

INFORMATION TO USERS

This dissertation was produced from a microfilm copy of the original document. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or patterns which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting thru an image and duplicating adjacent pages to insure you complete continuity.
2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a large round black mark, it is an indication that the photographer suspected that the copy may have moved during exposure and thus cause a blurred image. You will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.
3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., was part of the material being photographed the photographer followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin photoing at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue photoing from left to right in equal sections with a small overlap. If necessary, sectioning is continued again — beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.
4. The majority of users indicate that the textual content is of greatest value, however, a somewhat higher quality reproduction could be made from "photographs" if essential to the understanding of the dissertation. Silver prints of "photographs" may be ordered at additional charge by writing the Order Department, giving the catalog number, title, author and specific pages you wish reproduced.

University Microfilms

300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106
A Xerox Education Company

71-16,546

ZACKER, Joseph William, 1937-
THE EFFECTS OF EXPERIENTIAL TRAINING UPON
EMPATHY, INTERPERSONAL SENSITIVITY, CYNICISM
AND ALIENATION IN POLICE RECRUITS.

The City University of New York, Ph.D., 1971
Psychology, clinical

University Microfilms, A XEROX Company, Ann Arbor, Michigan

THE EFFECTS OF EXPERIENTIAL TRAINING UPON EMPATHY,
INTERPERSONAL SENSITIVITY, CYNICISM AND
ALIENATION IN POLICE RECRUITS

by

JOSEPH WILLIAM ZACKER

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty
in Clinical Psychology in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy, The City University of New York.

1970

This manuscript has been read and accepted for the Graduate Faculty in Clinical Psychology in satisfaction of the dissertation requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Nov 30, 1970
date

Leighton Sord
Chairman of Examining Committee

December 2, 1970
date

Walter Weiss
Executive Officer

Laurence J. Paul
Harold Wilensky
Supervisory Committee

The City University of New York

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Morton Bard, Ph.D. provided continuing guidance from the moment of this study's formulation and reassurance when the going was roughest. His willingness to make personal sacrifices to uphold the integrity of action research such as this study has provided a model of the disciplined psychologist.

Harold Wilensky, Ph.D. was always there, freely giving of his time both for evaluation and support. Lawrence Gould, Ph.D. provided several key methodological suggestions. Guidance by Arthur D. Lynch, Ph.D. in selecting data analysis procedures is most appreciated. These men each went "above and beyond" in their support of this research and of this writer.

A special debt is acknowledged to the people of the City of New York who initiated, supported and conducted the low-cost system of higher education which provided my baccalaureate and doctoral training.

The effort behind this study was shared by my wife, Teddi, who, with boundless patience and understanding support, put up with the many months when I was physically or emotionally absent.

This study was supported in part by the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, United States Department of Justice Grant No. NI-028, with the cooperation and support of the New York City Housing Authority Police Department and The City College of The City University of New York.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER

I. THE POLICE AND HUMAN RELATIONS.....	1
Scope of the Problem.....	2
Law Enforcement.....	2
The Maintenance of Order Function.....	6
Police Training.....	9
How the Police Handle	
Human Conflict Situations.....	11
Police Secrecy.....	15
Alienation in the Police.....	18
Cynicism in the Police.....	20
Empathy and Interpersonal	
Sensitivity in the Police.....	23
Summary of the Problem.....	26
Definition of Terms.....	27
Group A.....	27
Group B.....	27
Hypotheses.....	28
II. METHODS AND PROCEDURES.....	30
Subjects.....	30
Introductory Remarks to Recruits.....	31
Selection of Groups.....	31
The Dependent Variables.....	33
Alienation.....	33
Cynicism.....	35
Empathy.....	36
Interpersonal Sensitivity.....	43
Training Conditions.....	47
Police Academy Training.....	47
Group A Training.....	48
Group B Training.....	54
Post-Evaluation.....	55

CHAPTER

III. RESULTS.....	56
Recruits' Pre-Training Scores.....	56
Comparison with Other Groups.....	57
Intercorrelations Between the Measures....	58
Effectiveness of Random Assignments.....	58
Combination of Data of A-Subgroups.....	59
The Hypotheses.....	62
Hypothesis 1: Cynicism.....	62
Hypothesis 2: Alienation.....	63
Hypothesis 3: "Social Sensitivity".....	63
Post-Hoc Analyses for Racial Differences..	65
Recruit Evaluation of Training.....	67
Summary of Results.....	68
IV. DISCUSSION.....	70
Hypothesis 1: Cynicism.....	70
Hypothesis 2: Alienation.....	73
Hypothesis 3: "Social Sensitivity".....	76
Limitations of the Study.....	78
Other Considerations.....	86
Implications for Future Research.....	87
Implications for Innovative Training.....	88
Summary.....	89
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	93
APPENDIX 1.....	104
APPENDIX 2.....	124
APPENDIX 3.....	129

LIST OF TABLES

Table		
1.	Recruits' Pre-Training Scores.....	56
2.	Correlation Matrix of Pre-Training Scores.....	59
3.	Pre-Training Scores of Group B and A-Subgroups...	60
4.	Post-Training Scores of Group B and A-Subgroups..	61
5.	Mean Scores by Race and Group.....	66

CHAPTER I

THE POLICE AND HUMAN RELATIONS

The stereotype of the policeman's role is that he is primarily a crimefighter. However the major portion of his working time is spent not in law enforcement, but in maintaining order and in providing services to the public. The lack of the prerequisite skills necessary for these latter functions is most acutely felt and noticed in times of social change and in police dealings with the underprivileged and discontented. Fleck and Newnam (1969) attest to the importance of this situation:

But now, in the present period of social unrest, when crime, lawlessness, civil disorder and violence have intruded into all our daily affairs and have threatened our personal well-being, the role of the police, as protectors of the public welfare and as the primary means of exercising social control, has become justifiably a matter of widespread public concern. [p. 21].

The present study examined the effects of two methods of training policemen as these influence the abilities to understand and predict others' behavior, as well as attitudes about one's vocation, other people and society. It is one of the few investigations of the police system conducted by non-police.

Scope of the Problem

Recent local and national elections in which "law and order" has been a major issue suggest that many people in this society favor the use of repressive measures in dealing with conflicts. Such a view contains, for many, the belief that the police will better serve by being more numerous and by enforcing the existing laws ever more stringently. Nevertheless, while law enforcement is given primary emphasis in the traditional, dualistic "law and order" conception of police work, recent findings indicate that this emphasis is misplaced. The fact is that order maintenance occupies more time than enforcement or crime suppression in actual police work.

Law Enforcement

It has been estimated that 90% of a policeman's functioning is unrelated to either law enforcement or to the control of crime (Epstein, 1962). In a study which examined appeals to urban police, it was reported that half involved complaints of a personal or interpersonal nature (Cumming, Cumming, and Edell, 1965). More recently, in a demonstration project by Bard (1969), a unit of patrolmen were trained in the handling of a specific problem - family crises. Preliminary data reveal that in the one New York City precinct intensively studied, an average of 63 calls per month were reported which fit the designation of "family crisis." To properly service these calls an average of 40 minutes was spent in each by a team of two police officers.

Indications are that even this number is but a minimal estimate of the actual number of such incidents handled by police in that precinct.

On reviewing information regarding the nature of police work, Misner (1969) concluded:

Enough data has been collected from a variety of cities to show clearly that uniformed policemen in large urban areas typically spend less than 30 per cent of their working-time dealing with crime or other enforcement duties....(They are) engaged for the most part in work which should properly be classified "public service." This is often true even in "high crime neighborhoods." It seems that neighborhoods which have a high incidence of crime also have a high incidence of calls for other police services. This has probably always been so in 20th century urban America [p. 488].

In regard to high crime neighborhoods, The National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence notes that in urban slums and ghettos the police carry the burden of symbolic representatives of all government in addition to the burden of the law. This leads to a focussing of tensions and frustrations onto the police.

Of considerable importance is that the manner in which the police deal with human conflicts affects the relationship between the police and the society they serve and, indeed, the society itself. The recent report of The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice (1967) noted that although the handling of minor disputes was regarded by police administrators as of small importance, such matters nevertheless occupied a good deal of police time and the manner of police intervention was of great import to the disputants.

Police work in a democratic society rests on the assumption of public cooperation, without which the police are, at the very least, unable to gain all sorts of necessary information. Indeed, Misner (1969) observed that "the ability of the police to protect residents of the community diminishes as the gulf between the community and the police widens [p. 489]."

Black and Labes (1967) liken police-citizen interaction in high-crime areas to guerilla warfare. Comparing the task of the police there to the task which America undertook in the form of helping the countries it defeated in W. W. II to become self-sufficient, they advise that if the police in high-crime areas seek pacification and separation of the criminal from the noncriminal, "they will have to undertake a significant portion of the helping function [p. 669]."

This allusion to a state of war between the police and the community is also noted in the report of the President's Commission (1967): "Upon the way the police perform their duties depends to a large extent...whether the police are thought of as protectors or as oppressors, as friends or enemies [p. 92]."

Yet another aspect of the problem regarding the police and human relations is the frequency of violence occurring in disputes between relatives or close friends. Several studies support Durkheim's (1951) impression that family life "stimulates murder [p. 354]."

Of the 904 homicides in New York City in 1968, 73.3% of the victims were killed by

someone with whom they had a close relationship (N. Y. Times, 6/25/69). Similarly, a study of 622 murders in Cleveland, Ohio (Bensing and Schroeder, 1960) discovered that while homicides occurring during robberies were much publicized, they nevertheless did "not represent as great a number of killings as do marital discord and quarrels between friends [p. 77]." Wolfgang's (1958) study of 500 criminal homicides disclosed that only 12% were complete strangers to the principal offender, while 65% were relatives, close friends or lovers. These statistics suggest that in these most violent of assaults, the impetus is often deep frustration between people who matter to each other.

Responding to such disputes is, not surprisingly, dangerous for the police officer. A recent F. B. I. report (1963) noted that 22% of all policemen killed in the line of duty died while responding to complaints of "disturbances [p. 27]." The danger to police occasioned by both the disputants and a resentful public prompted the New York City Patrolmen's Benevolent Association to run a full-page newspaper advertisement depicting incidents in which responding patrolmen were injured by a hostile citizenry, ending with the following: "Moral: The most ordinary incident, these days, carries the seeds of a major explosion. There are no 'safe' assignments any more. The N. Y. C. policeman puts his life on the line every time he puts on his uniform (Daily News, 7/17/69)."

It seems quite apparent, then, that the maintenance of order is a major and vital function of police work, affecting

not only the individuals directly involved (policeman and citizen), and not only police-community relations, but the nature of the community itself. Recognition of this latter effect prompted the following observation about city riots: "Ghetto watchers know too well that the most common causes of past rioting - that classic disagreement between a black citizen and a policeman - is an everyday occurrence (Johnson, 1969, p. 9)."

The Maintenance of Order Function

It seems paradoxical that although order maintenance is a major function of police work, the training of policemen provides them few guidelines for dealing with disorders. Law enforcement, on the other hand, requires the police officer simply to compare a person's behavior with some clearly defined legal standard. The majority of criminal laws define acts which are deemed illegal. One may question the wisdom of deciding whether a particular act should be deemed illegal or not, "but there is little disagreement as to what the behavior in question ~~consists~~ of (Wilson, 1968, p. 21)."

Whereas a felony is unambiguously defined by statutes, public order is not. In New York State, for example, the Penal Law describes disorderly conduct as a breach of the peace which includes, among others: disturbing others, offensive behavior or language, begging, having an "evil" reputation and consorting with people of like evil reputation, and causing a crowd to collect (sec. 722). Wilson

(1968) sees disorder as that which "involves a dispute over what is 'right' or 'seemly' conduct or over who is to blame for conduct that is agreed to be wrong or unseemly [p. 16]." He points out that statutes regarding disorderly conduct seem to imply that public order is a condition which can somehow be diminished by certain behavior. This leads to confusion; public order cannot be unambiguously defined because it is neither an event nor a state of nature, but a matter of opinion or convention. Some forms of disorder (assault, for example), are unambiguous, yet enforcement of the law in such cases often requires that the victim make out a sworn complaint or that the officer witness the behavior. The policeman's task even here is a complex one. Since the disputants are frequently friends or relatives, the victim typically refuses to make a formal complaint or, if he does, to appear in court to press charges. Usually a fight stops when the officer arrives (so that he doesn't see the assault), or the police aren't notified at all (Ennis, 1967).

Thus in many conflicts the officer is required to make a judgment as to the appropriateness of behavior. People in conflict usually want the officer to do something, but rarely, it seems, do they want him to make an arrest. Since an arrest usually cannot be made in such cases, the officer is "expected to handle the situation by other means and on the spot, but the law gives him almost no guidance on how he is to do this; indeed, the law often denies him the right to do anything at all other than make an arrest (Wilson,

1969, p. 131)."

In situations which so often involve matters of honor and dishonor, life and death, the laws simply do not tell the officer what he should do. Wilson (1969) describes the dramatic result: "Alone, unsupervised, with no policies to guide him and little sympathy from onlookers to support him, the officer must 'administer justice' on the curbstone [p. 131]."

The mixture of enforcement and service functions may lead to uncertainty and conflict in all police officers (McNamara (1967)). This duality of function with ambiguous expectations faced by the policeman may parallel the role ambiguity which Kahn and Wolfe (1964) see as arising when the worker has too little information available for adequate performance. They distinguish between ambiguity about the tasks which one is expected to perform and ambiguity about one's standing in the eyes of coworkers and about the consequences of his actions upon the reaching of personal goals. Kahn and Wolfe discovered that both forms of ambiguity are associated with increased tension and reduced trust in associates; the former leading to job dissatisfaction and feelings of futility, the latter to an undermining of both self-confidence and relations with associates.

It seems evident, then, that the maintenance of order function of the police is inherently ambiguous and demanding, is one the policeman has few guidelines for, and can lead to uncertainties, conflicts, and poor attitudes about one's job, one's coworkers and oneself.

Police Training

To the need for improved training to deal with order maintenance the response of police departments has been generally inadequate. The report of the President's Commission scores the continuing training emphasis on apprehension and prosecution of criminals while such training is neglecting to provide guidance in the intricate, intimate human situations occurring so frequently as to take up the major part of police time. Misner (1969) concurs with this criticism, noting that while the modern policeman's training is better than in the past, it has "done little to improve his relationship with the community or his ability to change with its changes [p. 490] ." He indicates one cause of police unadaptability - that almost everyone on the force, at all levels, began as a recruit who was selected on the basis of appearing qualified to be a basic police officer, and that in the quasi-military bureaucratic organization that is the typical police force, "managerial competence or social savvy" doesn't guarantee promotion [p. 490]. On the contrary, asserts Niederhoffer (1967) in this regard, "the end result of the process of elimination is to accentuate the medium and mediocre at the expense of the independent and exceptional [p. 38]." Attesting to homogeneity of recruits, a study of the New York City Police Department revealed that only 2% of recruits held bachelor's degrees, 80% were Catholic, 95% were Caucasian, and 2/3 were between 21 and 24 years of age (McNamara, 1967).

Even when a police department is aware of the demand for improved interpersonal skills in policemen, its response may merely take the conventional military form of a proclamation or an instruction to subordinates to change their actions. Witness the emphasis on action in New York City Police Commissioner Leary's (1967) proud announcement:

"In recruit training we now devote fifty-eight hours of instruction to human relations [p. 1; italics added]."

There is some reason to question whether anyone's sensitivity to others can be significantly enhanced by a series of required classroom lectures in a quasi-military organization in which the student may be penalized for failing to ask permission to go to the bathroom in the prescribed manner. Indeed, any kind of human relations training-by-decree can only seem ludicrous coming from an organization in which "the commanders expect the guys to goof off and foul up (Cooper, 1969)."

Relevant here is a study by McNamara's (1967) study of one police department in which he discovered that most human relations topics taught at the academy:

were covered primarily by lectures given by the academic instructors in formal class meetings....For the most part, any principles regarding interpersonal skills were presented either in the form of rather general prescriptions, for example, 'be firm but courteous,' or in the form of rules of thumb which individual instructors had evolved from their own experience in patrol work [p. 219]."

During their Police Academy training these recruits had little opportunity to test their human relations skills or

to develop and integrate them with the other knowledge and skills they had acquired. The Academy personnel, who were for the most part better educated than most of the recruits, viewed interpersonal skills as a matter "of having common sense or not having it," and that it was "an ability that cannot be developed or taught [p. 220]."

It is held that traditional classroom instructional techniques in the disciplined Police Academy setting are inconsistent with the enhancement of the kind of self-respect that nourishes empathy or to the promotion of that kind of faith in what oneself and one's peers are doing which counteracts the development of cynicism and alienation.

How the Police Handle Human Conflict Situations

The result of such shortcomings in police training has been described by the President's Commission, Task Force Report: The Police (1967): "In the absence of adequate resources, training and guidance there is a tendency for officers to try to meet mainly by improvisation the various demands made on them [p. 15]."

"Real" police work is more typically seen as investigating crime and apprehending criminals, a perception which is pragmatic for the police officer since police departments traditionally reward efficiency in criminal-situations while placing no positive value on the quality of the officer's actions in non-criminal situations (Goldstein, 1968). In responding to non-criminal conflicts, Wilson (1968) observed

that some policemen "develop ways of mollifying everyone, others get out as quickly as they can, all dislike such situations and find them awkward and risky [p. 24]." Another common coping demeanor is the "headbuster" approach, the rationale for which is: "Expecting the excuse, the argument, the evasion, the officer tries to get tough first, to treat them tough, to make them respect the law,... (Westley, 1951, p. 112)." The pervasiveness of this approach, and the Academy's effect on it was attested to in McNamara's (1967) study. He found that to the statement: "Respect for the police in a tough neighborhood depends on the willingness of patrolmen to use force frequently and effectively," 32% of new recruits agreed, compared to agreement by 55% of patrolmen with two years of experience. To the statement: "A patrolman who frequently ignores challenges to fight with citizens will probably make it harder for other patrolmen to work his post or sector," 21% of new recruits agreed, compared to agreement by 42% of patrolmen with two years of experience. This apparent hardening of attitudes by policemen seems to parallel outcries by citizens who call for ever-greater numbers of policemen to deal with community disorder by force. To others, though, the real tragedy behind much of today's community tension is police action/inaction: As

And through it all the police plunge onward, unaware that they are missing the mark, and insisting that they are performing their duty in the proper manner. They seem totally unaware that the manner is what causes the problem....More and more citizens are becoming aware that having large numbers of police "in the streets" does not solve problems; that the answer lies in what they are do-

ing in the streets (Trubett, 1969, p. 508).

So where does the inexperienced officer find the guidelines that are so necessary to deal with the ambiguity and danger inherent in the human relations incidents he must face? Drawing on his observations during 21 years of service with the New York Police Department, Niederhoffer (1967) describes the pragmatic solution many rookies seek, that of relying on authorities' impressions:

The conventional wisdom of the job sets the standard. The old sages of the station house dispense didactic tales to which new members of the force listen avidly, thereby learning that typical incidents to be settled on the street, or occasionally even dodged, are the annoying drunk, the case of disorderly conduct involving adolescents who congregate on street corners, and quarrels between: husband and wife, taxi driver and his fare, neighbor and neighbor, store owner and customer, landlord and tenants [p. 60].

When dealing with people one's effectiveness seems partially dependent upon how well one can understand the other's thoughts, feelings and desires. In well-defined situations in which one is playing a specific role (e.g., a policeman responding to a complainant), we tend to strive to know what action to take rather than to learn what the other person is like. Smith (1966) put this as seeking to "know the least about another person that is consistent with playing our parts effectively [p. 182]." Stated another way, the perceiver, in a social situation, will act so as to reduce the need for information necessary to sustain the interaction (Jones and Thibaut, 1958). In this regard McNamara (1967) found that police officers, especially the younger and less experienced, were often so eager to solve problems

that they did not ask many questions of the person reporting a dispute. During interactions with the disputants they often neglected to seek important information, a problem McNamara felt was often "a consequence of a lack of empathic ability or role-taking skills [p. 170]." He noted a tendency on the officers' parts to be insensitive to the citizen's response to him, instead being concerned with establishing the citizen's appropriate legal category. He reported that such labelling:

... independent of the action of the citizen, often tends to govern the police officer's decision regarding the proper handling of the situation ... (and that) ... officers acted as though their understanding of the citizens with whom they were interacting was complete once they found the appropriate legal &/or departmental designation for the citizen [p. 171]."

When a citizen is labelled as a deviant, there is a tendency to impute to him characteristics of deviants other than those used as the basis for so labelling him in the first place (Lemert, 1951). Lemert hypothesized that of all agencies of social control the police are particularly likely to have policies regarding the treatment of deviants "conceived with no allowance whatever for individual variation [p. 69]."

The consequences of inappropriate handling of citizens has been well documented by the recent race riots, many of which seem to have been triggered by white police officers' behavior towards Negro women and children (McNamara, 1967). McNamara believes that the dominating attitudes of white police in such situations causes the Negro male to become

protective. In confrontations between the policeman and the Negro male, Toch (1969) argues that both are members of segregated minorities who are defensively self-righteous, and:

... obsessed with the need to instill respect in each other ... on the basis of group membership rather than for a positive reaction to personal qualities.... The men involved feel their interpersonal skills and their qualities as human beings are insufficient to the problems of coping with the enemy.... Each man comes to feel that he must rely mainly on his group identification - badge or color - as a substitute for answers he cannot find in himself [p. 492].

It is maintained that the level of skill in the police for dealing with human relations situations is sorely lacking. The price which both the police and society pays for a continuation of police ineffectiveness in this regard is dramatically rising in terms of cost to people and to the economy. This unfortunate state of affairs leads to the value, if not the necessity, of efforts to improve the social skills of the police.

Police Secrecy

While the study of any major social-political system is of potential merit, both the breadth of police influence and their traditional and often well-founded suspiciousness of outside investigators (and refusal to cooperate with them) enhances the value of any study of the police which does appear.

Part of the social scientist's problem of working with a law enforcement agency is that he and the police live in different worlds: the former tends to be a thinker rather than a doer and to function in a more ordered environment;

the nature of police work, on the other hand, requires pragmatic action (Bard, in press). The involvement with force and violence by the police is looked upon with superior distaste by the social scientist. A deep gulf divides the styles, views, and living and working conditions of the social scientist and the policeman, a gulf few on either side are willing to bridge. This mistrust and separateness adds to the difficulties involved for any outsider trying to study the police.

A classic study of secretiveness in the police noted that they:

are under explicit orders not to talk about police work with anyone outside the department; there is much in the nature of a secret society about the police; and past experience has indicated that to talk is to invite trouble from the press, the public, the administration, and their colleagues (Westley, 1951, p. 30).

Some view seclusion of the police function, rather than secrecy, as the danger (Skolnick, 1966). A more subtle motive for police resistance to study by outsiders, noted by Glaser (1958), is their fear of learning about themselves. He sees the policeman as preferring to keep certain information out of his conscious perception of himself. Perhaps for such reasons as the above, Niederhoffer (1967) was able to find only six articles even remotely concerned with the police in the two major sociological journals (American Journal of Sociology and the American Sociological Review) in the 25 year period from 1940-1965.

On the basis of some of the studies of the police which

have appeared over the years, one can understand why the police do not welcome study. In 1916, for example, Lewis Terman, testing 30 police candidates, found only three who had I. Q.s above 99. A few years later, Thurstone (1922) reported that the intelligence of Detroit patrolmen was greater than their superior officers'. Terman and Miles (1936) were surprised to find that California policemen ranked quite low on a masculinity scale, just above artists, editors, and clergymen. In preparing a handbook of diagnostic tests, Rapaport (1949) used Kansas highway patrolmen as his normal control group. Their test results were at variance with his expectations, however, and led him to consider that if compared with a city population they would have to be considered schizoid. Subsequently Kates (1950) compared the Rorschach responses of 25 officers and reported that the more maladjusted men were more satisfied with their work.

Unsettling sociological studies of the police include Bain's (1959), in which he claimed that 75% of the police in the United States were mentally unfit for their work, and the classic by Myrdal (1944) which contained the following comment on southern policemen: "Almost anyone on the outside of the penitentiary who weighs enough and is not blind or crippled can be considered as a police candidate [pp. 538-539]."

Such reports have not endeared the inquisitive scientist to the police. Turner (1968) advises that when "J. Edgar

Hoover rails in florid rhetoric against the 'hoity-toity professors' ... he is articulating the sentiments of the entire police establishment [p. 18]." A regrettable situation such as this enhances the uniqueness, if not the value, of those studies of the police which do appear.

Alienation in the Police

Klein and Gould (1969), in a recent empirical investigation of alienation define it "as encompassing a syndrome of attitudes and feelings reflecting a view of society marked by cynicism, pessimism and distrust, and a view of people as manipulative, uncaring and emotionally distant [p. 1]." It is of interest that many groups of people, in voicing outcries against their treatment by the establishment, have described the police in terms similar to those used by investigators in defining the alienated individual.

Conceived as a condition containing the attitude that society is oppressive and impersonal, alienation is thus distinguished from "anomie," which has popularly referred to the tendency to perceive society as normless, normally chaotic and adrift - a state governed by one's role in society (Durkheim, 1965; Merton, 1957; Srole, 1956) and/or by intellectual and personality characteristics (McClosky and Schaar, 1965).

While little is known empirically about the extent of alienation in the police, a number of observers of their milieu describe conditions which appear conducive to the

development of this syndrome. Niederhoffer (1967) points out that the police, having learned to manipulate the law, are in a sense above it, and know it. Their close contact with crime and criminals would also seem likely to promote a self-image of superiority. The world in which they work is said to be:

... spawned of degredation, corruption and insecurity. He sees men as ill-willed, exploitative, mean and dirty [p. ii].... His is a society emphasizing the crooked, the weak and the unscrupulous. Accordingly, his morality is one of expediency and his self-conception one of a martyr (Westley, 1951, p. 239).

It is not just civilian immorality to which the patrolman is exposed, but also the immorality of his superiors that can contribute to his sense of alienation. Niederhoffer (1967), for example, describes the negative effects which this common situation has on the junior officer's sense of professionalism.

The police officer's isolation from society is attested to by the hostility and awe directed at his family and him by many, and is reflected by his characteristic in-group socializing. Black and Labes (1967) see the average policeman as being like the poverty-stricken male: "alienated from the rest of society [p. 669]," while Toch (1969) calls for "dealienating police, by depriving them of the stigma of minority status [p. 493]." One factor which would seem to enhance alienation in the police may arise when they perceive the public as withholding respect. Wilson (1967) questioned police sergeants in a large urban city both before and after a five-year period during which extensive efforts to upgrade

their department were made. He found that as citizen respect for the police did not rise in correspondence to the sergeants' perception of improved departmental quality, the proportion of sergeants attaching importance to being liked by civilians fell from 79% to 59% five years later.

The nature of police work, consisting of membership in a para-military (and to an extent deindividualizing) organization necessitating repeated contacts with an amoral and dehumanized segment of the population, leads to the prediction that alienation will rise as the patrolman progresses from induction to patrolman status and thereon. In view of the association between alienation and such undesirable characteristics as social isolation, response acquiescence, social introversion and admission of pathology (Gould, 1964), authoritarianism (Dean, 1961), lack of commitment and marked identity concerns (Keniston, 1965), and conformity to peer group pressure (Gould, 1968), it is desirable to examine factors which retard the development of alienation in the police. It would seem that training which emphasized the value of personal experience (and thereby of personal worth), and the commonalities between all people, will retard the development of alienation more than situations in which the individual is a more or less passive recipient of information.

Cynicism in the Police

In his study of cynicism in the police, retired police-

man and now sociologist Arthur Niederhoffer (1967) saw cynicism as the typical police adaptation to anomie. Comparing police cynicism to the "ressentiment" (roughly translated as resentment) described as one possible adjustment to anomie by Merton (1957, p. 156), Niederhoffer views the police officer's cynicism as reflecting the organization's anomie and as consisting of "diffuse feelings of hate and envy, impotent hostility, and the sourgrapes pattern [p. 93]." The hatred spoken of may have been reflected in several other studies which reported the existence of extreme bitterness in policemen (Cumming et al, 1965; Watson, 1967).

This cynicism may be chronic in the police; in 1939 Bain reviewed the American police scene and discovered that policemen believed that the citizen was constantly looking to "get away with something [p. 451]," and that everyone would commit crimes except for fear of the police.

Niederhoffer conceptualized the following successive stages as the officer moved from commitment to anomie: professionalism or commitment, failure and/or frustration, disenchantment, cynicism, alienation, anomie. He pointed out that the rookie begins with faith in the system and an eagerness to learn. Frustration is likely to ensue as he comes into contact with experienced patrolmen who tell him to forget what he has learned at the Police Academy, and who offer "constructive" advice and example. A further source of frustration, especially for the more equalitarian rookie, lies in his contact with the authoritarian leader-

ship of the police organization. An authoritarian leader, reported Christie (1954), will be characterized by being "punitive and condescending toward inferiors, unreceptive to scientific investigation, less sensitive to interpersonal relationships, and prone to attribute his own ideology to others [p. 140]." Contrasting the generally authoritarian style of organization in the police with police chiefs' descriptions of the "ideal" patrolman as an equalitarian, Dillman (1967) comments that the needs of such equalitarian patrolmen will conflict with the rigid organizational structure and lead to personal conflict. Argyris (1957) too, notes that when the organizational constraints on behavior are not congruent with the personality requirements of the individual, personal conflict, with resulting frustration, can occur.

Niederhoffer (1967) distinguishes between two kinds of cynicism in the police. One is directed against life, the world, and people in general; the other is aimed at the police system itself. Measuring the latter form of cynicism, he found that newly appointed recruits scored significantly lower than recruits with two to three months of Police Academy training ($p < .01$), a precipitous rise in cynicism during Academy training. In testing various groups of experienced policemen too, he found that all groups had more cynicism than had the new recruits.

Empathy and Interpersonal Sensitivity in the Police

It is assumed that the effectiveness of the police in maintaining order in a free society is partially a function of the patrolman's ability to understand what the citizen thinks and feels, and to predict his behavior. This ability seems basic to constructively influencing citizen behavior.

Social scientists have described this ability in terms of "empathy" or "social sensitivity," often using these terms interchangeably. Dictionaries concur in referring to empathy as the intellectual or imaginative apprehension of another's state of mind without experiencing that person's feelings oneself. Hogan (1969) notes that in all approaches to personality which focus primarily on interaction between people, some form of empathic disposition, social sensitivity, or role-taking ability is assumed.

Cottrell and Dymond (1949) have maintained that the basic process of all social interaction is empathy, while others have given careful attention to this aspect of social functioning (Gough, 1948; Sarbin and Allen, 1968).

Sensitivity, on the other hand, was recently defined as "the ability to predict what an individual will feel, say, and do about you, himself, and others (Smith, 1966, p. 3)."

Mead (1934) argued that role-taking ability was the key factor in social and moral development; he equated the "g" factor in intelligence with social sensitivity. Some support for this relationship came with Smith's (1966) review of studies in which sensitivity measures were correlated with

general intelligence. He found, in twenty such studies, that in all the correlations were positive, the median correlation being +.30. He observed that verbal comprehension and reasoning ability seemed most specifically related to sensitivity. There seems to be a consensus of agreement, then, that empathy and interpersonal sensitivity are important determinants of the nature of interactions between people.

The growing recognition that people respond to the police more in terms of how they deliver their services than in terms of what services are delivered highlights the importance of the policeman's empathy and interpersonal sensitivity. The major police function - maintaining order - is clearly a function requiring sensitivity in order to be most effective in a democratic society, especially a society which is demanding that the police meet its current higher standards of respect and equality.

Toch (1969) has pleaded that both the police and the underprivileged with whom they are in conflict "labor together, intimately and as human beings" and in their contacts "deemphasize pretense-expertise and empty professionalism [p. 493]." He suggests that one method of achieving this "involves redefining the criteria we use to gauge each officer's personal worth. We must give recognition to kindness instead of toughness, to influence rather than force [p. 493]."

Other evidence suggests too that empathy and inter-

personal sensitivity are not very prominent attributes of the typical individual accepted for police work. McNamara (1967) reported that New York City Police Department recruits had above-average scores on the Fascism scale and came from lower-middle class backgrounds. These characteristics seem undesirable. A negative relationship has been reported between Fascism scale scores and veridical role-taking (Newcomb, Turner and Converse, 1965). Hogan (1969) found a negative correlation of $-.52$ between empathy and Fascism scale scores. As regards social class, Schatzman and Strauss (1955) discovered a significant difference between middle- and lower-class patterns of role-taking, in which lower-class interviewees were characterized by a "relative insensitivity to disparity in perspective [p. 331]." They found that the lower-class subjects were far less able to perceive others as being members of different classes with different types of roles - they were far less able than middle-class subjects to impose a more impersonal or abstract frame of reference on others divorced from the others' unique identities.

Such findings suggest that police recruits will probably be relatively lacking in the empathic skills and social sensitivity which effective order maintenance would seem to require. The present study sought to evaluate supplements to Police Academy training in effecting changes in these skills.

Summary of the Problem

A large body of informed opinion maintains that a major police function is the maintenance of order, and that the police are neither selected on the basis of being able to deal with the ambiguous and sensitive human relations this entails nor does their current training seem especially helpful. Continuation of this state of affairs would seem likely to lead to even further police estrangement from and dissatisfaction with both their own work and with other people, as well as to a heightening of the already strained relations with the public they are sworn to serve.

Given the value of increasing empathic ability and interpersonal sensitivity in policemen towards ameliorating this situation, to what extent are these characteristic of men selected for training as policemen? To what extent does their training enhance these characteristics?

Given the negative effects of cynicism about police work and of alienation upon work effectiveness and satisfaction, to what extent are these characteristic of men selected for training as policemen? To what extent are these affected by the recruit's training?

Furthermore, to what extent does experiential group training provided as a supplement to Police Academy training affect the attributes in question?

Definition of Terms

Group A

In this study group A refers to the experiential group. Training for this group was heavily weighted towards the affective-experiential modes; emphases were upon learning by doing and by observing others, the sharing of personal thoughts and feelings, and the interaction between participants. Group A's training was in large measure concerned with human conflict and its management by police officers. Ss in this group generally met as two smaller subgroups: A1 and A2. Training methods employed for group A included group discussions (laboratory training), real-life simulations, role-playing, lectures and visual aids. These methods will be discussed in the Methods section below.

Group B

In this study group B refers to the conventional group. Training for this group was heavily weighted toward the cognitive mode; emphasis was upon cognitive input by conventional means concerning the broad range of police-relevant material in the behavioral and social sciences. Training methods employed for group B included lectures and films. These methods will be discussed in the Methods section below.

The dependent variables will be discussed and defined in the Methods section below.

Hypotheses

The preceding review of the literature leads to the formation of several main and auxiliary hypotheses.

1. Experiential group training will counteract the development of cynicism about police work.

Since cynicism was previously found to increase in recruits who received regular Police Academy training, it was hypothesized that:

(a) The cynicism level of men receiving conventional training (group B) will be higher at the completion of training than at the beginning.

It was anticipated that the rise in cynicism predicted for recruits receiving group B training would be counteracted by the activity and person-directed atmosphere of the experiential (A) group's training. As such, it was also hypothesized that:

(b) The cynicism level of men receiving group B training will be higher than the cynicism level of men receiving group A training.

Assuming that experiences which emphasize the value of personal experience, personal worth and the commonalities between all people will diminish one's sense of isolation and bitterness, the following hypothesis was made:

2. The level of alienation in men receiving group A training will be lower than the level of alienation of men receiving group B training.

Experiences which emphasize active interaction and self-expression were assumed to be more generative of the abilities

to understand and to predict others' behavior than experiences which involve passive reception of cognitive material, it was hypothesized that:

3. Group A training will enhance "social sensitivity," i.e.,

(a) The level of empathy of men receiving group B training will be no higher at the completion of training than at the beginning of training.

(b) The level of interpersonal sensitivity of men receiving group B training will be no higher at the completion of training than at the beginning of training.

(c) The level of empathy of men receiving group A training will be higher than the level of empathy of men receiving group B training.

(d) The level of interpersonal sensitivity of men receiving group A training will be higher than the level of interpersonal sensitivity of men receiving group B training.

Chapter II

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Subjects

Subjects for this study were 51 probationary patrolmen of the New York City Housing Authority Police. Each man had received appointment to the force following satisfactory completion of civil service, physical, medical, and character investigation. As with the other municipal police departments in New York City (New York Police Department, New York Transit Authority Police Department), there is no routine psychological or psychiatric screening of applicants.

These 51 men comprised most of the entire recruit class entering the Housing Police Academy in the fall of 1969.¹ The average age for the group was 26.69 years. As measured by the Otis SA Test of Mental Ability (now four decades old), the average score for the group was 92.58. The group was composed of 33 Negroes, 14 Caucasians and 4 Puerto Ricans.

In addition to the recruits, six senior patrolmen were members of the A groups. Of these men, three had been sel-

¹There were a total of 54 men in this recruit class. One was not included because he began training one week late, another was not included because he became ill and missed the last few weeks of training. A third man was excluded because he failed to complete all the evaluative procedures.

lected from each of two housing developments to which group A recruits would eventually be assigned. These six senior patrolmen (three were Negro, two Caucasian, and one was Puerto Rican) were not involved in the investigatory procedures.

Introductory Remarks to Recruits

During the recruits' first day at the Academy they were told that they were to take part in an experiment to evaluate two different methods of training, each intended to increase the policeman's effectiveness and safety through providing knowledge about human behavior. No other explanations were given for the differences in training between the two groups.

Selection of Groups

If some of the recruit class received extra group A training while the others received none, the latter might well feel left out, bitter and jealous. One could not then be sure whether any group differences which resulted were due to the effects of the training or to a "Hawthorne" effect. To control for this, those men not selected for group A training also received extra training. Formed into a second group, these men received conventional training (group B).

Immediately after hearing the introductory remarks, the entire class of recruits completed the following procedures, in order: the Manifest Alienation Measure, the

Empathy scale, the Interpersonal Sensitivity scale, the scales for Judging Emotional Behavior and the Cynicism scale. These procedures comprised 154 items and were completed in approximately 90 minutes.

Upon completion of these scales, the class was divided into two groups: group A which was to receive training in conflict management, and group B which was to receive education in the behavioral and social sciences. It was originally intended that there be 15-20 men in group A so as to limit size during small group discussions. However, to conform to the practical needs of the Academy training staff and facilities, it was necessary that neither group be larger than 30 men. Thus, of the 53 men present during that first day, 23 were assigned to group A and 30 to group B.

To ensure random selection the name of each recruit was written on a slip of paper and drawn from a small box. In full view of the entire recruit class, one recruit picked names from the box, one at a time. The first name chosen was assigned to group B, the second to group A, the third to group B, and so on until 23 men had been assigned to each group. Then the remaining seven names were assigned to group B, for a total of 30 in that group. The man who began training later was assigned to group A.

The two groups were comparable in terms of age: group A mean = 26.90, group B mean = 26.53 (df = 49, $t = 0.32$, $p > .05$).¹

¹Henceforth all group data will concern only the 22 recruits in group A and the 29 recruits in group B who completed all procedures.

The Otis scores of the groups were not significantly different (group A mean = 91.05, group B mean = 93.76; $df = 49$, $t = 1.18$, $p > .05$). In group A, 16 recruits were Negro, 5 Caucasian and 1 Puerto Rican. In group B, 17 were Negro, 9 Caucasian and 3 Puerto Rican.

The Dependent Variables

Alienation

Only recently have serious attempts been made to measure alienation, although this phenomenon had received consideration for decades by both sociologists (Marx, 1932; Merton, 1949) and psychologists (Rank, 1929; Adler, 1939; Fromm, 1941; Erikson, 1959).

Seeman (1959) attempted to structure the phenomenon by postulating that alienation consisted of five components: Powerlessness, Meaninglessness, Normlessness, Isolation and Self-estrangement. Dean (1961) extended Seeman's effort by developing a measure of alienation. His work and the efforts of others (Gould, 1964; Keniston, 1965) support the assumption that the various components of alienation can be validly and usefully conceptualized as a syndrome. Gould (1964) argued that this syndrome (of the alienated person) consisted of the possession of a view of society marked by cynicism, pessimism and distrust, and a view of the individual as manipulative, uncaring and emotionally distant. He developed a scale to measure these components: the Manifest Alienation Measure (MAM). This scale is composed of 20 items, presented in a Likert-type format, which reflect the general attitudinal-affective syndrome composed of pessimism,

cynicism, distrust, apathy and emotional distance. These items were derived from several factor analytic investigations (Klein and Struening, 1961; Struening and Cohen, 1964; Struening and Richardson, 1964) in which the items clustered together in a number of large and widely diverse populations. The possible range of scores on the MAM is 20-140. In a sample of 429 undergraduates, the split-half reliability of the MAM was .86 when corrected for attenuation (Gould, 1964).

Construct validation of the MAM and the syndrome which it measures have consisted of demonstrating the relationship between alienation and various indices of socio-emotional difficulties: response acquiescence, social isolation, social introversion and admission of pathology (Gould, 1964), as well as lack of commitment and marked identity concerns (Keniston, 1965). Recently, Klein and Gould (1969) reported that alienated females show weak identification with their parents, negative perceptions of their mothers and socio-emotional difficulties, when compared with low-alienated females. The alienated females showed greater acquiescence ($t = 4.30$, $p < .001$), more social introversion ($t = 2.85$, $p < .01$) and more admission of pathology ($t = 3.03$, $p < .01$), findings which parallel those reported earlier for alienation in males (Gould, 1964).

In addition to its construct validity, the MAM has differentiated between schizophrenics differing in the amount of pathology attributed to themselves (Fontana, Klein, Lewis, and Levine, 1968) and has been a useful predictor of

behavior and perception (Gould, 1964; Klein and Gould, 1965). It would appear that one parameter being measured by the MAM is the tendency to admit "bad things" about oneself.

In view of the foregoing, the MAM will serve as the measure of alienation in the present study, in which alienation will be defined as scores on that scale (see Appendix 1). In so doing, this study provides objective measures of alienation, in contrast to the subjective, often anecdotal bases in much literature which infers alienation in the police.

Cynicism

The interest of the present study was in the policeman's cynicism about police work. Cynicism herein was measured by the Cynicism scale (Niederhoffer, 1967), and operationally defined as scores on that scale (slightly modified for use with Housing Authority Police, see Appendix 1).

Niederhoffer devised and successfully tested his scale with members of the New York Police Department. His scale appeared to measure a meaningful construct which can be used to classify or predict. It consists of 20 open-ended statements concerning significant areas of police work. There are three possible completions listed for each statement, and the subject is instructed to select that completion he believes makes the statement most nearly correct. In each case the first choice was most closely attuned to the professional view of what a police department should be. The second choice was less extreme, representing a common-

sense, middle-of-the-road approach. The last choice was a cynical or disparaging evaluation of the issue. The range of scores is from 20-100. In the present study the three alternative completions were presented in random order so as to eliminate order effects in responding.

The Cynicism scale provides the only published measure of cynicism regarding police work specifically, and its use in the present study permitted comparison of the scores of the Housing Authority recruits with those of subjects tested by Niederhoffer - recruits and policemen from the larger, older and more conventional New York Police Department. It was anticipated that such a comparison would provide a measure of the differential effects of these two department's Academy training upon the cynicism of its men, whether in fostering different attitudes toward each department or in leading to different response sets toward the measuring instrument.

Empathy

It is postulated herein that the level of empathy in the police officer is a determinant of his ability to maintain order effectively. There is a general consensus among psychologists that empathy is an important aspect of social intercourse and personality study, deserving of priority in research (Fox and Goldin, 1964). However, most attempts to develop a valid and easily administered^{ed} measure of empathy have not been well received.

Empathy scale.-- An early attempt at measurement in this area was the Moss Test of Social Intelligence, introduced in 1928. By 1937, however, the data gathered about the test led to its criticism as a measure of empathy (Thorndike and Stein, 1937). After W. W. II Kerr (1947) introduced his Empathy Test, but serious questions regarding its validity have been raised by reviewers (Thorndike, 1959; Hall, 1963). Dymond's (1948; 1949; 1950) measure of empathic ability requires a cumbersome scoring methods and has been questioned on methodological grounds by Hastorf and Bender (1952). The Kerr and Dymond tests seem almost totally unrelated. Hall and Bell (1953) found a $+0.02$ correlation between them; Gilbert (1953) found a correlation of -0.06 .

Sargent's Test of Insight into Human Nature (1953) is a projective measure offering incidents involving interpersonal situations, the subject being required to forecast what would be said and done by the characters portrayed, and to comment on his own feelings. This test was designed primarily to provide diagnostic information, however, rather than ascertain empathic ability, and has been criticized for its inadequate background (Anastasi, 1961). More recently Cassell (1963) introduced his Test of Social Insight. Reviewers of this test have concurred that it lacks validity and is only slightly related to empathic capacity for understanding others (Bordin, 1960; Black, 1965).

The Chapin Social Insight Test (1942) calls for the respondent to read 25 vignettes and then to select for each

the option which he judges the most insightful commentary or wisest course of action. Gough (1965) recently reported the results of a series of validation studies of the Chapin scale, indicating that it correlated with "various indices of social sensitivity and social acuity... (and identified) various individuals who impress others as insightful, perceptive, imaginative, and resourceful [p. 355]." While the Chapin scale is the most acceptable of those procedures discussed to this point, its purity has been questioned by Hogan (1969): "...the Chapin test seems more closely tied to the realm of social and interpersonal effectiveness than to the dimension of empathy per se, although overlap certainly exists [p. 308]."

Hogan (1969) introduced a scale designed to predict Q-sort derived empathy ratings. Psychologists were asked to describe their concept of a highly empathic person on the full California Q-sort. Their composite description served as the empathy criterion. An illustration of this criterion is provided by the following five items selected as most characteristic of an empathic person:

1. Is socially perceptive of a wide range of interpersonal cues.
2. Seems to be aware of the impression he makes on others.
3. Is skilled in social techniques of imaginative play, pretending, and humor.
4. Has insights into own motives and behavior.
5. Evaluates the motivation of others in interpreting situations.

All of these items reflect insight, social acuity and perceptiveness. The five items selected as least characteristic of an empathic man were:

1. Does not vary roles; relates to everyone in the same way.
2. Judges self and others in conventional terms like "popularity," "the correct thing to do," social pressures, etc.
3. Is uncomfortable with uncertainty and complexities.
4. Extrapunitive; tends to transfer or project blame.
5. Handles anxiety and conflicts by, in effect, refusing to recognize their presence; repressive or dissociative tendencies.

All of these items reflect conventionality, antiintraception, and reliance on projection and repression.

The final scale was derived from scores of 211 people judged to be high, middle, and low in amounts of empathy. Item analyses were made of their responses to several personality tests (MMPI, CPI and IPAR). Various methods were used to select the 64 items which comprise the full Empathy scale. Reliability for this scale was evidenced by a test-retest correlation of .84 after a two-month interval. The K-R formula applied to the scores of another group yielded a coefficient of +.71.

The scale was found to correlate with a number of criteria of empathy and social acuity ranging from +.39 to +.62, and to differentiate between boys ($p < .01$) and girls ($p < .05$) rated as most and least socially acute.

A further source of an instrument's validity is its

relationship to other instruments in ways consistent with the dimension it purports to measure. The following correlations are consistent with conceptions of empathy:

The Empathy scale correlated positively, to a significant degree ($p < .05$), with:

1. Ego functioning, mania, ego strength, and social desirability (MMPI).
2. Scales designed to measure social and interpersonal adequacy, and with intellectual efficiency (CPI).
3. Extroversion (both the Maudsley Personality Inventory and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator).

The Empathy scale was found to correlate negatively, to a significant degree ($p < .05$), with:

1. Depression, social introversion, anxiety, and manifest anxiety (MMPI).
2. Neuroticism (Maudsley Personality Inventory).
3. Introversion (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator).
4. Authoritarianism (Faschism scale).
5. Dogmatism (Rokeach Dogmatism scale).

A further check on the Empathy scale's consistency with common notions regarding empathic ability consisted of having each of 103 fraternity men, who had taken the Empathy scale, describe five of his peers on the 300-word Gough Adjective Check List (Gough, 1960; Gough and Heilbrun, 1965). The ten words most descriptive of high scorers (the more empathic) were: pleasant, charming, friendly, dreamy, cheerful, sociable, sentimental, imaginative, discreet, and tactful. Thus the

high scorers on the Empathy scale seemed likeable, friendly, poised and tactful. They were seen as outgoing, at ease with people and warm.

The ten words most descriptive of low scorers (the less empathic) were: cruel, cold, quarrelsome, hostile, bitter, unemotional, unkind, hard-hearted, argumentative, and opinionated. Thus the low scorers on the Empathy scale seemed disaffected, aloof and tending to alienate others.

These findings are generally consistent with the conception of empathic ability as one of being able to understand another's thoughts and feelings.

An abbreviated version of the Empathy scale, consisting of the 31 CPI items which appear in the full scale, was found to correlate +.92 with the full scale score, the prorated means only very slightly underestimating the appropriate full scale value.

The available data on Hogan's Empathy scale indicates that it appears to adequately differentiate between people who are socially acute and sensitive to nuances of interpersonal behavior, on the one hand, and, on the other, people who seem hostile, cold, and insensitive to the feelings of others. In the present study, empathy will be measured by, and operationally defined as scores on two instruments, one of which is Hogan's Empathy scale.

Other empathy measures.-- The second instrument which will be used to assess empathic ability in the present study involves the presentation of a motion picture, "Judging Emotional Behavior,"¹ which was designed to measure ability to correctly perceive others' emotions. In this film, ten sequences are shown wherein two people are seen responding as if certain events described by a narrator were actually something that they experienced. These subjects, one male and one female, are not actors. They had been hypnotized prior to the filming of these sequences and were under post-hypnotic suggestion to believe that the stories had actually happened to them. Some of these stories, each of which describes an intense feeling, were actual events in the life of one or the other subject, some were fictitious. The viewer is required to judge which emotion (from a list of 13 emotions) is being experienced, and which of the two subjects, if either, is reliving a past experience.

This method avoids the disadvantage of judging emotions from still photographs which only show frozen movement; the film reveals a total behavior pattern. The criterion consists of the feelings which the subjects reported as having experienced during each filmed sequence, plus knowledge of who had really had that experience. These are preferable as criteria than methods in which professional actors portray given

¹A Churchill-Wexler production, available from the New York University Film Library.

emotions, as well as to methods where the criterion of emotion is derived by expert consensus. The method described has the added advantage of naturalness, for the subjects expressed their feelings within the social context determined by the presence of the other subject and the camera crew. Furthermore, the film allows viewers to make judgments without hearing the narrator's stories, thereby reproducing a situation common to police work- the necessity of making rapid judgments based on limited information.

This second instrument used to measure empathy has two parts: one consists of the number of correct judgments (out of ten) as to which emotion is being experienced, the other consists of the number of correct choices (out of ten) made regarding which subject, if either, is reliving each experience (see Appendix 1).

Interpersonal Sensitivity

Early studies of sensitivity, by virtue of using varying and unproven criteria, led to conflicting and confusing results and to the questioning, by some, of the generality of accurate interpersonal perception as a trait (Crow and Hamond, 1957; Stone and Leavitt, 1954).

A number of writers have maintained, however, that accurate interpersonal perception is a trait. Bronfenbrenner, Harding and Gallway (1958) indicated that the trait in question had component factors of both sensitivity to the generalized other and of interpersonal sensitivity. In reviewing studies of social perception, Taft (1955) maintained that

the "contradictions between studies may be due to specific factors... (and concluded)...there does seem to be sufficient generality of this ability to justify describing at least some judges as 'good' or 'poor' [p. 20]." Bruner and Tagiuri (1954) also assumed that accuracy in social perception is a generalized ability: "We are inclined to agree with G. W. Allport's claim that it would be more erroneous to 'consider the ability entirely specific than to conclude it entirely general[pp. 645-646]."

In deriving measures of sensitivity a variety of methods have been employed to present the respondent with the person he is to judge. In reviewing the research investigating sensitivity to others, Smith (1966) found that after the respondent was exposed to the subject (or information about the subject), he was typically asked to indicate his perceptions of the subject or to predict how the subject would or did respond to various questions or situations. These responses would then be compared with some criterion (e.g., the subject's actual responses, or expert judges' opinions) to derive an index of sensitivity.

The most valid objective method of measuring the ability to predict what another will do appears to consist of requiring respondents to do just that, to make predictions and to compare these to the subject's actual responses. These actual responses serve as the criterion of predictive accuracy. Of this methodology Smith (1966) reported: "Because of its greater validity, the method is being used with increasing

frequency in the development of sensitivity measures [p. 49]."

Criticisms of this method have been directed towards the unnaturalness of using it as a measure of sensitivity during psychotherapy sessions (Fox and Goldin, 1964; Bachrach, 1968; Wogan, 1969), or towards the need for partialling out the components of the judgmental process (Gage and Cronbach, 1955). Cronbach (1955) defined five components of sensitivity: the perceiver's understanding of group behavior, the extent to which he assumes the subject is like him, the extent to which he spreads his ratings, the extent to which he habitually rates at high or low levels, and his accuracy in differentiating between people (termed Differential Accuracy). This last component is seen as the primary criterion of interpersonal sensitivity. As Smith (1966) put it:

"Accuracy in predicting how a person will think and behave is not just a good measure of sensitivity, it is the measure [p. 48]."

Building on the work of Cronbach and of Bronfenbrenner et al (1958), Smith (1966) proposed that the ability to predict behavior consists of six components (Level, Spread, Empathy, Observation, Differentiation between groups, and Differentiation between individuals), each of which is defined and measured separately from the others. Grossman (1963) retermed the last component "individual accuracy" and considered that, when measured separately from the other five components, it is the ability to distinguish between people when cues as to group membership are minimal. He

developed a measure of Individual Accuracy which was free from the influences of Level, Spread and Differentiation between groups (stereotypes). This measure is a modification of a film test originally developed by Cline; the original consisted of the use of two color sound movies of interviews with three men and three women. Each was asked a series of standard questions dealing with personal values, hobbies, reactions to being interviewed, religious beliefs, and personality strength and weaknesses. Grossman (1967) had his subjects read typescripts of these interviews and then asked them questions which called for them to predict which of the men interviewed had responded in certain ways to statements, described himself a certain way, or was described by his friends in a certain way. Items in his criterion were "chosen on the basis of high discrimination for interpersonal sensitivity, and no discrimination for group sensitivity, thus reducing the effects of stereotyping [p. 12]." For this "men test" Grossman reported an odd-even reliability of +.50.

Grossman indicated that the use of typescripts provided certain advantages over the use of films: (a) elimination of visual cues probably reduces the effects of stereotyping by eliminating the physical appearance cues which have been shown to exert powerful influences in judgments (McKeachie, 1952; Secord, 1958), (b) ease of administration, (c) control over extraneous variables such as memory and differences in hearing and vision. Furthermore,

there is empirical evidence that mode of presentation has no significant effect on predictive accuracy (Giedt, 1955; Borke and Fiske, 1957; Kepes, 1965).

Grossman (1967) recommended the continuing use of type-scripts in the criterion of Individual Accuracy. In his procedure respondents make 30 predictions as to the interviewees' responses (second-order prediction) and 30 predictions as to how interviewees' friends rated them (third-order predictions). Both Grossman (1967) and Kepes (1965) reported that third-order predictions were not improved to a significant degree as a result of sensitivity training. Grossman believed that the two orders of predictions required different abilities in the respondents. With this in mind, the present study used only those items measuring second-order predictions. Interpersonal sensitivity was measured by the 30 items from the "men test" in Grossman's (1967) Individual Accuracy criterion, and operationally defined as scores on that instrument.

Training Conditions

Police Academy Training

Each recruit underwent the normal program of training for housing patrolmen at the Housing Police Academy. The Housing Police provide 60 days (12 weeks) of Academy training to its police recruits. To accommodate the additional training this recruit class received at The Psychological Center, the Academy training for these men lasted one

additional week. Academy training is provided primarily by police officers who are staff members at the Academy.

The Housing Police Academy is located in the basement of a housing development. This inadequate facility contains one large classroom (barely able to seat 60 men), one like-sized room which serves as a gymnasium, one room for office personnel, and a locker room.

Personal observation of the atmosphere at the Police Academy, plus descriptions by men undergoing training there, provided a picture of such training: the men usually met together in the classroom where they received lectures. They had to take notes (being told that part of their final grade was a rating of the neatness and thoroughness of their notebooks). Smoking was not allowed during lectures, and when a recruit was called upon or volunteered to speak he had to stand. The picture of the atmosphere at the Academy is consistent with Germann's (1968) description of the nature of police academies:

As far as police academy training is concerned, the strategy is clearly in developing personnel over whom the organization can easily exercise control -- not in developing self-directed and autonomous personnel. There is a 'boot camp' environment, a 'lock-step' tone, and 'indoctrination' is the theme, objective and method [p. 22].

Group A Training

When the members of group A met for classes, it was in a large room in The Psychological Center of The City College of The City University of New York. At the start of train-

ing The Psychological Center was in the process of moving to new, off-campus quarters. In fact, during the first third of training, practically no one else used the quarters. As such both groups met in newly painted and furnished surroundings; the atmosphere being vastly different from that at the Academy. The members in group A spent much of their time in one of two smaller rooms, with about half the men in each. In each room used by the recruits at The Psychological Center the men sat in new "director's" chairs with ample ashtrays nearby.

Group A leaders.-- The two group leaders were graduate students in the clinical psychology program at The City College of New York. One leader was a first-year student with experience leading a group with hospitalized patients as well as in participating in T groups and encounter groups. The other group leader was a fifth-year student with five years of experience conducting psychotherapy with individuals, families, and groups. Also serving as group leaders, from time to time, were members of the 30th Precinct (New York Police Department) Family Crisis Intervention Unit (Bard, 1969), each of whom was an experienced patrolman with laboratory training experience.

Training procedures for group A included group discussions, lectures, role-playing, films, and real-life simulations, all of which can be said to fall under the general rubric of what may be vaguely called "laboratory" training or "sensitivity" training (Smith, 1966). Sensitivity training, or T group

training, has been described by Schein and Bennis (1965) as: "an educational strategy which is based primarily on the experiences in various social encounters by the learners themselves and aims to influence attitudes and develop competencies toward learning about human interactions [p. 47]."

Varieties of such training have been used to influence many characteristics, including, among others: cognitive complexity (Harrison, 1966), self-acceptance (Bunker, 1963; Gordon, 1950), anomie, human-heartedness and self-acceptance (Rubin, 1967), and even attitudes of policemen (Bieliauskas, 1969). Such training has also served as the primary independent variable in a number of recent doctoral dissertations, including, among others, studies of its effects on: in-service teacher training (Lee, 1967), Machiavellianism, control and social desirability (Mitchell, 1967), and various social-emotional factors (DeMichele, 1966).

While group A's training was designed to improve human interactional skills, several important features differentiated it from what is ordinarily associated with "laboratory" or "sensitivity" training. In group A the covert (and often overt) emphasis was upon situations involving conflicts which did or might require police intervention. Furthermore, most of the conflict situations with which the group was concerned were ones which either had occurred or might occur outside the group. These situations were discussed primarily in terms of the role of the police officer. The aura of expertise placed by participants upon (and usually accepted

by) leaders of laboratory training groups, T groups, sensitivity groups, encounter groups and psychotherapy groups was missing in A1 and A2. There the two group leaders claimed no expertise regarding police practices and rejected offerings of such expertise on those rare occasions when it was offered.

In addition to, and concurrent with Police Academy training, members of group A met on twelve Tuesdays, from 8:00 A.M. - 11:15 A.M. during 12 weeks of the 13 week Academy training period (see Appendix 2).

The various training methods employed for group A are presented below in an order reflecting the frequency employed (i.e., the most frequently used is presented first, the least frequently used last).

Group discussions.-- These were generally held each week in two groups (A1 and A2). In each the men sat in a circle; no rules were prescribed for the manner in which the discussions were to proceed. Generally the leader in each subgroup listened to spontaneous comments and sought to articulate the underlying themes being expressed by the officers (e.g., pride and anxiety upon receiving their revolvers). Individual opinions were sought and interaction was encouraged. Role-playing of conflicts and police interventions was frequently employed. There were occasions when the leaders did introduce topics for discussion. These included: (a) conceptions of the "ideal" police officer, (b) individual feelings about

being a policeman, (c) aspects of non-verbal communication, and (d) drug abuse and drug abusers.

Real-life simulations.-- During each of three of the last four training sessions professional actors enacted a different scripted dispute (Bard, 1969).¹ These were designed so that at a designated point in the portrayal two recruits would enter (unaware of what had preceded their entrance other than that a "disturbance" was occurring) and try to manage the conflict. Subsequent to the end of the script and the recruits' entrance, the actors improvised their responses according to the recruits' behavior. For each script, several pairs of recruits intervened. The audience of trainees, observing and hearing the action behind one-way mirrors, could recognize differences in their peers' actions as these affected the situation's outcomes. Subsequently all met and shared their perceptions and feelings. Many recruits felt that these real-life simulations were the highlight of their training.

Lectures.-- Several topics were considered to require the format of structured lectures. These included: (a) emotional disorders, (b) non-verbal communication, (c) effects of culture, (d) conflict resolution in psychological terms, and (e) referral resources and procedures.

¹Plays for Living, a division of Family Service Association of America, 44 E. 23rd St., New York, New York.

Visual aids.-- The film "Role Playing in Human Relations Training"¹ was shown without being previewed due to a delay in shipment. In the film, middle-aged and older persons used role-playing for problems unrelated to police work (e.g., leading a parents' discussion group). Shown during the first group A session, considerable effort had to be extended to undo the film's negative effects and pointed up the danger of relying on descriptive literature used to promote films.

Consistent with the emphasis upon affective-experiential learning about conflicts of concern to policemen, newly produced and as yet unreleased films were shown which depicted actual policemen intervening in situations while sharing their reactions with the audience.² It had been anticipated that the recruits would experience more involvement in situations which they might soon be facing themselves.

Slides were shown of people in various modes of dress.³ Each trainee saw each person in one outfit only and rated that person along several dimensions (intelligence, trustworthiness, and likelihood of career success). Then all members met together, saw all the slides and compared their own reactions to those of their peers (all ratings were averaged for each slide; ratings were announced as each slide was shown) who saw the same and alternate slides.

¹National Education Association, 1949.

²Film Modules Inc., 15 W. 44th St., New York, N. Y.

³Two policemen, one Negro and one Caucasian, in uniform and civilian clothing; two housewives, each in both conventional and "hippie" attire.

The intent here was to demonstrate, in terms meaningful to the participants, the extent to which judgments about people can be influenced by such nonverbal communications as attire.

Group B Training

Consistent with the goal of providing training for this group which was equivalent in form to typical police academy training, lectures and films were the sole methods used. Indeed, it has been reported that 96% of police training consists of lectures and discussions (President's Commission Task Force Report: The Police, 1967). A good deal of effort was devoted to provide a meaningful training program that would be relevant to the recruits, and which would have the best available instructors. The curriculum covered the psychology of the individual at various stages of development, physical anthropology, social anthropology, all designed to provide a well-rounded view of human motivation and behavior (see Appendix 2).

Lectures.-- Each topic was covered in a one or two hour period. The instructors were chosen on the basis of their familiarity with the content areas. They were advised to downplay such issues as statistics, references and research methodology, while gearing their presentations to cover major issues and trends in the area. The keynotes stressed were flexibility and variety. Consistent with these, 14 instructors (including two females) contributed to the 42 hours of instructional training for this group.

Films.-- A number of films were selected on the dual bases of providing additional variety and supplementing the lecture material. The number of films shown was limited so as to approximate the proportion of film-to-lecture ratio at the Academy (approximately 5%-10%).

As the group A members, B group recruits met on 12 mornings (Wednesdays) from 8:00 A.M. - 11:15 A.M. during 12 weeks of the 13 week Academy training period.

Post-Evaluation

During the last week of Academy training, just prior to being assigned as regular patrolmen, the entire class of recruits completed the same procedures as on their first day at the Housing Police Academy. In addition, each completed an anonymous, open-ended questionnaire evaluating his training.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Recruits' Pre-Training Scores

In Table 1 are presented descriptive data concerning the scores on each measure of the entire recruit class during their first day at the Police Academy.

TABLE 1

RECRUITS' PRE-TRAINING SCORES^a

Variable	Mean	S. D.	Obtained Range	Maximum Range
Feeling Identification	2.94	1.54	0 - 6	0 - 10
Person Identification	3.72	1.45	0 - 7	0 - 10
Empathy scale	34.15	4.32	26 - 44	0 - 64
Interpersonal Sensitivity	11.52	3.51	3 - 17	0 - 30
Cynicism	35.17	6.51	24 - 54	20 - 100
Alienation	72.45	13.22	46 - 102	20 - 140

^an=51

Comparisons With Other Groups

Feeling identification and person identification.-- There is no known data which reports scores for other groups on these measures.

Empathy scale.-- Hogan (1969) reports scores for several groups on this instrument. The police recruits obtained higher Empathy scale scores (denoting greater empathy) than did young delinquents (mean = 29.1), prison inmates (mean = 30.4) and junior high school students (mean = 31.0). The police recruits had lower Empathy scale scores than the following groups: architects (mean = 36.8), military officers (mean = 37.7), research scientists (mean = 40.3) and college students with various majors (means ranging from 39.1 - 44.7). Unfortunately there are no published data to be found concerning groups more similar to the police recruits, who served as subjects in the present study.

Interpersonal sensitivity.-- The recruits' scores were just below those obtained by 49 undergraduates (mean = 12.16) in the only known study using this instrument (Grossman, 1967).

Cynicism.-- Recruits entering the New York Police Department had cynicism scores averaging 42.6 (Niederhoffer, 1967). The Housing Police recruits obtained scores (mean = 35.17) which averaged significantly lower than those obtained by the New York Police Department recruits ($t = 4.34$, $df = 83$, $p < .001$).

Alienation.-- Scores of 429 undergraduates from Connecticut (Gould, 1964) were significantly lower (mean = 63.8) than those of the recruits (mean = 72.45; $t = 4.39$, $df = 478$, $p < .001$).

Intercorrelations Between The Measures

A correlation matrix of the scores at pre-training indicates that significant intercorrelations occurred between the following pairs: Feeling Identification and Interpersonal Sensitivity, and Cynicism and Alienation. In view of the lack of relationship found between the three measures of empathy (Feeling Identification, Person Identification and the Empathy scale), the data regarding empathic ability have subsequently been reported in terms of each of these instrument's separate analysis. The correlation matrix is shown in Table 2.

Effectiveness of Random Assignments

The data for group B consists of the responses of 29 officers. In group A the members met in two subgroups of 11 men each (A1 and A2). Pre-training scores for A1, A2 and B are presented in Table 3.

The method used to test the effectiveness of the randomization procedure consisted of analyses of variance for each measure of the scores for group B and for A1 and A2. These analyses reveal no significant differences to have existed between the groups' pre-training scores (see Appendix 3).

TABLE 2

CORRELATION MATRIX OF PRE-TRAINING SCORES^a

	Feeling Identification	Person Identification	Empathy scale	Interpersonal Sensitivity	Cynicism	Alienation
Feeling Identification						
Person Identification	+ .07					
Empathy scale	.03	.29 ^b				
Interpersonal Sensitivity	.14	.12	.13			
Cynicism	.00	.00	.00	.22		
Alienation	.00	-.02	.00	.00	.44 ^c	

^an = 51

^bA correlation of .28 is significant at the .05 level.

^cA correlation of .37 is significant at the .01 level.

Combination of Data of A-Subgroups

For each measure, one-way analyses of variance of post-training scores between the subgroups A₁ and A₂ were computed. These data, presented in Appendix 3, reveal that no significant differences between these subgroups are evident.

Therefore, subsequent data analyses of post-training scores

will be in terms of these two subgroups combined and presented as group A.

PRE-TRAINING SCORES OF GROUP B AND A-SUBGROUPS
Table 3

Variable	A1 ^a		A2 ^b		B ^c	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Feeling Identification	3.00	1.18	2.82	1.40	2.92	1.74
Person Identification	3.64	1.63	3.82	1.17	3.72	1.51
Empathy scale	33.82	4.07	35.36	3.20	33.83	4.73
Interpersonal Sensitivity	11.36	4.46	11.72	3.93	11.52	2.94
Cynicism	34.91	7.50	33.81	6.89	35.79	5.96
Alienation	75.46	10.38	70.63	13.15	72.00	14.16

a n = 11

b n = 11

c n = 20

Post-training scores for group B and the A-subgroups are presented in Table 4.

POST-TRAINING SCORES OF GROUP B AND A-SUBGROUPS

Table 4

Variable	A ₁ ^a		A ₂ ^b		B ^c		Range
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Feeling Identification	2.91	1.58	3.91	1.22	3.34	1.45	0-7
Person Identification	4.00	1.10	4.00	1.18	3.93	1.33	2-7
Empathy scale	33.36	4.72	35.73	3.41	36.34	4.32	27-45
Interpersonal Sensitivity	10.64	2.73	10.82	2.29	11.21	2.68	7-16
Cynicism	33.45	9.92	35.64	10.40	37.45	7.03	22-56
Alienation	74.82	14.39	74.73	10.81	69.31	12.45	36-98

a n = 11

b n = 11

c n = 29

The Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Cynicism

It was hypothesized that the cynicism level of recruits in group B would be higher at the completion of training than at the beginning. The mean cynicism score for this group at the start of training was 35.79, after training it was 37.45. Although the change was in the direction predicted, the difference was not significant ($t = 0.94$, $df = 56$, $p > .05$).

It was hypothesized that the expected rise in cynicism in group B would not occur in group A, so that the cynicism of men receiving group B training would be higher than the level in group A. Failure to confirm the first hypothesis made confirmation of the second hypothesis unlikely. The data do, indeed, fail to support the second hypothesis. At the completion of training the cynicism levels of groups A and B (means of 34.54 and 37.45, respectively) were not significantly different ($t = 1.22$, $df = 49$, $p > .05$). In Appendix 3 are presented the results of a Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance - Unweighted Means Solution (Winer, 1962) of the cynicism scores of the two groups. No significant differences occurred either between groups, as a function of time of testing or in the interaction. Thus the data do not support the hypothesis that group A training counteracts the development of cynicism about police work.

Hypothesis 2: Alienation

It was hypothesized that alienation level would be lower for officers who received group A training than for officers who received group B training. A Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance - Unweighted Means Solution failed, however, to reveal significant differences between groups, as a function of time of testing or in the interaction (see Appendix 3). The data do not support the second hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: "Social Sensitivity"

Evaluation of this hypothesis consisted of tests of measures of empathy and of interpersonal sensitivity.

Empathy.-- Hypothesis 3a states that the level of empathy of men receiving group B training would be no higher at the completion of training than at the beginning (Null hypothesis). This hypothesis was tested by conducting \bar{t} tests for each measure of empathy between test-retest scores.¹

(1) For Feeling Identification the scores before training (mean = 2.96, S.D. = 1.74) and after training (mean = 3.34, S.D. = 1.44) were not found to be significantly different ($\bar{t} = 0.90$, $df = 56$, $p > .05$).

(2) For Person Identification the scores before training (mean = 3.72, S.D. = 1.50) and after training (mean = 3.93, S.D. = 1.33) were not found to differ ($\bar{t} = 0.06$, $df = 56$, $p > .05$).

¹Although Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance - Unweighted Means Solutions revealed no significant test-retest or interaction effects for any of the three empathy variables, \bar{t} tests were carried out for hypotheses 3a and 3b because each contained specific hypotheses about group B.

(3) For the Empathy scale scores before training (mean = 33.82, S.D. = 4.73) and after training (mean = 36.34, S.D. = 4.31) were significantly different ($t = 2.19$, $df = 56$, $p < .05$). The Empathy scale scores of recruits in group B were higher after training.

Thus the data bearing on hypothesis 3a are not unequivocal. While no differences were found for test-retest in group B for Person Identification and Feeling Identification, scores on the Empathy scale were significantly higher at the completion of training than at the beginning.

Hypothesis 3c states that the level of empathy would be higher for officers receiving group A training than for officers receiving group B training. The results of Repeated Measures Analyses of Variance - Unweighted Solutions for each of the three empathy criteria are presented in Appendix 3. These indicate that no significant differences at test or retest existed between the groups; hypothesis 3c was not confirmed.

Interpersonal sensitivity.-- Hypothesis 3b states that the level of interpersonal sensitivity would be no higher at the completion of training than at the beginning of training for officers of group B. A t test comparing scores on this measure before training (mean = 11.51, S.D. = 2.93) and after training (mean = 11.20, S.D. = 2.67) revealed no significant differences ($t = 0.43$, $df = 56$, $p > .05$). The data are consistent with hypothesis 3b.

Hypothesis 3d states that at the completion of training interpersonal sensitivity would be higher in group A than in group B. A Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance - Unweighted Means Solution for this variable revealed no significant differences to have existed between groups, at test-retest or in the interaction (see Appendix 3).

Analysis of the data regarding hypothesis 3, that group A training will enhance "social sensitivity," is negative. While it was the general finding that empathy and interpersonal sensitivity did not increase for officers receiving group B training, neither was it found that officers receiving group A training obtained higher scores on these variables than their peers in group B.

Post-Hoc Analysis For Racial Differences

For each group, Analyses of Variance - Unweighted Means Solutions were performed by race (Negro and Caucasian) and variable. For group B the only significant effect was that when scores of Negro and Caucasian Ss were considered jointly, Empathy scale scores were higher at post-testing than at pre-testing ($F = 6.06$, $df = 1/24$, $p < .025$; see Appendix 3).

For group A the analyses revealed only one main effect to have been significant: for Feeling Identification the Caucasian Ss achieved higher scores both before and after training than did the Negro Ss ($F = 9.65$, $df = 1/19$, $p < .01$; see Appendix 3).

The mean scores for Negro and Caucasian Ss in each group are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5

MEAN SCORES BY RACE AND GROUP

Variables	Group A ^a		Group B ^b	
	Negroes	Caucasians	Negroes	Caucasians
	Pre-testing			
Feeling Identification	2.56	3.80	2.47	3.67
Person Identification	3.75	3.40	4.12	3.00
Empathy scale	33.30	34.20	34.41	33.56
Interpersonal Sensitivity	11.75	10.00	11.18	11.56
Cynicism	34.25	32.80	34.71	36.89
Alienation	75.50	67.80	68.76	72.22
	Post-testing			
Feeling Identification	3.00	4.60	3.12	3.89
Person Identification	4.00	3.80	3.82	4.22
Empathy scale	34.25	35.60	35.47	37.44
Interpersonal Sensitivity	11.00	10.00	10.71	11.89
Cynicism	34.38	36.40	36.29	39.33
Alienation	77.38	68.40	69.06	67.56

^aConsists of 16 Negroes and 5 Caucasians.

^bConsists of 17 Negroes and 9 Caucasians.

Recruit Evaluation of Training

At the completion of training, all recruits anonymously evaluated the training they had received at The Psychological Center. Comparisons between groups were made using Chi-square analyses (with Yates' correction).

When asked whether they thought future groups of police recruits should receive the kind of training they had, unconditionally affirmative replies were given by 91% of group A respondees and by 68% of group B respondees. Thus most of the recruits valued their training positively. A larger proportion of the men in group A than in group B indicated a belief that such training should be continued with future recruit classes ($\chi^2 = 4.21$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$)

A greater proportion of respondents from group A (86%) than from group B (58%) replied affirmatively when asked if senior patrolmen should receive the training they had ($\chi^2 = 3.04$, $df = 1$, $p < .10$).

Having spent a good deal of time together, the recruits had had numerous opportunities to compare the two training methods. When asked which group they believed had benefitted most from training, none of the men from group A felt that the other group had benefitted more than they, whereas six of the men from group B felt that group A had had superior training ($\chi^2 = 4.16$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$).

Summary of Results

Comparisons were made between the scores of the entering police recruits and published data regarding the scores of other groups.

The randomization procedure's effectiveness was confirmed by a lack of significant differences for each variable either between groups A and B or between the two A subgroups.

Cynicism.-- The hypothesis that cynicism would increase in group B was not supported by the data. The auxiliary hypothesis that, after training, cynicism in group B would be greater than in group A was unsupported.

Alienation.-- The hypothesis that after training the level of alienation in group B would be greater than the level in group A was unsupported.

Social sensitivity.-- The null hypothesis that empathy would not increase in group B was supported for two measures of empathy. Scores on the third, the Empathy scale, were higher on retesting for this group, however.

The hypotheses that after training both empathy and interpersonal sensitivity would be greater in group A than in group B were unsupported.

The null hypothesis that interpersonal sensitivity would not increase in group B was supported by the data.

Racial differences.-- Post-hoc analyses of variance of the data for Negroes and Caucasians within each group generally failed to find differences, either between races or for

time of testing.

Recruit evaluation of training.-- Anonymous evaluations of their training were positive. Recruits who received group A training judged their training even more favorably than did group B recruits.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Hypothesis 1: Cynicism

The data indicated that there were no clearly significant increases in cynicism for either group.

The possibility must be considered that experiences during training in this police department do not lead to increases in cynicism. Such an explanation, however, would be at variance with the finding that newly appointed recruits in the New York Police Department showed significantly less cynicism than did recruits in that department who had two to three months of training (Niederhoffer, 1967). Comparing the police academies of the two departments reveals that the Housing Police Academy is modelled along the same lines as that of the municipal police department. Training at the latter department lasts four weeks longer, primarily due to study of summons procedures and additional physical training and field duty.¹ The municipal Police Academy is housed in larger quarters with more staff and students relative to the Housing Police Academy. To the extent that recruits seek benevolent authority within the police system, those entering

¹Personal communication from J. Wiesel, Lt., senior officer of the New York Housing Police Academy. The November, 1970 recruit class at this academy will have 16 weeks of training.

the larger and more impersonal municipal academy would be more likely to experience disappointment of this wish and, perhaps, more cynicism.¹

The discrepancy in cynicism levels at the two police departments may, however, be due to differences in the testing procedures used to assess cynicism: Niederhoffer (1967) did not require his subjects to identify themselves, nor were his response choices counterbalanced. In view of these procedural differences, especially the former, the question arises as to whether the findings are comparable at all. Consider the situation many of the recruits were in when sworn in during their first day at the Academy: most had no college education (indeed, many had only high school equivalency diplomas) and getting the job was an opportunity to earn a decent income (\$9499 annually, to start) with job security and as a respected citizen. Each man had been extensively investigated by the department prior to acceptance and, according to their own reports, knew it. In this context each man was required, during his very first day as a probationary patrolman, to report his attitudes about the system he had just conditionally entered. It seems reasonable to ask whether these men could be expected to take the risk of expressing criticism of this system

¹A consideration for which the author is indebted to Gerald W. Lynch, Ph.D.

when they had only the word of the unknown examiner (who had the department's sanction to gather information, at that) that their responses would be confidential. In retrospect, it seems somewhat naive to have expected them to have answered with complete honesty, and exemplifies one kind of pitfall awaiting those not fully familiar with the system under investigation.

On several occasions a number of recruits mentioned that as regards the Cynicism scale, the class had taken no chances and had given responses guided by what "the Inspector would want to see." A search for an objective measure of such a phenomenon led to examination of the responses to item # 6 on the MAM: "It is best to tell your superiors or bosses what they really want to hear." A post-hoc analysis of scores on this item (Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance - Unweighted Means Solution) indicated that while there were no differences between groups A and B ($F = 0.00$), there was a significant increase in agreement with this statement after training than at the start of training ($F = 7.02$, $df = 1/49$, $p < .025$). On the 7 point scale the group had an average score of 3.78 on their first day of training; the mean score for this item at the end of training was 4.45 (denoting agreement). At the start of training about half (25) of the recruits agreed with the statement (i.e., had scores of 5, 6 or 7); by the end of training 32 men agreed with it. This finding supports the view that the recruits had been cautious in responding to the Cynicism scale. It would

appear that these men had entered the police system with a tendency to perceive authority as closed-minded and authoritarian, and that their experiences during training reinforced that view.

These considerations cast doubt as to the validity of current findings as regards the Cynicism scale. There is also some question as to whether Niederhoffer's (1967) finding that cynicism dramatically rose after two to three months in the New York Police Department was due in part to initial caution (low cynicism on the first day) and, for the group with two to three months experience, increased job security and trust (reinforced by the anonymity denied the men in the present study). Yet, however unlikely it may seem, the possibility remains that the current findings are valid and that cynicism about the police did not increase in the Housing Police recruits.

Hypothesis 2: Alienation

The finding that alienation did not change for either group was unexpected. There is reason to believe that the responses to the MAM were not as influenced by the social desirability (or paranoia?) as was the cynicism scale for two reasons: the questions on the MAM were not related to the police department, and the recruits themselves indicated that the cynicism scale had received the most "cautious" responses.

It had been anticipated that membership in the para-

military police system, as well as training (in group B especially) which ignores or devalues personal impressions and prerogatives would either lead to increased alienation, or counteract decreases in alienation which might otherwise occur. The data suggest several explanations. One is that the two groups profitted equally despite differences in their training. There were some signs that the training received at The Psychological Center by group B was not as comparable as expected to training associated with police academies in terms of dehumanizing effects and passivity (together with passive-aggression) fostered. This is discussed more fully below.

Scattered reports that men in group B were receiving preferential treatment by some staff members at the Police Academy were made by group A recruits. These could not be objectively verified, but if true signalled a condition which could promote an increased sense of group identity for the men in group B. If any scapegoating did occur, it would more likely be against the men in group A. That group's training, being less like traditional Police Academy training, would more likely threaten those with a vested interest in maintaining traditional police training methods and arouse hostile and disparaging responses to itself.

One indication that this may indeed have occurred concerned the tradition in which the entire recruit class presents a plaque (or some other expression of appreciation) to the Police Academy staff as graduation approaches. There

was a break with this tradition by this recruit class. The men from group B gave the Academy the most impressive plaque it had ever received (identified as coming only from that group), while no plaque at all was presented by the men from group A.

A second possibility for the lack of change in alienation is that it may be police work, to a far greater extent than police training, which promotes alienation. Of the 520 hours of training received by these men, only about 80 hours (about 15%) of that time was spent "in the field," and even during this time their apprenticeship status was evidenced by their working under a senior patrolman and their wearing of khaki uniforms rather than the standard blue uniform worn by all police officers after graduation. A result of such limited contact with the public as police-~~was~~; they had relatively little experience with citizen hostility and awe, with corruption (civilian or police), or with the "nit-picking" procedures suffered by the lower echolons of most large bureaucracies, experiences which are presumed to foster alienation. Perhaps then, alienation in the police ~~accrues~~ with the experience of working as a policeman.

Or perhaps it does not accrue at all. The possibility remains to be tested that the alienation ascribed to policemen does not, in fact, exist. A test of this should be carried out with policemen of varying lengths of service, in various departments and in varying assignments.

On the basis of impressions derived from discussions with the officers after they had graduated from the Academy and were working in housing projects, alienation did appear to be increasing. Remarks were frequently made by the men referring to: judicial and governmental lack of support for policemen; manipulative, amoral and uncivilized citizenry; inept superiors and outmoded departmental procedures.¹ The impressions derived from such remarks cast doubt on the possibility that alienation is not a concomitant of the experience of working as a policeman.

Hypothesis 3: "Social Sensitivity"

The data do not support this hypothesis; clearly, group A training did not enhance empathic ability or interpersonal sensitivity, as these were measured.

In general, empathy was apparently unaffected by the recruits' experiences during training, regardless of which group they were in. There is no known empirical research which evaluates changes in the measures of empathy used in this study as a function of group experiences. The possibility exists, therefore, that these measures were not sensitive to any change in empathic level which may have occurred. Studies in which some kind of relatedness was evaluated following T group (or sensitivity) training frequently suffer from methodological shortcomings related to

¹Such "gripes" are not uncommon in policemen, especially during the earlier portion of their service.

the measuring instruments. Rubin (1967), for example, reported that "self-acceptance" and "human-heartedness" increased as a result of a sensitivity training laboratory experience. However, both of these variables were measured by techniques apparently used only in that study and of indeterminable validity and reliability. A similar design was employed by DeMichele (1966) who used scales completed by participants, peers, lab trainers and work supervisors. Ratings were gathered prior to training, at its conclusion and two months afterward. Of the 14 measures employed there were increases in three, which were called "Self-Understanding," "Ability to Listen" and "Social Sensitivity."

The present finding that group A training did not enhance Interpersonal Sensitivity unfortunately adds to Grossman's (1967) conclusion, based on a review of a number of empirical studies, that "across a wide variety of subjects and a variety of sensitivity criteria, training... (in psychology) ... has not led to improvement in the ability to predict behavior [p. 7]." Using the measure of Interpersonal Sensitivity employed in the present study, Grossman (1967) tested three groups, each of which had as its goal the enhancement of a different component of interpersonal sensitivity (level, empathy or individual accuracy), and a control group which received no training. Subjects were undergraduates enrolled in psychology courses. In terms of pre- and post-training scores on the dependent variable, male subjects showed no improvement, regardless of training.

The groups dealt primarily with processes similar to that of the dependent variable (i.e., subjects practiced on materials similar to those on the Interpersonal Sensitivity scale). Although the training sessions of the present study were dramatically different in goals and content from Grossman's, the finding that no benefit occurred for males was repeated. For a group of Michigan State University male undergraduates the average Interpersonal Sensitivity scale score was 12.29; for the 51 police recruits the average score on first testing was 11.52. Despite presumed differences in intellectual, academic and socio-cultural levels between the two groups, the level of interpersonal sensitivity is similar.

Limitations Of The Study

Data provide information of one sort, experience often provides information of another sort. Such was the case in the present study; this section deals with limitations suggested by both the data and by experience.

Lack of trust.-- As mentioned above, hindsight and comments by the recruits suggest that measures of police recruits' attitudes are likely to be affected by both garden-variety social desirability as well as by lack of trust specific to the police system. The lesson to be learned, it seems, is that certain factors may predispose to invalid responses. Foremost among these factors for the men who took part in this study was an apparently generalized distrust of authorities. This distrust was perhaps based on their experiences

in life whereby authority did serve to restrain them (most, if not all the recruits were from lower or lower-middle class backgrounds, and had served as enlisted men in the Armed Forces), and the belief that the truth might hurt them if their superiors found out about it (a belief partly shared by the writer).

During the design of this study, the possibility of using a system whereby each recruit would use a code number instead of identifying himself by name on the tests was considered. This was rejected on the belief that, while it might encourage more honesty, it might also reinforce the belief that their police superiors would indeed see their responses. The issue seemed to boil down to one of trust: if they trusted the examiner then any system would work; if they did not trust him it seemed unlikely that they would trust any identification system he used. For purposes of statistical comparisons, anonymous responding was not considered.

One verification of the reasoning against using a code system came in the form of a comment made by one of the men. While completing an adjective check list (as part of a subsequent investigation) for which no identification was required, he said: "C'mon, you can tell which of us does these anyway. I'll bet I can tell who fills these out by comparing the way they make their checks with other things they've written. (each man had left many handwriting samples

at the Police Academy)."

Lack of motivation.-- At the outset of their training and throughout, the recruits were repeatedly assured that their responses would have no bearing on their future assignments or their standing in the department. This was true. Also true, nonetheless,, was the apparent lack of relevance which the evaluation procedures had for the issues that were relevant to them (how to do a good job, how to survive in the streets, how to get ahead in the system, how to pass the Academy tests, plus the whole gamut of issues and problems that concern all men). Whether or not these men were threatened by paper and pencil tests or were "turned off" by them, they indicated in many ways that they were not concerned with the kind of evaluation central to this study (its apparent lack of face validity). Simply put, it was as if many of the officers felt: "These tests are your concern, staying alive is ours."

Attempts had repeatedly been made to impress on them the possible ramifications which the evaluation of the two groups might have both for their own department and others (in terms of modifications in police training, recognition of skills in dealing with people, etc.). It was not possible, however, to determine what effects these appeals had.

Limitations of group A's training.-- Early concerns that the recruits would resist discussion in groups vanished a few

moments after the first discussion began.¹ Throughout the training, on the contrary, the leaders' difficulty lay more in having only one person speak at a time.

The major limitations during group A's training seemed: (1) that the two primary group leaders were white, middle-class and were not policemen. The leaders felt that their effectiveness was limited thereby (a similar impression was reported by Newman and Steinberg 1970 during small group discussions with police), and (2) the officers' concern that the training was intended to make them "soft," that is, would prevent them from using force when they deemed it necessary or from being able to use their discretionary powers in relating to the public.

Lack of follow-up.-- As a result of both design and the recruits' propensities, group A tended to focus on issues related specifically to conflicts between people. In this broad context, personal feelings were expressed and responded to and the recruits had opportunities to get feedback from others regarding their own behavior.

It was anticipated that such experiences would promote social sensitivity. It may be, however, that the recruits receiving group A training improved in their ability to deal with interpersonal conflicts without improving in social sensitivity. Such could occur if a recruit only learned

¹Such concerns may have reflected the group leaders' stereotypical thinking about policemen.

bits of "facts" about people and "techniques" of handling conflicts. In the group discussions, for example, each man learned that the holding of one's nightstick in certain positions provoked hostile responses. This and other such "bits" of information might be usefully applied and lead to more effective police performance regardless of whether or not the officer became truly more sensitive to people. It would be meaningful to have had some evaluation of the recruits' ability to understand and deal with interpersonal conflicts.¹

Another possibility is that differential effects of the two training methods may either become manifest at some future time or have barely begun to occur. One indication of this was seen to lie in the recruits' responses to item #15 on the MAM: "It is almost impossible for one person to really understand the feelings of another." On entering the police department the recruits seemed fairly confident, perhaps naively so, of their ability to "understand the feelings of another" (mean = 2.82 on the 7-point scale, low scores denoting disagreement); there were no differences between groups ($F = 1.39$, $df = 1/49$, $p > .05$). Post-training scores on this item for group B showed no change to have occurred ($t = 0.56$, $df = 56$, $p > .05$). The men in group A seemed to have had their belief shaken by their training experiences,

¹Follow-up of some of these recruits will be undertaken by the research program described by Bard, M., & Zacker, J. W., Design for conflict resolution. Proceedings of the 3rd National Symposium on Law Enforcement Science and Technology, Chicago, Ill., in press.

however, and were less sure of their ability by the end of training ($t = 1.90$, $df = 42$, $p < .10$). This may reflect their increased awareness of the complexities of human behavior, an awareness which may result from self-confrontation and precede growth of social sensitivity. Overgeneralizing on the basis of such limited data is unwarranted, however.

In view of the goals of training, the 42 hours received by the recruits may have been insufficient to effect changes. The comments in The President's Commission (Task Force Report: The Police, 1967) are relevant:

Before an officer can become expert in deriving the truth from conflicting statements, in knowing how to handle quarreling spouses and delinquent youths, in determining when an arrest for drunkenness or loitering is useful or necessary and when it would merely harm an individual or inflame a minority community, and in calming tense and hostile crowds, he must acquire information and understanding concerning human relations. It is doubtful that this can be acquired in less than 60 hours p.[175].

One element which may have had a confounding effect on the findings consisted of opportunities for the recruits to share comments about their training experiences. Such free communication between group members meant that there was no control over the perceptions and feelings of one group toward the other's training being expressed. Thus a recruit's evaluation of his training (and its effect on him) may have been affected by what his peers in the other group said about the training his own group was receiving. Similarly, it was possible that spontaneous rumors may have arisen as to whether there were disguised purposes behind the two methods of training. Such rumors, or "scuttlebutt," could affect

the recruit's perception of training and its effects on him as well.

Social class effects.-- The failure of the measuring instruments (which had been selected as being among the best available) to detect differences between the groups may reflect the inability of the instruments to detect changes which may have occurred. The possibility exists that the training was integrated in a highly personal way by each man, a way in keeping with the language and behavior of the field in which he operates rather than the language and behavior with which the social scientist is familiar. Of all the measuring instruments, the Cynicism scale was the only one developed expressly for people of the social class of the recruits in this study. The other instruments used, like so many psychological scales, were developed by, and have been applied to primarily middle-class people.

There is some evidence which suggests that there are class-related differences in verbal and behavioral expressions of concepts. Stylistic differences due to social class in responsiveness to cognitive demands have been reported by a number of investigators (Deutch, 1964; John, 1963; Lesser, Fifer and Clark, 1965; and Pavenstedt, 1965). Many studies of the influence of social class have had either poor controls or none at all for such factors as: examiner language and/or race, birth order, conditions of the home, I. Q. and quality of schooling. Such factors

were controlled, however, in a study by Hertzog, Birch, Thomas and Mendez (1968) with 116 middle-class and 60 lower-class three-year olds. These authors reported that the middle-class children used verbal expression significantly ($p < .001$) more often than did the lower-class children in response to demands for cognitive functioning.

Protheroe (1967) analyzed what was said by lower- and middle-class 2nd grade boys as they worked with scientific concepts. There were no differences in the total amount spoken, but the lower-class boys used a smaller variety of words and used different words to express the same idea or relationship. Class-related differences in language have been described as a source of communication difficulties between people of different classes (Friedman and Phillips, 1967).

The genesis of such class-related differences are thought by many to lie in the early home environment. Hertzog et al (1968) reported that in the homes of the lower-class children in their study the emphasis was social and affective (person-oriented). In contrast, the homes of the middle-class children were more task- and problem-oriented. Class-related differences in maternal teaching styles were reported by Hesse and Shipman (1965), who found a positive relationship between social class and the mother's verbal output, use of abstract words, and complexity of syntactical structures. Such findings point to the need for selection of measuring instruments appropriate to the Ss' social class.

Other Considerations

Extra-Academy training.-- Differences between the training atmospheres at the Police Academy and at The Psychological Center were such that the recruits' experiences at the latter facility may have been so stimulating for both groups as to obscure or wash out other group differences. The methodological design of training all recruits appeared successful in eliminating or balancing out Hawthorne effects between the groups. In group B, for example, resistance to lectures and instructors was minimal; the atmosphere was similar to that of an undergraduate course (indeed, it often seemed as though the recruits had a hunger to express themselves). The atmosphere at The Psychological Center was positive for both groups; it was not uncommon for the recruits to speak with the staff and instructors during breaks, exchanging ideas, asking for opinions or for advice on personal matters.

The effect of this situation may be reflected in the data's failure to reveal group differences. It would be meaningful to similarly examine a comparable group of police recruits who receive Police Academy training only. This would perhaps answer the question raised here as to whether both groups profitted (or suffered) equally as a result of the extra-Academy training.

The positive atmosphere at The Psychological Center strongly suggests that such training (i.e., for goals removed from the organization's transmitted value system¹)

¹The police rarely reward effective conflict management by officers or their human relations skills; rewards are given primarily for apprehension of criminals.

occur outside the organization by non-organization personnel.

Generalizeability.-- It should be noted that every police department, like any person or organization, has unique features. The New York Housing Authority Police Department is no exception, and the findings of the present study have limited generalizeability to other police departments.¹

Two characteristics of the men taking part in this study unlike most other police departments' recruits were:

- (1) the high proportion of minority group members (another reflection of Housing Police uniqueness), and
- (2) their experiences of having lived in New York City.

Implications For Future Research

The major implication for future research provided by this study lies in its demonstrating that such research can be done, despite the constraints on design necessitated when investigating an organization with ascientific goals.

Sanford (1965) has eloquently decried psychology's overemphasis on scientific methodology:

...but the psychologist's naive conception of science has led them to adopt the more superficial characteristics of the physical sciences. This has made it difficult for them to study genuine human problems, since quantification, precision of measurement, elegance of experimental design, and general laws are so much more difficult to achieve once one goes beyond simple part processes [p. 193].

Suchman (1967) also notes the difficulty of attaining elegant experimental design with such research. In view of

¹One noteworthy feature of the Housing Authority Police was manifested by its willingness to permit an undertaking such as the present study to be done.

the difficulties inherent in evaluative research, it is no wonder that many psychologists avoid it for fear of professional critics who "stand in the wings with knives sharpened, awaiting studies yet unborn (Dyar, 1963, p. 805)."

The present study was much like a venture into poorly charted territory: the explorer may not find that which he seeks, but if he survives the journey its chief asset will lie in whether the knowledge gained will promote and simplify further exploration. While the major hypotheses were not confirmed, the heuristic value of research with a group that plays a crucial role in our society has been demonstrated.

The present study has combined scientific research and social action. As such it may stimulate future research, as well as provide information, for those who may now discourage of effective action research.

The Empathy scale was the only instrument on which significant change over time occurred. This instrument may prove useful as an indicator of changes resulting from police and/or human relations training and seems to deserve further study.

Implications For Innovative Training

Action research seeks to elicit measureable changes in a system. Irrespective of the actual desirability of the change sought, some prior resistance to it within the organization must be presumed by the agent seeking the change.

Police organizational systems promote the image of the police officer as a crimefighter. The organization expects its personnel to control conflicts between people and offers little or no encouragement or recognition for efforts at resolution of interpersonal conflicts. Indeed, the interpersonal skills so valuable for conflict resolution or conflict management are often derogated by the organization's value system as reflecting "softness."

The present study sought the modification of police recruits' attitudes and interpersonal skills. Impressions derived concerning the relative responsiveness of the recruits while they were at the Police Academy and at The Psychological Center strongly suggest the following: training for effects that are either opposed or neglected by the transmitted values of the organizational system is most likely to be successful if conducted by non-organization personnel on premises removed from the organization (and its molding forces). In this study the positive atmosphere observed at The Psychological Center for both groups of recruits seemed derivative of that facilities' emphasis on respect for individual views and de-emphasis on control of the individual.

Summary

A large body of informed opinion maintains that a major police function is the maintenance of order, and that the police are neither selected on the basis of being able to deal with the ambiguous and sensitive human relations situ-

tions this entails nor does their current training for such situations seem especially helpful. Continuation of this state of affairs would seem likely to lead to even further police estrangement from and dissatisfaction with their own work and with other people, as well as to a heightening of the already strained relations with the public they are sworn to serve.

This study was designed to examine the effects of two methods of training policemen as these influence the abilities to understand and predict other's behavior, as well as attitudes about one's job, other people and society.

The major test procedures employed were:

- (1) Niederhoffer's Cynicism scale, a measure of the policeman's cynicism about the police,
- (2) Gould's Manifest Alienation Measure,
- (3) Hogan's Empathy scale,
- (4) measures of the abilities to determine other's emotion and to judge the validity of expressed emotion (both of which derive from a film: "Judging Emotional Behavior," specifically developed for these purposes), and,
- (5) Grossman's measure of Individual Accuracy (2nd person predictions), a measure of interpersonal sensitivity.

Each procedure was administered to a group of recruits of the New York Housing Authority Police Department during their first day of recruit training, and again at the completion of their training (13 weeks later). Random selection led to the formation of two groups, both of which received

extra training for $\frac{1}{2}$ day per week during each of 12 weeks of their Police Academy training period. One received experiential training (group A), the goal of which was to enhance ability to understand and cope with interpersonal conflicts. Group discussion and real-life simulation were principal components of this group's training. The other, group B, received traditional classroom instruction in a broad range of the behavioral and social sciences.

It was hypothesized that group A training would counteract the development of cynicism and alienation, while enhancing empathy and interpersonal sensitivity. Analyses of variance and t tests were used, analyze the data.

There were no significant changes on any of the variables either between groups or as a function of time of testing. Post-hoc analyses of the data in terms of the Negro and Caucasian recruits failed to reveal differential effects of training for race.

Recruits' evaluation of training was generally positive; recruits who received group A training judged their training even more favorable than did recruits from group B.

Several factors were identified which may have critically affected the findings. Among these were the importance, for these subjects: of being assured that their responses would not jeopardize their careers, of trusting the examiner, of seeing the evaluation instruments as relevant to their professional goals, of the need for instruments which more specifically tap the goals of training, and the relative

brevity of the training.

The remarkably positive atmosphere observed for both groups, relative to the atmosphere at the Police Academy, has implications for police training. It is suggested that innovative training might best be conducted by non-police personnel outside of the Police Academy.

This study demonstrated a combination of empirical research and social action, conducted despite constraints on design imposed by working within the framework of an organization with an ascientific mission.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adler, A. Social interest. New York: Putnam, 1939.
- Anastasi, A. Psychological testing. (2nd ed.) New York: MacMillan, 1961.
- Argyris, C. Personality and organization. New York: Harper and Row, 1967.
- Bachrach, H. Adaptive regression, empathy and psychotherapy: theory and research study. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1968, 5, 203-209.
- Bain, R. The policeman on the beat. Scientific Monthly, 1959, 48.
- Bard, M. Family intervention police teams as a community mental health resource. Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, 1969, 60, 247-250.
- Bard, M. The role of law enforcement in the helping system. Community Mental Health Journal, (in press).
- Bensing, R. C., & Schroeder, O. Homicide in an urban community. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1960.
- Bieliauskas, V. J. Community relations training program for police supervisors. Unpublished manuscript, Xavier University, 1969.
- Black, H., & Labes, M. J. Guerilla warfare: an analogy to police-criminal interaction. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. 1967, 37, 666-670.
- Black, J. D. Test of social insight. Reviewed in O. K. Buros, Jr. (Ed.), Sixth mental measurements yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1965.
- Bordin, E. S. Test of social insight. Reviewed in Journal of Consulting Psychology. 1960, 24, 100.
- Borke, H., & Fiske, D. W. Factors influencing the prediction of behavior from a diagnostic interview. Journal of Consulting Psychology. 1957, 21, 78-80.

- Bronfenbrenner, H., Harding, J., & Gallway, M. The measurement of skill in social perception. In D. C. McClelland (Ed.) Talent and society. New York: Van Nostrand, 1958.
- Brown, W. P. Mirrors of prejudice. The Nation, April 21, 1969, 208.
- Bruner, J. S., & Tagiuri, R. The perception of people. In G. Lindzey (Ed.) Handbook of social psychology. (Vol. 2) Cambridge: Addison-Wesley, 1954.
- Bullock, H. A. Urban homicide in theory and fact. Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, 1955, 45, 565-575.
- Bunker, D. The effect of laboratory education upon individual behavior. Procedures of the 16th annual meeting. Industrial Relations Research Association. Dec. 1963, 1-13.
- Bunker, D. Individual applications of laboratory training. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1965, 1, 131-134.
- Cassell, R. N. Test of social insight. (Rev. Ed.) New Rochelle, N. Y.: Bruce, 1963.
- Chance, J. E., & Meaders, W. Needs and interpersonal perception. Journal of Personality, 1960, 28, 200-210.
- Chapin, R. S. Preliminary standardization of a social insight scale. American Sociological Review, 1942, 7, 214-225.
- Christie, R. Authoritarianism re-examined. In R. Christie & M. Jahoda (Ed.) Studies in the scope and method of the authoritarian personality. New York: The Free Press, 1954.
- Cline, V. B., & Richards, J. M. Jr. Accuracy of interpersonal perception - a general trait? Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1960, 60, 1-7.
- Cooper, S. R. in article in The New York Times, (entitled: Paper on cooping gets a high grade) August 3, 1969.
- Cottrell, L. S. & Dymond, R. A. The empathic responses: a neglected field for research. Psychiatry, 1949, 12, 355-359.
- Cronbach, L. J. Processes affecting scores on "understanding of others" and "assumed similarity." Psychological Bulletin, 1955, 52, 177-193.
- Crow, W., & Hamond, K. A. The generality of accuracy and response set in interpersonal perception. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1957, 54, 384-390.

- Cumming, E., Cumming, I., & Edell, L. Policeman as philosopher, guide and friend. Social Problems, 1965, 12, 276-286.
- Dean, D. G. Alienation: its meaning and measurement. American Sociological Review, 1961, 26, 753-758.
- DeMichele, J. H. The measurement of rated training changes resulting from a sensitivity training laboratory of an overall program in organization development. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, New York University, 1966.
- Deutsch, M. The verbal survey. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1964, 34, 213-214.
- Dillman, E. G. A source of personal conflict in police organizations. Public Personnel Review, 1967, 28, 222-227.
- Durkheim, E. Suicide. Glencoe, Ill.: Glencoe Press, 1951.
- Durkheim, E. The division of labor in society. Glencoe, Ill.: Glencoe Press, 1965.
- Dyar, R. General summary of a conference on research methodology and potential in community health and preventive medicine. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1963, 107, 805.
- Dyas, R. D. The mental miasma -- a police personnel problem. Police, 1959, 3, 65-66.
- Dymond, R. A. A preliminary investigation of the relation of insight and empathy. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1948, 12, 228-233.
- Dymond, R. A. A scale for the measurement of empathic ability. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13, 127-139.
- Dymond, R. A. Personality and empathy. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1950, 14, 343-350.
- Ennis, P. H. Criminal victimization in the United States. A report of a research study submitted by the National Opinion Research Center to The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Unpublished manuscript, 1967.
- Epstein, C. Intergroup relations for police officers. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins Co., 1962.
- Erikson, I. H. Identity and the life cycle: psychological issues. (Vol. 1) New York: International Universities Press, 1959.

- Fairweather, G. W. Methods for experimental social innovation. New York: Wiley, 1967.
- Federal Bureau of Investigation; F. B. I. law enforcement bulletin. Washington, D. C.; United States Government Printing office, January, 1963.
- Fleck, T. A. & Newnam, T. J. The role of the police in modern society. Police, 1969, 13, 21-27.
- Fontana, A. F., Klein, E. B., Lewis, E., & Levine, L. Presentation of self in mental illness. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1968, 32, 110-119.
- Fox, R. E. & Goldin, P. C. The empathic process in psychotherapy: a survey of theory and research. Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases, 1964, 138, 323-331.
- Friedman, P., & Phillips, G. M. Toward a rhetoric for the poverty class. Journal of Communication, 1967, 17, 234-249.
- Fromm, E. Escape from freedom. New York: Rhinehart, 1941.
- Gage, N. L., & Cronbach, L. J. Conceptual and methodological problems in interpersonal perception. Psychological Review, 1955, 62, 411-422.
- Germann, A. C. The problem of police-community relations. Paper prepared for The Task Force on Law and Law Enforcement, National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, Unpublished manuscript, 1964.
- Giedt, F. H. Comparison of visual content and auditory cues in interviewing. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1955, 19, 407-416.
- Gilbert, O. The relationship between schizophrenia and paranoia to empathy. Unpublished manuscript, Louisiana State University, 1953.
- Glaser, D. The sociological approach to crime and correction. Law and Contemporary Problems, 1958, 23, 683-702.
- Goldstein, H. Police response to urban crisis. Public Administration Review, 1968, 28, 417-423.
- Gordon, T. What is gained by group participation? Education Leadership, January, 1950, 220-226.
- Gough, H. G. A sociological theory of psychopathy. American Journal of Sociology, 1948, 53, 359-366.

- Gough, H. G. The adjective check list as a personality assessment research technique. Psychological Reports, 1960, 6, 107-122.
- Gough, H. G. A validation study of the Chapin Social Insight Test. Psychological Reports, 1965, 17, 355-368.
- Gough, H. G., & Heilbrun, A. B. Jr. Manual for the adjective check list. Palo Alto, Calif.: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1965.
- Gould, L. G. The alienation syndrome: Psycho-social correlates and behavioral consequences. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Connecticut) Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms, 1964. No. 66-848.
- Gould, L. G. Conformity and marginality: Two faces of alienation. Journal of Social Issues, 1969, 25, 39-63.
- Grossman, B. A. The measurement and determinants of interpersonal sensitivity. Unpublished master's thesis. Michigan State University, 1963.
- Grossman, B. A. Evaluation of a training program to improve the ability to differentiate between individuals. (Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University) Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms, 1967. No. 67-10524.
- Hall, H., & Bell, G. The relationship between two tests of empathy. American Psychologist, 1953, 8, 53.
- Hall, W. B. The empathy test. Reviewed in O. K. Buros, Jr. (Ed.) Sixth mental measurements yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1965.
- Harrison, R. Cognitive change and participation in a sensitivity training laboratory. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1966, 30, 517-520.
- Hastorf, A., & Bender, I. A caution respecting the measurement of empathic ability. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1952, 47, 574-576.
- Hertzig, M. E., Birch, H. G., Thomas, A., & Mendez, O. A. Class and ethnic differences in the responsiveness of preschool children to cognitive demands. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 1968, 33 (1, Serial No. 117).
- Hesse, R. D., & Shipman, V. C. Early experience and the socialization of cognitive modes in children. Child Development, 1965, 36, 869-886.

- Hogan, R. Development of an empathy scale. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1969, 33, 307-316.
- John, V. P. The intellectual development of slum children. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1963, 33, 813-822.
- Johnson, T. C. article in The New York Times, (Week in Review) August 10, 1969, 9.
- Jones, E. E., & Thibaut, J. W. Interaction goals as bases of inference in interpersonal perception. in R. Tagiuri and L. Petrullo (Eds.), Person perception and interpersonal behavior. Stanford: Stanford Universities Press, 1958.
- Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., & Snoek, J. D. Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity. New York: Wiley, 1964.
- Kates, S. L. Rorschach responses, Strong Blank Scales and job satisfaction among policemen. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1950, 34, 249-254.
- Keniston, K. The uncommitted: Alienated youth in American society. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1965.
- Kepes, S. V. Experimental evaluations of sensitivity training. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1965.
- Kerr, W. A. The empathy test. Chicago: Psychometric Affiliates, 1947.
- Klein, E. B. & Gould, L. J. Evaluation of the Yale Summer High School: Report of the director. Unpublished manuscript, Yale Summer High School, New Haven, Connecticut, 1965.
- Klein, E. B. & Gould, L. J. Alienation and identification in college women. Journal of Personality, 1969, 37, 468-480.
- Klein, E. B. & Struening, E. Attitudes toward the United Nations. Unpublished manuscript, 1961. Cited by E. B. Klein & L. J. Gould, Alienation and identification in college women. Journal of Personality, 1969, 37, 468-480.
- Leary, H. R. Police in the community. Police Information Bulletin, May 1, 1967, 58.
- Lee, W. S. A study of the effectiveness of sensitivity training in an inservice teacher-training program in human relations. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, 1967.

- Lemert, E. M. Social pathology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1951.
- Lesser, G. S., Fifer, G., & Clark, D. H. Mental abilities of children from different social class and cultural groups. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 1965, 30, (4, Serial No. 102).
- Marx, K. (Collected Writings) In M. Eastman (Ed.), Capital, the communist manifesto and other writings by Karl Marx. New York: The Modern Library, 1932.
- McClosky, H., & Schaar, J. H. Psychological dimensions of anomie. American Sociological Review, 1965, 30, 14-40.
- McKeachie, W. J. Lipstick as a determiner of first impressions of personality. Journal of Social Psychology, 1952, 36, 241-244.
- McNamara, J. H. Uncertainties in police work: The relevance of police recruits' backgrounds and training. In D. J. Bordua (Ed.) The police: Six sociological essays, New York: Wiley, 1967.
- Mead, G. H. Mind, self, and society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934.
- Merton, R. K. Social theory and social structure. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1949.
- Merton, R. K. Social structure and anomie. in R. K. Merton (Ed.) Social theory and social structure. (Rev. Ed.) Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957.
- Misner, G. E. Enforcement: Illusion of security. The Nation, April 21, 1969, 208, (No. 16).
- Mitchell, M. D. Machiavellianism, control, and social desirability: Their relation to certain outcomes of human relations training. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, 1967.
- Mussen, P. H. Differences between the TAT response of Negro and white boys. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1953, 17, 373-376.
- Myrdal, G. An American dilemma. New York: Harper, 1944.
- Newcomb, T. M., Turner, R. H., & Converse, P. E. Social Psychology, New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1965.
- Newman, L. E., & Steinberg, J. L. Consultation with police on human relations training. American Journal of Psychiatry, 1970, 126, 1421-1429.

- New York City Housing Authority, Project statistics. April, 1967.
- New York City Housing Authority, Fact sheet. January, 1966.
- New York State, Penal law. Sec. 722, 18.
- Niederhoffer, A. Behind the shield. New York: Doubleday, 1967.
- Parnas, R. J. The response of some relevant community resources to intrafamily violence. Indiana Law Journal, 1969, 44, 159-181.
- Pavenstedt, E. A. comparison of child rearing environments of upper-lower and very low-lower class families. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1965, 35, 89-98.
- Policemen's Benevolent Association, advertisement in The Daily News, July, 17, 1969.
- Protheroe, D. W. The language used by children of contrasting socioeconomic group in tasks related to concept formation. (Doctoral dissertation, Wayne State University) Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms, 1969. No. 68-2107.
- Rank, O. The trauma of birth. London: Foutledge, 1929.
- Rapaport, D. Diagnostic psychological testing. Vol. 1. Chicago: The Yearbook Publishers, 1949.
- Rubin, I. The reduction of prejudice through laboratory training. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1967, 3, 29-50.
- Sanford, N. Will psychologists study human problems? American Psychologist, 1965, 20, 192-202.
- Sarbin, T. R., & Allen, V. L. Role theory. In B. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.) Handbook of social psychology. Vol. 1. (2nd ed.) Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1968.
- Sargent, H. D. The insight test: A verbal projective test for personality. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1953.
- Schatzman, L., & Strauss, A. Social class and modes of communication. American Journal of Sociology, 1955, 60, 329-338.
- Scheerer, E. T. The relationship between acceptance of self and acceptance of others. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13, 169-175.

- Schein, E. H., & Bennis, W. G. Personal and organizational change through group methods: The laboratory approach. New York: Wiley, 1965.
- Secord, P. F. Facial features and inference processes in interpersonal perception. In R. Taguiri and L. Petrullo (Eds.) Person perception and interpersonal behavior. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1958.
- Seeman, M. On the meaning of alienation. American Sociological Review, 1959, 24, 783-791.
- Skolnick, J. H. Justice without trial: Law enforcement in a democratic society. New York: Wiley, 1966.
- Smith, H. C. Sensitivity to people. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.
- Srole, L. Social integration and certain corollaries: An exploratory study. American Sociological Review, 1956, 21, 709-716.
- Stock, D. An investigation into the interrelations between the self-concept and feelings directed toward other persons and groups. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13, 176-180.
- Stone, G. C., & Leavitt, G. S. Generality of accuracy of perceiving standard persons. Unpublished manuscript, Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Illinois, 1954.
- Struening, E. L., & Cohen, J. Opinions about mental illness in Air Force personnel. Paper presented at the Eastern Psychological Association, Philadelphia, 1964.
- Strunk, O. Empathy: A review of theory and research. Psychology Newsletter, 1957, 9, 47-57.
- Suchman, E. A. Evaluative research: Principles and practice in public service and social action programs. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1967.
- Taft, R. The ability to judge people. Psychological Bulletin, 1955, 52, 1-21.
- Terman, L. M. A trial of mental and pedagogical tests in a civil service examination for policemen and firemen. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1917, 1, 17-29.
- Terman, L. M., & Miles, C. C. Sex and personality: Studies in masculinity and femininity. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936.

- The National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, as described in The New York Times, Nov. 2, 1969, 56.
- The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. The Challenge of Crime in a free society. Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1967.
- The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The police. Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1967.
- Thorndike, R. L. The empathy test. Reviewed in O. K. Buros, Jr. (Ed.) Fifth mental measurements yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1959.
- Thorndike, R. L., & Stein, S. An evaluation of the attempts to measure social intelligence. Psychological Bulletin, 1937, 34, 275-285.
- Toch, H. Cops and blacks: Warring minorities. The Nation, April 21, 1969, 208 (No. 16) 491-493.
- Trubett, H. J. untitled article in The Nation, April 21, 1969, 208 (No. 16) 507-509.
- Turner, W. W. The police establishment. New York: Putnam, 1968.
- Vega, M. The performance of Negro children on an oddity discrimination task as a function of the examiner and the type of verbal incentive used by the examiner. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, 1964.
- Watson, N. A. An application of social-psychological research to police work: Police-community relations. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The American University, 1967.
- Westley, W. A. The police: A sociological study of law, custom, and morality. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1951.
- Winer, B. Statistical principles in experimental design. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962.
- Wilson, J. Q. Police morale, reform, and citizen respect: The Chicago case. In D. J. Bordua (Ed.) The Police: Six sociological essays. New York: Wiley, 1967.
- Wilson, J. Q. Varieties of police behavior. Cambridge: Harvard Universities Press, 1968.
- Wilson, J. Q. What makes a better policeman. The Atlantic Monthly, 1969, 223, (No. 3) 129-135.

Wogan, M. Investigation of a measure of empathic ability.
Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1969, 6,
109-112.

Wolfgang, M. E., Patterns in criminal homicide. Philadelphia:
University of Pennsylvania Press, 1958.

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE A (Manifest Alienation Measure)

QUESTIONNAIRE C (Cynicism scale)

QUESTIONNAIRE E (Empathy scale)

QUESTIONNAIRE S (Interpersonal Sensitivity scale)

JUDGING EMOTIONS (scales for Feeling Identification and
Person Identification)

QUESTIONNAIRE A¹

NAME: _____

DATE: _____

The statements that follow may be thought of as a variety of opinions or ideas about the world in which we live. Many people agree with each of the following statements and many people disagree with them. We would like to know what YOU think about these statements. Each of them is followed by six choices:²

strongly not sure not sure
 agree₇ agree₆ but probably but probably disagree₃ disagree₂ disagree₁

Please check () in the space provided that choice which comes closest to saying how you feel about each statement. You may be sure that many people will agree with your opinions. There are no right or wrong answers; we are interested only in your opinion. It is important that you answer every item. Please work as quickly as you can.

1. People will do almost anything if the reward is high enough.

strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ but probably but probably disagree_ disagree_ disagree_

2. Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places.

strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ but probably but probably disagree_ disagree_ disagree_

3. In spite of what some people say, the lot of the average man is getting worse.

strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ but probably but probably disagree_ disagree_ disagree_

4. Success is more dependent on luck than real ability.

strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ but probably but probably disagree_ disagree_ disagree_

¹The Manifest Alienation Measure (MAM).

²Scoring is indicated by the number besides each response choice.

5. There's little use in writing to public officials because they aren't really interested in the problems of the average man.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|--------|--------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | not sure | | not sure | |
| strongly | | but probably | but probably | | strongly |
| agree_ | agree_ | agree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ |
6. It is usually best to tell your superiors or bosses what they really want to hear.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|--------|--------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | not sure | | not sure | |
| strongly | | but probably | but probably | | strongly |
| agree_ | agree_ | agree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ |
7. Ideas that have no useful or practical applications are of little use to man.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|--------|--------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | not sure | | not sure | |
| strongly | | but probably | but probably | | strongly |
| agree_ | agree_ | agree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ |
8. Things are changing so fast these days that one doesn't know what to expect from day to day.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|--------|--------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | not sure | | not sure | |
| strongly | | but probably | but probably | | strongly |
| agree_ | agree_ | agree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ |
9. Nowadays a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|--------|--------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | not sure | | not sure | |
| strongly | | but probably | but probably | | strongly |
| agree_ | agree_ | agree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ |
10. Our country has too many poor people who can do little to raise their standard of living.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|--------|--------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | not sure | | not sure | |
| strongly | | but probably | but probably | | strongly |
| agree_ | agree_ | agree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ |
11. Few people really look forward to their work.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|--------|--------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | not sure | | not sure | |
| strongly | | but probably | but probably | | strongly |
| agree_ | agree_ | agree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ |
12. So many people do things well that it is easy to become discouraged.
- | | | | | | |
|----------|--------|--------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | not sure | | not sure | |
| strongly | | but probably | but probably | | strongly |
| agree_ | agree_ | agree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ | disagree_ |

13. In this fast changing world, with so much different information available, it is difficult to think clearly about many issues.
- strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ agree_ disagree_ disagree_ disagree_ strongly
14. There are so many ideas about what is right and wrong these days that it is hard to figure out how to live your own life.
- strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ agree_ disagree_ disagree_ disagree_ strongly
15. It is almost impossible for one person to really understand the feelings of another.
- strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ agree_ disagree_ disagree_ disagree_ strongly
16. These days a person doesn't really know who he can count on.
- strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ agree_ disagree_ disagree_ disagree_ strongly
17. It's hardly fair to bring children into the world with the way things look for the future.
- strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ agree_ disagree_ disagree_ disagree_ strongly
18. It's hard to figure out who you can really trust these days.
- strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ agree_ disagree_ disagree_ disagree_ strongly
19. There is not much chance that people will really do anything to make this country a better place to live in.
- strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ agree_ disagree_ disagree_ disagree_ strongly
20. The religious organizations of our country have little influence in making our society a better place to live.
- strongly not sure not sure
 agree_ agree_ agree_ disagree_ disagree_ disagree_ strongly

QUESTIONNAIRE C^{1,2}

CONFIDENTIAL

CONFIDENTIAL

NAME: _____

DATE: _____

For each of the following items, please circle the letter of the statement which, in your opinion, is most nearly correct. Do not leave any unanswered if you can avoid it.

1. The average police superior is _____
 - a. very interested in the welfare of his subordinates.(1)
 - b. somewhat concerned about the welfare of his subordinates.(3)
 - c. mostly concerned with his own problems.(5)

2. The average departmental complaint is a result of _____
 - a. the pressure on superiors from higher authority to give out complaints.(5)
 - b. the superior's dedication to proper standards of efficiency.(1)
 - c. some personal friction between superior and subordinate.(3)

3. The average arrest is made because _____
 - a. the patrolman is dedicated to perform his duty properly.(1)
 - b. the officer could not avoid it without getting into trouble.(5)
 - c. a complainant insisted on it.(3)

4. The best arrests are made _____
 - a. coming from the "coop."(5)
 - b. as a result of hard work and intelligent dedication to duty.(1)
 - c. as a result of good information from an informer.(3)

5. A college degree as a requirement for appointment to the police department _____
 - a. would cause friction and possibly do more harm than good.(3)
 - b. would let into the department men who are probably ill-suited for police work.(5)
 - c. would result in a much more efficient police department.(1)

¹The Cynicism scale.

²Scoring indicated by number following each ending.

6. When you get to know the department from the inside, you begin to feel that _____
- it is a very efficient, smoothly operating organization.(1)
 - it is hardly any different from other civil service organizations.(3)
 - it is a wonder that it does one-half as well as it does.(5)
7. Housing Police Academy training of recruits _____
- might as well be cut in half. The recruit has to learn all over when he is assigned to a project.(5)
 - cannot overcome the contradictions between theory and practice.(3)
 - does a very fine job of preparing the recruit for life in the project.(1)
8. Professionalization of police work _____
- may come in the future.(3)
 - is already here for many groups of policemen.(1)
 - is a dream. It will not come in the foreseeable future.(5)
9. When a patrolman appears at the police department Trial Room _____
- he knows that he is getting a fair and impartial trial with legal safeguards.(1)
 - he will probably be found guilty even when he has a good defense.(5)
 - the outcome depends as much on the personal impression he leaves with the trial commissioner as it does on the merits of the case.(3)
10. The average policeman is _____
- trying to perform eight hours of duty without getting into trouble.(3)
 - dedicated to high ideals of police service and would not hesitate to perform police duty even though he may have to work overtime.(1)
 - just as interested in promoting private "contracts" as he is in performing police work.(5)
11. The Rules and Regulations of police work _____
- are so restrictive and contradictory that the average policeman just uses common sense on the job and does not worry about rules and regulations.(5)
 - create a problem in that it is very difficult to perform an active tour of duty without violating some rules and regulations.(3)
 - are fair and sensible in regulating conduct off and on duty.(1)

12. The youth problem is best handles by police who are_____
- by mobile, strong-arm Youth Squads who are ready to take strong action.(5)
 - trained in a social service approach.(1)
 - the average policeman on post.(3)
13. The majority of special assignments in the police department _____
- are a result of a careful consideration of the man's background and qualifications, and depend on merit.(1)
 - depend on whom you know, not on merit.(5)
 - are being handled as capably as you could expect in a large civil service organization.(3)
14. The average detective _____
- is just about the same as the average patrolman.(3)
 - is a little chesty and thinks he is a little better than a patrolman.(5)
 - has special qualifications and is superior to a patrolman in intelligence and dedication to duty.(1)
15. Police department summonses are issued by policemen_____
- as part of a sensible pattern of enforcement.(1)
 - because a patrolman knows he must meet his quota even if this is not official.(5)
 - on the basis of their own ideas of right and wrong.(3)
16. The public _____
- considers policemen average civil service workers.(3)
 - shows a lot of respect for policemen.(1)
 - considers policemen very low as far as prestige goes.(5)
17. The public _____
- is more apt to obstruct police work if it can, than cooperate.(5)
 - usually has to be forced to cooperate with policemen.(3)
 - is eager to cooperate with policemen to help them perform their duty better.(1)
18. Policemen _____
- have no more talent in understanding human behavior than any average person.(3)
 - have a peculiar view of human nature because of the misery and cruelty of life which they see every day.(5)
 - understand human behavior as well as psychologists and sociologists because they get so much experience in real life.(1)

19. The newspapers in general _____

- a. just report the news impartially whether or not it concerns the police.(3)
- b. try to help police departments by giving prominent coverage to items favorable to police.(1)
- c. seem to enjoy giving an unfavorable slant to news concerning the police and prominently play up police misdeeds rather than virtues.(5)

20. Testifying in court _____

- a. policemen receive real cooperation and are treated fairly by court personnel.(1)
- b. police witnesses are treated no differently from civilian witnesses.(3)
- c. too often the policemen are treated as criminals when they take the witness stand.(5)

QUESTIONNAIRE E¹

NAME: _____
DATE: _____

This questionnaire consists of a series of statements. Read each one, decide how you feel about it, and then write your answer. If you agree with a statement, or feel that it is true or mostly true about you, circle T. If you disagree with a statement, or feel that it is false or not usually true about you, circle F. Remember to give YOUR OWN opinion of yourself. Do not leave any unanswered if you can avoid it; try to make some answer to each.

- 1.T F A person needs to "show off" a little now and then.
- 2.T F I liked "Alice in Wonderland" by Lewis Carroll.
- 3.T F Clever, sarcastic people make me feel very uncomfortable.
- 4.T F I usually take an active part in the entertainment at parties.
- 5.T F I feel sure that there is only one true religion.
- 6.T F I am afraid of deep water.
- 7.T F I must admit I often try to get my own way regardless of what others may want.
- 8.T F I have at one time or another in my life tried my hand at writing poetry.
- 9.T F Most of the arguments or quarrels I get into are over matters of principle.
- 10.T F I would like the job of a foreign correspondent for a newspaper.
- 11.T F People today have forgotten how to feel properly ashamed of themselves.
- 12.T F I prefer a shower to a bathtub.
- 13.T F I always try to consider the other fellow's feelings before I do something.
- 14.T F I usually don't like to talk much unless I am with people I know very well.
- 15.T F I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something.
- 16.T F I like to keep people guessing what I'm going to do next.
- 17.T F Before I do something I try to consider how my friends will react to it.

¹The Empathy scale.

18. T F I like to talk before groups of people.
19. T F When a man is with a woman he is usually thinking about things related to her sex.
20. T F Only a fool would try to change our American way of life.
21. T F My parents were always very strict and stern with me.
22. T F Sometimes I rather enjoy going against the rules and doing things I'm not supposed to.
23. T F I think I would like to belong to a singing club.
24. T F I think I am usually a leader in my group.
25. T F I like to have a place for everything and everything in its place.
26. T F I don't like to work on a problem unless there is the possibility of coming out with a clear-cut and unambiguous answer.
27. T F It bothers me when something unexpected interrupts my daily routine.
28. T F I have a natural talent for influencing people.
29. T F I don't really care whether people like me or dislike me.
30. T F The trouble with many people is that they don't take things seriously enough.
31. T F It is hard for me just to sit still and relax.
32. T F Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about.
33. T F I feel that it is certainly best to keep my mouth shut when I'm in trouble.
34. T F I am a good mixer.
35. T F I am an important person.
36. T F I like poetry.
37. T F My feelings are not easily hurt.
38. T F I have met problems so full of possibilities that I have been unable to make up my mind about them.
39. T F Often I can't understand why I have been so cross and grouchy.
40. T F What others think of me does not bother me.
41. T F I would like to be a journalist.
42. T F I like to talk about sex.

43. T F My way of doing things is apt to be misunderstood by others.
44. T F Sometimes without any reason or even when things are going wrong I feel excitedly happy, "on top of the world."
45. T F I like to be with a crowd who play jokes on one another.
46. T F My mother or father often made me obey even when I thought that it was unreasonable.
47. T F I easily become impatient with people.
48. T F Sometimes I enjoy hurting persons I love.
49. T F I tend to be interested in several different hobbies rather than to stick to one of them for a long time.
50. T F I am not easily angered.
51. T F People have often misunderstood my intentions when I was trying to put them right and be helpful.
52. T F I am usually calm and not easily upset.
53. T F I would certainly enjoy beating a crook at his own game.
54. T F I am often so annoyed when someone tries to get ahead of me in a line of people that I speak to him about it.
55. T F I used to like hopscotch.
56. T F I have never been made especially nervous over trouble that any members of my family have gotten into.
57. T F As a rule I have little difficulty in "putting myself into other people's shoes."
58. T F I have seen some things so sad that I almost felt like crying.
59. T F Disobedience to the government is never justified.
60. T F It is the duty of a citizen to support his country, right or wrong.
61. T F I am usually short-tempered with people who come around and bother me with foolish questions.
62. T F I have a pretty clear idea of what I would try to impart to my students if I were a teacher.
63. T F I enjoy the company of strong-willed people.

64. T F I frequently undertake more than I can accomplish.

Items 1-31 reproduced by special permission from The California Psychological Inventory by Harrison G. Gough, Ph. D. Copyright 1956. Published by Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Items 32-56 reproduced by permission for research purposes only. Copyright 1943 by the University of Minnesota. Published by The Psychological Corporation, New York, N.Y. All rights reserved. Since there is evidence to indicate that item responses obtained to selected items isolated from the context of a personality inventory may not be comparable to those obtained within the context, the results of this research should not be considered applicable to the standardized complete form of the inventory.

Items 57-64 reproduced by permission of Donald W. MacKinnon, Director, Institute of Personality Assessment and Research, University of California, Berkeley.

Scoring: For each item the subject received a score of 1 or 0. The following items received a score of 1 if the subject indicated T (true): 1, 2, 4, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 17, 18, 22, 23, 24, 28, 34, 36, 38, 41, 42, 44, 45, 48, 49, 50, 52, 53, 57, 58, 62, 63, 64. Other items received a score of 1 if answered F (false). Items for which neither or both T and F were indicated were scored 0.

QUESTIONNAIRE S¹

NAME: _____

DATE: _____

This is a test of how well you can predict what other people will do. You will be given information about three men - George, Walter, and Allen, which consists of what each of them said in an interview. After you read these interviews you will have to predict how each man answered certain questions.

Interview with George

George is a middle-aged, married man with one child. As part of a research project on understanding people, he was given a short interview, which is typed below:

Interviewer: "What sort of person are you? How would you characterize yourself as a person?"

George: "Just an average person. I like the normal things most people do. I like sports, and I like to dance and play around that way. Of course, I don't run around. I'd say I was getting into a stable class. I'm over the younger fling."

Interviewer: "What would you consider to be your greatest personality difficulty or handicap?"

George: "Well maybe too reserved."

Interviewer: "You find that you're too reserved, in what way?"

George: "Well, especially in business. I think I take too much of what the boss says, and do it. And, though maybe I can do it better, I do it in the way he says to avoid trouble. In other words, I try to get along with people, which is good. But maybe sometimes I should say more about it to maybe help me and the others."

Interviewer: "Assert yourself a little more?"

George: "Yes."

Interviewer: "Do you ever lose your temper?"

George: "Well, very seldom with the person. I may become upset, I try my best not to let them know it."

¹The Interpersonal Sensitivity scale.

Interviewer: "What would you do if someone told a lie about you?"

George: "Well, what kind of a lie - that I did something I didn't?"

Interviewer: "Yes. A lie that perhaps would be damaging to your character."

George: "Well, I don't know, but I imagine I'd try and find out why the person said it. Maybe, as far as he knew, he was telling the truth."

Interviewer: "Do you think that you would go to him and talk to him about it?"

George: "If it was of importance, otherwise I would forget it."

Interviewer: "What kind of hobbies do you particularly enjoy?"

George: "Well, I like to make things. Oh, woodwork and hunting I guess are the main things."

Interviewer: "How important do you feel religion is to people in these times?"

George: "I don't go in for religion too much. I believe that it is necessary for everybody to have a basic relief. As far as the religious part goes, in my own living I don't place that as a major issue."

Interviewer: "Then religion is not too important to you personally?"

George: "No."

Interviewer: "But do you feel that people should have some sort of basic faith?"

George: "Yes, they have to have a code to live by, and that's the best one I can think of."

Interview with Walter

Walter is a young married man with two children. As part of a research project on understanding people, he was given a short interview, which is typed below.

Interviewer: "Just what sort of person are you?"

Walter: "That's hard to determine. I'm one type of person to myself and another type of person to society. I'd have to give two definitions to answer that correctly - how I am to myself, and how I am to people who know me."

Interviewer: "Would you like to discuss that a little further? What sort of person are you to yourself?"

Walter: "Well, I think I'm a person of probably over-average intelligence, with ambitions to be able to better myself and society, to be able to help society."

Interviewer: "What sort of person do you feel you are to other people?"

Walter: "Well, I hope I'm pretty nearly the same kind of person to other people as I am to myself. I get along well with other people, I don't have a great many friends; I have a few intimate friends, and with these people I'm quite close. I get along well with these people. And, I can be pretty compatible with most people."

Interviewer: "What do you feel is your greatest personality handicap?"

Walter: "The fact that I try too hard to do things, I believe. This hinders me from being able to do things - by being under certain tensions."

Interviewer: "Do you ever lose your temper?"

Walter: "Rarely."

Interviewer: "What sort of thing would cause you to lose your temper?"

Walter: "Well, never having lost my temper completely - I've always been able to hold my emotions pretty well in check - it would have to be a fairly devastating thing, I think, to make me lose it, or to become completely out of control of myself."

Interviewer: "What sort of hobbies do you particularly enjoy?"

Walter: "Golf, music, spectator sports - I am not too athletic - tennis, things such as this."

Interviewer: "Well, how important do you feel religion is to people in these times?"

Walter: "That's a pretty deep subject. Not being a deeply religious man myself, it isn't too important for me. The moral teachings of religion help man be able to live better with himself, and with other people in society. I think today its quite important for most people - not for the supernatural aspects of it, but for the moral teachings of religion."

Interviewer: "You don't feel that its necessary for you?"

Walter: "Not necessary, no."

Interview with Allen

Allen is a young, single man. As part of a research project on understanding people, he was given a short interview, which is typed below.

Interviewer: "Just what sort of a person are you?"

Allen: "Well, I guess an easy-going one. I'm easy to get along with."

Interviewer: "Well, what else can you tell me about yourself as to what sort of person you are?"

Allen: "Well, I guess that's about all. I have some temper - not much."

Interviewer: "Well, what do you consider to be your greatest personal handicap?"

Allen: "Well, I guess just paying attention when there are people talking to me. Just paying attention to them."

Interviewer: "Do you have difficulty paying attention to people when they talk to you?"

Allen: "No, no, I don't have no difficulty. It's just that whenever I walk into a place, I just don't speak, I'm quiet."

Interviewer: "Oh, I see, you find yourself quiet. Do you have difficulty making friends?"

Allen: "No. No. I don't find no difficulty making friends."

Interviewer: "After you once get to know them then. But to begin with, you feel a little reserved about it, is that it?"

Allen: "Yuh."

Interviewer: "Well, do you ever lose your temper? What sort of thing would cause you to lose your temper?"

Allen: "Once in a great while. It has to be something pretty mean, I guess, or something pretty big. One I guess is just - I don't know - couldn't tell you that until I lost my temper. Well, for instance my little brother taking off with my car."

Interviewer: "That would make you unhappy?"

Allen: "Yuh."

Interviewer: "What would you do if someone told a lie about you?"

Allen: "I guess that would make me a little sore too, if it weren't true."

Interviewer: "What would you do about it? Would you go to the person and talk to him about it?"

Allen: "I wouldn't do nothing. Just sort of keep it to myself."

Interviewer: "Well, how would you feel, and what would you do if someone gave you a million dollars?"

Allen: "I'd be pretty happy, I guess. I guess I've never thought about what I'd do with it. I'd spend it I guess."

Interviewer: "What sort of things do you do in your spare time, when you're not working?"

Allen: "Oh, usually drive around, I like to drive around quite a bit."

Interviewer: "Do you participate actively in sports, or are you a spectator?"

Allen: "No, I participate in it. Baseball, for instance."

Interviewer: "Well, tell me, how important do you feel religion is to people in these times? How is it important to you?"

Allen: "Yes, I really do think that religion is important. I don't know, I guess just being good, people go out, and that ain't so bad, just going out and partying, but after that, the way they gather --."

Interviewer: "And you think religion would affect that sort of thing?"

Allen: "I think so, because of conscience - people would have a conscience, and that would be on it."

Interviewer: "In what way is religion important to you?"

Allen: "I don't know. Well, sometimes when you go out partying, you feel like doing something else, and yet you don't."

Interviewer: "Because of your religion, is that it?"

Allen: "Uh-huh."

PREDICTIONS

Instructions: All three men interviewed answered questions about themselves. The statements below are based on the answers that the men gave. After each statement is listed the names of the three men. Only one of the men gave each particular answer. After each statement put a circle around the name of the man who you think gave that answer.

Adjective Pairs

The men were given the pairs of adjectives shown below and were asked to underline the one adjective of each pair which they thought was a better description of themselves. In each of the pairs below only one of the men checked the adjective underlined. For item number 1, for example, two of the men underlined "apathetic" (which, by the way, means lack of interest), and one of the men underlined "arrogant" (which means overly proud). For item number 1 circle the name of the man who you think underlined "arrogant." For each of the other pairs of adjectives, also circle the name of the one man who you think chose the word that is underlined.

1. <u>arrogant</u> - apathetic	George	<u>Walter</u>	Allen
2. <u>progressive</u> - outgoing	George	<u>Walter</u>	Allen
3. <u>shy</u> - assertive	George	<u>Walter</u>	<u>Allen</u>
4. <u>steady</u> - spunky	<u>George</u>	Walter	Allen
5. <u>tolerant</u> - ingenious	<u>George</u>	Walter	Allen
6. <u>stable</u> - robust	<u>George</u>	Walter	Allen
7. <u>practical</u> - charming	<u>George</u>	Walter	Allen
8. <u>contented</u> - quick	George	Walter	<u>Allen</u>
9. <u>warm</u> - forceful	<u>George</u>	Walter	Allen
10. <u>moderate</u> - artistic	<u>George</u>	Walter	Allen
11. <u>restless</u> - emotional	George	<u>Walter</u>	Allen
12. <u>sincere</u> - original	George	<u>Walter</u>	<u>Allen</u>
13. <u>good-natured</u> - painstaking	<u>George</u>	Walter	Allen
14. <u>kind</u> - insightful	George	Walter	<u>Allen</u>
15. <u>changeable</u> - tense	<u>George</u>	Walter	Allen
16. <u>loyal</u> - clever	<u>George</u>	Walter	<u>Allen</u>
17. <u>considerate</u> - sharp-witted	George	Walter	<u>Allen</u>
18. <u>foolish</u> - cynical	<u>George</u>	Walter	Allen

¹Correct choices are underlined and receive a score of 1; incorrect choices are scored 0. If no choice is indicated, or if more than one choice is made for an item, a 0 is scored.

Religious Beliefs

Each of the three men answered questions about their religious beliefs. Which one of the three answered as follows:

19. Agreed that "I am unable to accept the idea of 'life after death' at least not until we have some definite evidence there is such a thing." George Walter Allen
20. Agreed that "God will punish those who disobey his commandments and reward those who obey Him (either in this life or a future life)." George Walter Allen
21. Did not agree that "There exists an evil intelligence, person, or spirit in the universe often called Satan or the Devil." George Walter Allen

Personality Questions

Each of the three men were asked several true-false questions. Which one of the three men answered that the statement did not apply to him?

22. I like to be the center of attention. George Walter Allen
23. It is easy for me to talk to strangers. George Walter Allen
24. At times I think I am no good at all. George Walter Allen

Which one of the three men answered that the following statements did apply to him?

25. I easily become impatient with people. George Walter Allen
26. I take a pretty easy-going and lighthearted attitude toward life. George Walter Allen
27. My hardest battles are with myself. George Walter Allen
28. Policemen are usually honest. George Walter Allen
29. I seldom have quarrels with the members of my family. George Walter Allen
30. I do not always tell the truth. George Walter Allen

JUDGING EMOTIONS¹

NAME: _____

DATE: _____

In the film you are going to see two people are having certain feelings as they listen to ten stories. First, you are to judge which of the words below best describes the emotion they are feeling in each part. Choose the word and mark its number in the first column. Some words may be used more than once and some not at all. In some parts, the stories told actually happened to one of them. You are to judge whether the emotion is a more real one to the boy, to the girl, or whether the story they are hearing happened to neither one of them. The projector will be turned off between each sequence to allow you to make your choice.

- | | | |
|--------------|------------------|------------|
| 1. Affection | 5. Disgust | 9. Joy |
| 2. Amusement | 6. Embarrassment | 10. Pain |
| 3. Anger | 7. Fear | 11. Pride |
| 4. Despair | 8. Jealousy | 12. Shame |
| | | 13. Sorrow |

The emotion experienced
(indicate by number)

Person to whom story
actually happened (indicate by X)

	<u>Fay</u>	<u>Jim</u>	<u>Neither</u>
Sample <u>10</u>	___	<u>X</u>	___
Story 1. <u>2</u>	<u>X</u>	___	___
Story 2. <u>6</u>	___	___	<u>X</u>
Story 3. <u>5</u>	___	___	<u>X</u>
Story 4. <u>3</u>	___	<u>X</u>	___
Story 5. <u>1</u>	___	___	<u>X</u>
Story 6. <u>8</u>	___	<u>X</u>	___
Story 7. <u>11</u>	___	<u>X</u>	___
Story 8. <u>8</u>	<u>X</u>	___	___
Story 9. <u>4</u>	<u>X</u>	___	___
Story 10. <u>2</u>	___	___	<u>X</u>

¹Correct answers indicated by number (total = Feeling Identification score) and by X (total = Person Identification score). Each correct answer is scored 1. Incorrect answers, omissions and multiple answers are scored 0.

APPENDIX 2

GROUP A TRAINING SCHEDULE.

GROUP B TRAINING SCHEDULE

GROUP A TRAINING SCHEDULE

SESSION

1. Introduction, orientation and overview (50").
Discussion groups A₁ and A₂: conceptions of the "ideal officer" (75").
Special training methods (film: "Role playing in human relations training") (50").
2. Discussion groups: clarification of goals of training (50").
Lecture: distinctions between the concepts "mental disorder" and "mental illness;" review of emotional defenses and their universality (75").
Discussion groups (45").
3. Laboratory demonstration: non-verbal communication (120").
Discussion groups: focus on non-verbal communication through discussion and role-play (60").
4. Lecture: the effects of cultural differences upon parental behavior, economic factors and the nature of group relationships (80").
Discussion groups: regarding what the police officer can derive from the understanding of cultural differences. (105").
5. Lecture: the nature of interpersonal conflict and options for conflict resolution (75").
Discussion groups: personal experiences with interpersonal conflicts; impressions others have of one which affect their responses to him (105").
6. Police options and responses regarding interpersonal conflict situations through discussion and new films depicting real police officers reactions to portrayed incidents (195").
7. Discussion groups: role-playing of conflict situations comparing the relative effectiveness of the various interventions of the officers (135").
Lecture: referral resources and procedures as options for police intervention in conflicts between people (45").
8. Lecture: a procedure for recording coded information about interpersonal conflicts (75").
Discussion groups: sharing of recent field experiences (105").

9. Workshop in police management of conflict I:
nature of the workshop presented, teams selected
for enactments (90").
Workshop: enactments (45").
Workshop: review and discussion (45").
10. Workshop in police management of conflict II:
selection of teams and enactments (120").
Workshop: review and discussion (60").
11. Workshop in police management of conflict III:
selection of teams and enactments (105").
Workshop: review and discussion (60").
12. Attitude assessment (60").
Discussion groups: evaluation of training (60").
Lecture: referral resources and procedures. A list
of community resources was distributed to the offi-
cers.

GROUP B TRAINING SCHEDULE

SESSION

1. Introduction, orientation and overview (40").
Child development I: varieties of mother-infant interaction and their effects upon the child's behavior (80").
Child development II: cross-cultural differences in child rearing methods and their effects on behavior (55").
2. Adolescence I: Changes during adolescence with which the child must cope (50").
Adolescence II: how adolescents adjust to the physical, sexual, social, religious and moral crises they encounter; their ambivalence about independence and authority; factors influencing police-adolescent interaction (film: "Meaning of adolescence") (135").
3. Adulthood I; conceptions in terms of societal expectations, the nature of adjustment to work, and increased independence and responsibility (70").
Adulthood II: adult crises such as marriage, birth of children, parenting of children (film: "Shaping the personality") (110").
4. Conceptions of normality: medical, psychiatric, psychoanalytic, psychological and anthropological (film: "What is normal?") (75").
Gerontology: medical, social and psychological problems of old age; difficulties working with the aged (100").
5. Psychoneurosis I: comparison of adaptive and maladaptive behavior; critical areas of personality development; the nature and symptoms of neurotic conflict; mechanism of ego defense (50").
Psychoneurosis II: various syndromes: the character disorders distinguished from psychoneurosis (special symptom reactions and conduct disorders) (135").
6. Psychosis I: genetic, constitutional, chemical, and developmental-psychological theories (film: "World of the schizophrenic") (60").
Psychosis II: etiology and behavior of affective psychoses (60").
Psychosis III: schizophrenia and its manifestations (45").

7. Treatment of emotional disorders I: physical and chemical treatments (75").
Treatment of emotional disorders II: psychological methods; ethical and legal aspects of the psycho-therapeutic relationship (105").
8. Physical anthropology: evolutionary processes which affected mankind; the phenomena of individual variation and genetic transmission; racial differences (film: "Miss Goodall and the wild chimpanzees") (60").
Cultural anthropology I: cross-national differences in behavior, with particular reference to ethnic groups in New York City; cultural effects on familial and social patterns (105").
9. Cultural anthropology II: subcultural differences within the United States, with particular reference to minorities and adolescents (75").
The culture of the Puerto Rican American: behavior, attitudes towards police and other authorities, and group strivings (105").
10. The culture of the black American: the anger of the American Negro and its sources (90").
Urban living - the sociology of the inner city: the pessimism and hedonism characterizing the ghetto subculture and alternative ways of reacting to these pressures (gangs, addiction); acceptance of the major culture's norms (90").
11. Deviant behavior and public policy: how public policies (such as laws) force certain behaviors underground and contribute to forming new subcultures (60").
The addictions: psycho-social aspects; differences between the ghetto and the suburban addict (120").
12. Attitude assessment (75").
Groups influences on behavior: influences on crowd behavior (contagion, rumor, and leader); problems in dealing with crowds (45").
Public vs. private behavior: urban life as it affects public behaviors (crowds, anonymity, heterogeneity of people); societal norms as influences (45").

APPENDIX 3

ANALYSES OF VARIANCE OF PRE-TRAINING SCORES FOR SUB-
GROUPS A₁ AND A₂, AND GROUP B

ANALYSES OF VARIANCE OF POST-TRAINING SCORES FOR SUB-
GROUPS A₁ AND A₂

REPEATED MEASURES ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (UNWEIGHTED MEANS
SOLUTION) FOR CYNICISM

REPEATED MEASURES ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (UNWEIGHTED MEANS
SOLUTION) FOR ALIENATION

ANALYSES OF VARIANCE FOR EMPATHY VARIABLES

REPEATED MEASURES ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (UNWEIGHTED MEANS
SOLUTION) FOR INTERPERSONAL SENSITIVITY

ANALYSES OF VARIANCE BY GROUPS AND RACE

ANALYSES OF VARIANCE OF PRE-TRAINING SCORES FOR SUB-GROUPS A1 AND A2, AND GROUP B

Variable	Source	df	MS	F ^a
Feeling Identification	Group	2	0.10	0.04
	Error	48	2.47	
Person Identification	Group	2	0.08	0.03
	Error	48	2.16	
Empathy scale	Group	2	10.21	0.54
	Error	48	18.84	
Interpersonal Sensitivity	Group	2	0.36	0.02
	Error	48	12.70	
Cynicism	Group	2	16.05	0.35
	Error	48	44.86	
Alienation	Group	2	70.68	0.39
	Error	48	177.19	

^aF=3.23 required for significance at the .05 level.

ANALYSES OF VARIANCE OF POST-TRAINING SCORES
FOR SUBGROUPS A₁ AND A₂

Variable	Source	df	MS	F ^a
Feeling Identification	Subgroup	1	5.50	2.76
	Error	20	1.99	
Person Identification	Subgroup	1	0.00	0.00
	Error	20	1.30	
Empathy scale	Subgroup	1	24.05	1.69
	Error	20	14.18	
Interpersonal Sensitivity	Subgroup	1	0.18	0.03
	Error	20	6.61	
Cynicism	Subgroup	1	16.18	0.14
	Error	20	109.26	
Alienation	Subgroup	1	0.00	0.00
	Error	20	167.89	

^aF=4.35 required for significance at the .05 level.

REPEATED MEASURES ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 (UNWEIGHTED MEANS SOLUTION)
 FOR CYNICISM

Source	df	MS	F _a
Between:			
Groups (A)	1	118.71	1.46
Error	49	80.92	
Within:			
Test-retest (B)	1	21.24	1.46
A x B	1	13.39	0.92
Error	49	14.57	

$F_{.05} = 4.00$ required for significance at the .05 level.

ANALYSES OF VARIANCE FOR EMPATHY VARIABLES

Variable	Source	df	MS	F ^a
Feeling Identification	Groups (A)	1	0.00	0.00
	Error	49	2.89	
	Test-retest (B)	1	4.79	2.92
	A x B	1	0.00	0.00
	Error	49	1.64	
Person Identification	Groups (A)	1	2.50	1.34
	Error	49	1.86	
	Test-retest (B)	1	1.50	0.83
	A x B	1	0.00	0.00
	Error	49	1.80	
Empathy scale	Groups (A)	1	3.25	0.30
	Error	49	10.72	
	Test-retest (B)	1	32.77	0.63
	A x B	1	60.48	1.17
	Error	49	51.88	

^aF=4.00 required for significance at the .05 level.

REPEATED MEASURES ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
(UNWEIGHTED MEANS SOLUTION)
FOR ALIENATION

Source	df	MS	F ^a
Between:			
Groups (A)	1	267.21	1.03
Error	49	255.64	
Within:			
Test-retest (B)	1	7.00	0.00
A x B	1	4.84	0.00
Error	49	4,247.53	

^aF=4.00 required for significance at the .05 level.

REPEATED MEASURES ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
(UNWEIGHTED MEANS SOLUTION) FOR
INTERPERSONAL SENSITIVITY

Source	df	MS	F ^a
Between:			
Groups (A)	1	1.25	0.21
Error	49	5.74	
Within:			
Test-retest (B)	1	8.21	0.60
A x B	1	1.75	0.12
Error	49	13.51	

^aF=4.00 required for significance at the .05 level.

ANALYSES OF VARIANCE BY GROUPS AND RACE

Variable	A Group				B Group		
	Source	df	MS	F ^a	df	MS	F ^b
Feeling Identifi- cation	Groups (A)	1	15.51	9.65	1	11.48	3.66
	Error	19	1.61		24	3.14	
	Test-retest (B)	1	3.00	1.82	1	2.25	1.36
	A x B	1	0.19	0.12	1	0.54	0.33
	Error	19	1.65		24	1.65	
Person Identifi- cation	Groups (A)	1	0.58	0.32	1	2.48	1.30
	Error	19	1.84		24	1.91	
	Test-retest (B)	1	0.82	0.55	1	3.67	1.70
	A x B	1	0.05	0.03	1	5.56	2.56
	Error	19	1.47		24	2.17	
Empathy scale	Groups (A)	1	8.97	0.09	1	3.79	0.15
	Error	19	99.33		24	25.45	
	Test-retest (B)	1	9.98	1.08	1	72.16	6.06
	A x B	1	0.48	0.05	1	23.54	1.98
	Error	19	9.24		24	11.91	
Inter- personal Sensitivity	Groups (A)	1	12.02	0.56	1	7.19	0.68
	Error	19	21.50		24	10.55	
	Test-retest (B)	1	1.93	0.19	1	0.19	0.03
	A x B	1	17.30	1.69	1	1.78	0.27
	Error	19	10.24		24	6.67	
Cynicism	Groups (A)	1	0.69	0.01	1	80.54	1.18
	Error	19	113.54		24	68.16	
	Test-retest (B)	1	26.73	0.52	1	47.79	2.06
	A x B	1	22.92	0.49	1	2.26	0.10
	Error	19	51.13		24	23.17	
Alienation	Groups (A)	1	534.30	2.37	1	11.36	0.04
	Error	19	224.96		24	264.25	
	Test-retest (B)	1	11.77	0.22	1	56.22	0.68
	A x B	1	0.40	0.00	1	72.76	0.90
	Error	19	52.30		24	81.82	

^aF=4.38 required for significance at the .05 level.

^bF=4.26 required for significance at the .05 level.