and no change from pre to post test. The amount of change exhibited was also normally distributed for many of the questions. Of the six cross tabulations run for each of the seven questions of interest, only one cross tabulation was found to have a statistically significant association: the amount of change in the perceived effectiveness of the community policing tactic and gender ( $\tau = -0.198$ ,  $p = 0.013$ ). Even though this analysis only produced one statistically significant finding, this study still adds to the existing police research. One addition that this research makes is in regard to the importance of education. Despite not being statistically significant in any of the analyses, education had a moderately positive correlation in each analysis with the amount of change in each question. This suggests that education may play a role in the development or modification of police officer attitudes toward the community.

The analysis of this project was supplemented by several informal interviews with a random selection of police recruits. One theme that persisted throughout each discussion was the importance the academy placed on community policing. This coincides with the increased adaptation by police departments, nationwide, towards community-oriented policing and the growing importance of police-community relations (Cordner, 1995; Frank, Smith, & Novak, 2005; Lai & Zhao, 2010). The results of the analysis on responses to questions about the community, in conjunction with the insight

provided by some of the recruits directly, seems to indicate that recruits receive messages that stress the importance of community policing as well as information that stresses the negative perception of law enforcement that many within society have. The recruits interviewed noted these points: community-oriented policing was highlighted as equally as the negativity that some members within society have towards law enforcement simply because of their chosen profession. One recruit mentioned that some of the videos used during training made him hyperaware of the bad that society is capable of and the need to be more aware of his surroundings while in his everyday life, but especially while in uniform. These statements attest to the generally agreeable pre-test findings outlined within this study. Personal experience leads many recruits to enter the academy with positive perceptions of their community, and while the academy enforces this view, it simultaneously cautions recruits against the plethora of negative attention they are sure to receive.

It is possible that the minimal amount of change denoted by the recruits' responses toward various questions about the community reflect these mixed messages that recruits receive about the citizens they know from their personal lives and the citizens they will police. Alongside these mixed messages, one might expect the minimal differences in response observed in this survey because of the duration of the intervention. A 20 to 25 week training cannot be expected to alter 22-plus years of experiences that help shape independent perspectives. This may be especially true for the older participants such as the 54 year old in the current study.

### **Limitations and Future Research**

There are several limitations to this study that must be noted, and these suggest areas for improvements for future research. First, the study only analyzed data from 66 participants; inconclusive results could be linked to the study's low statistical power. The particular academy examined in this analysis allows up to 120 recruits in each cohort. The variability of each recruit class should be considered for future analyses as each academy will differ on the maximum number of enrollments they will allow. This is important because larger recruit classes may lead to an increase in the number of participants to the study and increase the level of external validity.

Second, while this study is unique in its examination of police recruits, the data and findings are only generalizable to police academy cohorts in metropolitan areas with similar officer trainings. Similar to the first limitation, the generalizability of future research is dependent on the police academy examined, specifically, its location, the curriculum, and the makeup of the recruits within said academy. To increase the external validity of future findings, researchers should consider examining multiple cohorts from different academies simultaneously.

Another limitation to the study is the location in which that the survey was administered. Surveys were given to participants at the academy in a large, lecture-style room with little space between recruits. Due to the lack of privacy, as well as restricted time allotted for recruits to take the survey, it is highly possible that the participants responded to the survey based on how they believed their superiors at the academy would want them to answer and or how their fellow cohort members would respond. Future researchers should consider alternative methods of survey administration such as

allowing participants to complete the surveys online on their own time. It is important to note, however, that such an option may significantly reduce the amount of participation.

One of the most important limitations of the study concerns the instrument used to analyze recruit attitudes toward the community. It could be argued that this study fails to adequately assess recruit attitudes. Future research should consider the use of another instrument or combination of instruments to better examine attitudes and beliefs. One such instrument might be the implicit attitudes test, or the IAT, which measures unconscious or automatic thoughts and actions through a timed model that tests word associations. Although the implicit attitudes test has its own limitations, this test is well known and has been used repeatedly as the best current measure of implicit attitudes. The researchers of this study attempted to use the IAT for the present study however these attempts were unsuccessful. This study focuses on a conscious change in the general attitude as opposed to the innate beliefs held by police recruits.

The strength of the instrument used to analyze personal beliefs or attitude leads to one final limitation to the present study: the translation from the responses generated in this study into behavior towards members of the community. Frank and Brandl (1991) note that previous police research has focused on associating one attitude with one behavior when multiple attitudes could result in the same or similar action. Likewise, Mastrofski (2000) notes that prior police research has searched for common factors within and between police officers and have used these similarities to explain the police culture, specifically how officers behave. Future research should consider how situational factors influence officer behavior in the field and the attitudes that different

situations invoke in responding officers. One situational factor future researchers might consider is an officer's stage within his career and how various stages may change the perspective of law enforcement towards the community and various groups within the community. Examining recruits at different stages of their career is a tactic employed by Rosenbaum et al (2011) and the National Police Research Platform.

### **Contributions**

This study is important to police research because it tries to not only understand aspects of the "police personality" such as the "us versus them" mentality and cynical attitudes towards the community, but also if the intervention of the academy influences these views. The first administration of the survey serves as a baseline to gather recruit beliefs about various marginalized groups prior to their engagement with the police training academy. The second wave of the survey is used as a comparison to see if the police training process causes the recruits to alter their view towards certain groups. As an exploratory analysis, this study makes no directional hypothesis of change. The juxtaposition of research on the societal view of police and law enforcement's view of society allow police scholars to better contemplate how to foster positive relations between the two groups.

As previously mentioned, psychologists recognize decision-making as the result of unconscious beliefs or biases that influence overt behavior (Bertrand, Chugh, & Mullainathan, 2005). Research on police attitudes, and the link between these attitudes and behavior, is important because of the impact these behaviors may have on the community. Because police officers are granted copious amounts of discretion by



determining who to stop and who to arrest, misbehavior by officers only deepens the rifts between law enforcement and the community. The emphasis that psychologists place on the unconscious affecting behavior directly contradicts Herbert Simon's (1948) belief that all decisions are made consciously while reinforcing Mastrofski's (2000) focus on situational factors. Researching police attitudes can also aid in making officers more aware of the cynical beliefs they may harbor. This in turn can encourage officers to become more cognizant of their decisions in the field and more understanding of why some citizens hold negative perceptions of them and how to reshape these perceptions.

Examining police attitudes and how these attitudes are influenced could also lead police scholars to rewrite the police training curriculum, or even develop trainings specifically designed to counteract cynicism. Instead of trainings focused on the operational or procedural aspects of policing these new trainings would focus on changing officer attitudes like the Fair and Impartial Policing Training developed by Lorie Fridell (n.d.).

Additional research on police attitudes will allow law enforcement to create new strategies to address any negative perceptions and create new strategies that allow law enforcement to engage with the community. Once the community and law enforcement establish a better rapport, the effectiveness of the community-oriented tactic should rise. It is important to note that while better understanding each perspective is necessary to foster a stronger connection, the perspectives of law enforcement and citizens will vary across communities.

**Conclusion**

In sum, understanding the perception of law enforcement towards the community is essential in developing more efficient community-oriented policing tactics. Current research has focused on societal beliefs about the police in an effort to improve the rapport between these groups without equal consideration of the perceptions held by the police. While this study found only one significant association between gender, training and the change in perceptions about the effectiveness of community policing, future research is needed to determine what other factor or combination of factors influence officer attitudes toward the community.

## **APPENDIX A**

### **INFORMED CONSENT FORM for "Examining recruit officer attitudes about policing" RESEARCH PROCEDURES**

This research is being conducted to understand recruit officer attitudes about policing and how they change over time. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to answer a short paper survey. This survey is conducted independent of your academy training and no survey or individual results will be accessible by staff members of this academy.

### **RISKS**

There are no foreseeable risks for participating in this research. The questions asked are general questions about your attitudes towards policing and people. The survey and each of its questions are voluntary, and you may choose not to answer any question. Your answers are confidential.

### **BENEFITS**

There are no benefits given to you for participating in this survey. No compensation is given and the survey is voluntary. The benefits are research-oriented: to further understand the impact of police academy training on recruits.

### **CONFIDENTIALITY**

The data in this study will be confidential. Please **DO NOT** put your name on this survey. No identifiable information is asked from you. You will be instructed to create a unique survey code at the front and end of the survey only for the purpose of linking two surveys from the same participant together (before and after the academy). However, even though these two surveys are linked, they will not be connected to your name or identity, and therefore the survey is completely anonymous and confidential.

### **PARTICIPATION**

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decide not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party for participating in this research.

### **CONTACT**

This research project is led by Dr. Cynthia Lum, Director of the Center for Evidence-Based Crime Policy at George Mason University. She may be reached at 703-993-3421 for questions or to report a research-related problem. You may contact the George Mason University Office of Research Integrity & Assurance at 703-993-4121 if you have questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research. This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research.

PLEASE RETAIN THIS CONSENT DOCUMENT FOR YOUR RECORDS.

**SURVEY CODE (instructions provided by GMU Team):** \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for participating in this survey. Remember your responses are confidential, and there are no right or wrong answers. Please answer to the best of your knowledge and as honestly as possible.

**A. Decision to Become a Police Officer**

*Thinking back to when you made your decision to become a police officer, how important was each of the following in making your decision?*

	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Very Important	Not at all Important
1. Desire to work with people	1	2	3	4
2. Desire to serve the community	1	2	3	4
3. Desire for job security	1	2	3	4
4. Excitement of police work	1	2	3	4
5. Desire to fight crime	1	2	3	4
6. Good job prospects	1	2	3	4
7. Working outdoors	1	2	3	4
8. Admiration for police officers	1	2	3	4
9. Good pay	1	2	3	4
10. A step toward another profession	1	2	3	4
11. Early retirement and a pension	1	2	3	4
12. Wishes of parents, family, or friends	1	2	3	4
13. I needed a job	1	2	3	4
14. Enjoy the prestige of being an officer	1	2	3	4

**B. Being a Police Officer**

*Please circle the number that best represents your opinion.*

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Becoming a police officer will make me a different person.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Becoming a police officer will not change me in any noticeable way.	1	2	3	4	5
3. As a police officer, people will respect what I have to say.	1	2	3	4	5
4. As a police officer, people will need to obey my orders.	1	2	3	4	5
5. As a police officer, I will have the power to help people in need.	1	2	3	4	5
6. As a police officer, people will look up to me.	1	2	3	4	5
7. As a police officer, I will be respected by society.	1	2	3	4	5

**C. Goals of Policing**

*Listed below are some goals of police departments. Please rate these goals according to their importance to you.*

	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Very Important	Not at all important
1. Provide rapid response to emergency calls	1	2	3	4
2. Enforce the law fairly	1	2	3	4
3. Reduce the incidence of crime and violence	1	2	3	4
4. Increase citizens' feelings of safety	1	2	3	4
5. Involve the community in crime prevention	1	2	3	4
6. Improve education and training of police personnel	1	2	3	4
7. Improve methods and strategies for catching criminals	1	2	3	4
8. Provide technological support for police work	1	2	3	4
9. Improve services to victims	1	2	3	4

10. Encourage the use of negotiation and conflict resolution	1	2	3	4
11. Improve the investigations of crime	1	2	3	4
12. Increase public satisfaction with police service	1	2	3	4
13. Improve the working conditions for officers	1	2	3	4

#### **D. Questions about Education**

1. How important do you think pursuing higher education (i.e. more than a high school diploma) is for police officers in general?

- \_\_\_\_\_ a. Not important
- \_\_\_\_\_ b. Somewhat important
- \_\_\_\_\_ c. Important
- \_\_\_\_\_ d. Very important
- \_\_\_\_\_ e. Essential

2. What do you think should be the minimum educational standard for new police recruits in your agency?

- \_\_\_\_\_ a. No educational standard
- \_\_\_\_\_ b. High school diploma
- \_\_\_\_\_ c. Some college
- \_\_\_\_\_ d. Associate's degree
- \_\_\_\_\_ e. Bachelor's degree

3. In day to day decision making, what do you think the balance should be between the use of scientific research/knowledge (e.g. from universities and research organizations) and personal experience? (Choose one answer)

- \_\_\_\_\_ a. Experience should be most important (90%) and scientific knowledge should make little contribution (10%)
- \_\_\_\_\_ b. Experience should be more important (75%) but scientific knowledge should make some contribution (25%)
- \_\_\_\_\_ c. Experience (50%) and scientific knowledge (50%) should both make an equal contribution
- \_\_\_\_\_ d. Scientific knowledge should be more important (75%) but experience should make some contribution (25%)
- \_\_\_\_\_ e. Scientific knowledge should be most important (90%) and experience should make little contribution (10%)

### E. View of police strategies

Below is a list of policing strategies. If you have heard of the strategy, indicate whether you think it is very effective, effective, somewhat effective, or not effective **for reducing crime and disorder**. If you have not heard of the strategy, please indicate so.

Strategy	If You Have Heard of the Tactic, How Effective Do You Think It Is for Reducing Crime?					
	Very Effective	Effective	Somewhat Effective	Not Effective	Unsure	Have not heard of this tactic
1. Random preventive patrol						
2. Hot spots policing						
3. Community-oriented policing						
4. Problem-oriented policing						
5. Rapid response to 911 calls						
6. Follow up visits for domestic violence						
7. "Pulling levers" interventions for violent offenders						
8. Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE)						
9. Use of civil remedies (e.g., nuisance abatement)						
10. Restorative justice						
11. Mandatory arrest for misdemeanor domestic violence						
12. Traffic enforcement to reduce gun crime						
13. Zero tolerance policing						

14. Legitimacy/procedural justice policing						
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### **F. Opinions about the Community, Police, and Justice**

*Please circle the number that best represents your opinion.*

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Many people in society are liars and cheaters.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Many people in society will harm you if you give them the opportunity.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Most people are honest.	1	2	3	4	5
4. In an emergency, most community members would come to the aid of a police officer who needs assistance.	1	2	3	4	5
5. In general, you should be suspicious of people rather than give them the benefit of the doubt.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The community shows a lot of respect for the police.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Residents do not understand the problems that we face as police officers.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Many residents try to make the police look bad.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Most citizens have confidence in the police.	1	2	3	4	5
10. You can get tired of listening to citizens complain about everything.	1	2	3	4	5
11. You can't help the community if they are unwilling to help themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The community doesn't appreciate what the police do for them.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The police and courts work well together to punish the bad guys.	1	2	3	4	5
14. We can solve many of society's problems if we put our minds to it.	1	2	3	4	5



15. People are basically good by nature so we need to give everyone a chance to do their best.	1	2	3	4	5
16. People are basically selfish and tend to look out only for themselves, so we need to be cautious and protect ourselves.	1	2	3	4	5
17. We shouldn't work so hard because it won't really make much difference in the end – the problems will remain the same.	1	2	3	4	5
18. We should be realistic that things are only going to get worse in our society.	1	2	3	4	5

#### **G. Opinions About Life:**

*For each statement below, please indicate whether it is mostly true or mostly false as it applies to you.*

1. I seldom strike back, even if someone hits me first.	True	False
2. Unless somebody asks me in a nice way, I won't do what they want.	True	False
3. I lose my temper easily but get over it quickly.	True	False
4. When I disapprove of my friends' behavior, I let them know it.	True	False
5. I never get mad enough to throw things.	True	False
6. Sometimes people bother me just by being around.	True	False
7. When someone makes a rule I don't like I am tempted to break it.	True	False
8. I tend to be on my guard with people who are somewhat friendlier than I expected.	True	False
9. I often find myself disagreeing with people.	True	False
10. When someone is bossy, I do the opposite of what he asks.	True	False
11. I am irritated a great deal more than people are aware of.	True	False
12. I can't help getting into arguments when people disagree with me.	True	False

13. If somebody hits me first, I let him have it.	True	False
14. When I am mad, I sometimes slam doors.	True	False
15. I am always patient with others.	True	False
16. Occasionally when I am mad at someone I will give him the "silent treatment."	True	False
17. I sometimes have the feeling that others are laughing at me.	True	False
18. It makes my blood boil to have somebody make fun of me.	True	False
19. When people are bossy, I take my time doing a task just to show them.	True	False
20. Even when my anger is aroused, I don't use "strong language."	True	False
21. If somebody annoys me, I am apt to tell him what I think of him.	True	False
22. My motto is "Never trust strangers."	True	False
23. When people yell at me, I yell back.	True	False
24. When I get mad, I say nasty things.	True	False
25. I sometimes carry a chip on my shoulder.	True	False
26. I can remember being so angry that I picked up the nearest thing and broke it.	True	False
27. I can't help being a little rude to people I don't like.	True	False
28. I used to think that most people told the truth but now I know otherwise.	True	False
29. If someone doesn't treat me right, I don't let it annoy me.	True	False
30. When arguing, I tend to raise my voice.	True	False

#### **H. Interactions with the Public**

*Please provide your opinion about police interactions with the community. Circle only one number for each statement.*

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. If you let people vent their feelings first, you are more likely to get them to	1	2	3	4	5

comply with your request.					
2. Police officers are expected to gather information from victims of crime, not comfort them.	1	2	3	4	5
3. In certain areas of the city, it is more useful for an officer to be aggressive than to be courteous.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Many “situations” between the police and public could be prevented if only police officers would remain calm and not get defensive.	1	2	3	4	5
5. All people should be treated with respect regardless of their attitude.	1	2	3	4	5
6. It is okay to be rude when someone is rude to you.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Being respectful is nearly impossible when you are dealing with a gang member.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Being professional with the public should be one of the highest priorities in law enforcement.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Officers can't be expected to keep their emotions in check when people are disrespectful.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The time that officers spend chatting with average citizens could be better spent investigating crime and suspicious situations.	1	2	3	4	5

**I. Opinions about Use of Force**

*Please provide your opinion about police use of force. Circle only one number for each statement.*

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Police officers should use force more often to get citizens to comply.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Use of force should be the last resort for police officers.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Police officers are often in situations where it is more appropriate to use physical force than to keep on talking to a person.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Some people can only be brought to reason the hard, physical way.	1	2	3	4	5
5. A tough, physical approach should be used less on the street.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Sometimes forceful police actions are very educational for civilians.	1	2	3	4	5
7. If officers don't show that they are physically tough, they will be seen as weak.	1	2	3	4	5

**J. Police Training**

*Please give your opinion of the relevance of the following training to practical police work.*

	Very Relevant	Somewhat Relevant	Not Very Relevant	Not at all Relevant
1. Officer safety and survival skills	1	2	3	4
2. Use of firearms and batons	1	2	3	4
3. The law	1	2	3	4
4. Handling child abuse cases	1	2	3	4
5. The legal system	1	2	3	4
6. Role of police in society	1	2	3	4
7. Crimes of assault	1	2	3	4
8. Communication and interpersonal skills	1	2	3	4

9. Police procedures and policies	1	2	3	4
10. Driving skills	1	2	3	4
11. Property crime	1	2	3	4
12. Written communication skills	1	2	3	4
13. Physical fitness	1	2	3	4
14. Problem-solving	1	2	3	4
<b>Police Training (continued)</b>	<b>Very Relevant</b>	<b>Somewhat Relevant</b>	<b>Not Very Relevant</b>	<b>Not at all Relevant</b>
15. The causes of crime	1	2	3	4
16. Dealing with survivors	1	2	3	4
17. Handling domestic disputes	1	2	3	4
18. Police health	1	2	3	4
19. Community-based policing	1	2	3	4
20. Ethics and professionalism	1	2	3	4
21. Police 'Mission' & 'Statement of Values'	1	2	3	4
22. Policing ethnic/minority communities	1	2	3	4
23. Policing gay communities	1	2	3	4
24. Non-law enforcement policing	1	2	3	4

**K. Next we would like to ask you some questions about your communication skills. Please check the box indicating whether you agree or disagree with each of the statements.**

	<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Don't know</b>
1. I know how to talk with people.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I know how to resolve conflict between people.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I can talk anyone into doing just about anything.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I know how to keep myself from getting upset.	1	2	3	4	5

5. I have good communication skills.	1	2	3	4	5
6. People often don't take my advice.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I don't like to make eye contact when I am telling people bad news.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I know how to make someone comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I feel confident when using my communication skills.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I can talk my way out of trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am good at reading other people's emotions.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I know how to show empathy or compassion.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I know how to use nonverbal cues to communicate my feelings to others.	1	2	3	4	5

#### **L. Police Integrity**

*Some behaviors on the job are considered serious ethical problems, and others are considered much less serious. How serious do you consider each of the following police behaviors?*

	Very Serious	Somewhat Serious	Not Very Serious	Not at all Serious
1. Treating a citizen rudely	1	2	3	4
2. Accepting free coffee or food from a restaurant	1	2	3	4
3. Not reporting a minor traffic accident with a patrol car	1	2	3	4
4. Displaying a badge to avoid a traffic citation while off duty	1	2	3	4
5. Failing to report an incident of excessive force by a fellow officer	1	2	3	4
6. Exaggerating facts to obtain a warrant	1	2	3	4
7. Lying to a supervisor to protect a fellow officer	1	2	3	4

8. Falsified overtime reports	1	2	3	4
9. Leaving work early	1	2	3	4
10. Fixing a ticket for someone	1	2	3	4
11. Drinking alcohol while on duty	1	2	3	4
12. Covering up an incident of excessive force by a fellow officer	1	2	3	4
13. Inventing an informant for search warrant when you know the guy is dirty	1	2	3	4
14. Harassing officers who testified against other officers	1	2	3	4
15. Covering up an incident of drunk driving by a fellow officer	1	2	3	4
16. Using illegal drugs while on duty	1	2	3	4

#### **M. Viewpoint on People and Society**

*Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements.*

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Too often women who have been sexually assaulted were not being careful in the way they dressed or their behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Many people are just unlucky.	1	2	3	4	5
3. In life, people usually get what they deserve and deserve what they get.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It is hard to understand why women in	1	2	3	4	5

abusive relationships don't walk out.					
5. Life is simply not fair for many people.	1	2	3	4	5
6. We should try to rehabilitate criminals rather than punish them.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Overall, minorities have been mistreated by society.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Overall, women have been mistreated by society.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Overall, senior citizens have been mistreated by society.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Overall, young people have been mistreated by society.	1	2	3	4	5

**N. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements.**

	<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Don't know</b>
1. Being concerned about "customer service" should not be part of a police officer's job.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Treating angry citizens with respect increases the community's confidence in the police department.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Officers who are nice to criminal offenders are less likely to get hurt.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Being nice to criminal offenders can damage an agency's reputation for toughness.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Officers who are nice to criminal offenders are less likely to get into trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Officers who are nice to criminal offenders are less likely to get intelligence from them.	1	2	3	4	5



**O. Demographics and Background Information**

*Now we would like to ask you some information about yourself. Please circle/ fill in the appropriate response.*

1. What is your gender?                      Female                      Male

2. What year were you born?                      \_\_\_\_\_

3. With which race/ethnicity do you identify most closely?

- a. Black or African American
- b. Hispanic or Latino/Latina
- c. White or Caucasian
- d. Native American
- e. Asian
- f. Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

4. What is your current marital status?

- a. Single, never been married
- b. Married
- c. Divorced
- d. Cohabiting with partner (but not married)
- e. Separated but still married
- f. Widowed

6. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?

- a. G.E.D.
- b. High school graduate
- c. Some college courses, but no degree
- d. Associate degree
- e. College degree
- f. Some college courses beyond BA or BS
- g. Masters degree
- h. Law degree
- i. PhD or other advanced degree (e.g., EdD)

7. Have you served in the Military?

                    No                      Yes (If yes, check here if you served in a combat theater of operations \_\_\_\_\_)

8. Prior to this job, did you serve as a sworn officer in another jurisdiction?

No      Yes (If yes, how many years? \_\_\_\_\_)

9. Prior to entering the academy, did you have a full or part time job?

No      Yes (If yes, Circle:      Full Time      Part Time      )

10. Please re-enter the survey code you created on the first page here

\_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you very much for completing this survey!**

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Lauren Ghoston graduated from E.C. Glass High School, Lynchburg, Virginia, in 2008. She received her Bachelor of Arts from the University of Virginia in 2012. She received her Master of Arts in Criminology, Law and Society from George Mason University in 2014.