

**AN ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECT OF A BACCALAUREATE REQUIREMENT  
ON THE LEVEL OF CYNICISM OF LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS  
IN THE AUSTIN POLICE DEPARTMENT**

**THESIS**

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**Master of Criminal Justice**

**By**

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By

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**ABSTRACT**

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In 2000, the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officers Standards and Education researched the implications of requiring a baccalaureate degree as a minimum requirement for licensure as a peace officer in Texas by 2010. In its report to the Commissioners, the Education Committee noted a 1976 study by Dr. Robert Regoli, which stated that college-educated police officers were more cynical than were their non college-educated peers, and several law enforcement

practitioners across Texas stated to the Committee that they were concerned about college-educated officers' levels of cynicism and job satisfaction.

The immediate study attempted to determine whether, a generation after the Regoli study, college education had an effect on the cynicism level of law enforcement officers in the Austin Police Department. The study consisted of an analysis of a modified Niederhoffer cynicism survey distributed to commissioned personnel in the Austin, Texas, Police Department. The responses, grouped by educational achievement level and rank, and matched to control for eleven intervening variables, were analyzed through analysis of variance (ANOVA).

The study revealed three statistically significant differences. First, non-supervisory officers who had at least a baccalaureate degree displayed significantly lower composite cynicism scores than did their peers who had fewer than 61 college hours. Second, non-supervisory officers who had at least a baccalaureate degree displayed significantly lower cynicism scores regarding training and education than did non-supervisory officers who had fewer than 61 college hours and non-supervisory officers who had 61 or more hours of college, but who did not have a degree. Third, supervisory officers who had at least a baccalaureate degree displayed significantly lower cynicism scores regarding training and education than did their peers who had fewer than 61 college hours and supervisory officers who had 61 or more hours of college, but who did not have a degree. These results call into question whether previous studies indicating that college-educated officers are more cynical than their non college-

educated peers are still applicable to a new generation of law enforcement officers.

## CHAPTER I

### EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS FOR POLICE OFFICERS

A number of federal commissions and national blue ribbon panels have called for a baccalaureate degree as a required minimum standard for licensure as a police officer. Among the groups who have called for higher educational standards were the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (commonly known as the Wickersham Commission) in 1931, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (commonly known simply as the President's Commission) in 1967, the Advisory Committee on Intergovernmental Relations in 1971, the American Bar Association in 1972, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals in 1973, the National Advisory Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers in 1978, the National Association of Blacks in Criminal Justice in 1985, and both the Police Executive Research Forum and the International Association of Directors of Law Enforcement Standards and Training in 1998 (Kelly, 1999). Nevertheless, in 1997, only about 1 percent of law enforcement agencies in the United States required a four-year degree for employment (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1999:1). In Texas, only the Arlington and Deer Park police departments require that their officers have a baccalaureate degree (Reaves and Goldberg, 1999:49).

In 2000, the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officers' Standards and Education (TCLEOSE) convened an Education Committee to study the implications of a proposed rule that would make a baccalaureate degree a minimum requirement for initial licensure as a peace officer by 2010. The Committee discussed and reviewed relevant literature evaluating standards related to the formal education of law enforcement personnel, debated the impact such a standard would have on the law enforcement community, assessed the time frame and graduated scale for implementation of such a standard as described in the proposed rule, recommended modifications to the Commission's plan, and prepared a report of findings to be presented to the Commissioners (Marquis, Johnson, Bowman, Campos, Childers, Courville, Enloe, Fisher, Pollock, Price, Stephens, and Williams, 2000).

The Committee cited one study, which authors have often cited in literature regarding the effects of higher education for police officers. That study noted that college-educated officers might be more cynical than were their non college-educated peers (Regoli, 1976a). Other studies have claimed that, because higher education levels typically were associated with a wider range of employment choices and freedom, college-educated employees were less cynical than were their non college-educated peers (Mirvis and Kanter, 1991). In the mid 1970s, when Dr. Regoli conducted his oft-cited study, the "Greatest Generation" was reaching retirement age, and the "Baby Boom Generation" had begun to populate the police service. By 2000, however, the "Baby Boom Generation" began to reach retirement age, and "Generation X" began to fill the

police ranks. Although the Education Committee report did not specifically address them, questions arose as to whether a college education currently affected the level of cynicism in peace officers in Texas, whether the levels of cynicism that appeared in the mid-1970s were still present, and whether a rule requiring a baccalaureate degree as a minimum requirement for licensure for a peace officer might increase that level of cynicism and, thus, be counterproductive.

### The Advantages of College Education

The question first arises whether a college education provides performance benefits beyond those of police training. Clearly, a difference does exist between training and education. Training generally refers to vocational instruction that takes place on the job and deals with physical skills, an example being a police cadet training academy. Education generally refers to academic instruction that takes place in a college, university, or seminar-type setting and deals with knowledge and mental skills (Bennett and Hess, 1996). Most experts in adult education agree that training and education are necessary compliments (Berg, 1994). Although it appears that college-educated officers advance more rapidly through the ranks than do officers who receive only advanced or specialized training, education and training are both valuable investments in officer development (Campbell, 1993).

By 1988, based largely on the recommendations of federal commissions, and funded primarily by federal grants, more than 90 percent of departments throughout the United States had educational incentive policies and offered educational incentive programs. Nevertheless, although such incentive programs had existed for twenty years, in 1988 fewer than one in four officers had earned college degrees (Carter, et al., 1989). A 1993 survey of law enforcement agencies in Texas revealed that officers who worked for departments with educational incentive plans did not have more college semester-hours credit than those who worked for departments without a plan. Moreover, incentive plans tied to certification pay proved to be a disincentive for officers to seek a college education, because they could substitute training hours for educational requirements (Campbell, 1993).

Sterling (1974) listed several benefits of higher education for police officers:

- a greater knowledge and understanding of complex procedures and principles relevant to present and future assignments;
- a better appreciation of the officers' roles in the criminal justice system and in society;
- a more desirable psychological makeup;
- a greater range of interpersonal skills, especially improved communication skills; and
- an improved ability to analyze situations, exercise discretion, and make judicious decisions.

Later studies of the effects of a college education on police performance have shown many positive results. Police managers with higher education were more creative in their methods and encouraged thought and creativity in patrol officers (Buckley, McGinnis and Petrunik, 1993). Although the police corps has gradually become more educated, the demands of the job and the requirements of police policies have become more complicated (Alpert and Smith, 1993).

Many law enforcement agencies, including the Austin Police Department, have subscribed to the operating philosophy of community policing. Effective community policing requires certain skills that officers develop through higher education: research, critical thinking, problem solving, effective oral and written communications, and an understanding of group and community dynamics (Breci, 1994). This renewed nationwide emphasis on community policing and problem solving also requires officers to think and to plan, not simply to respond to calls for service (Alpert and Dunham, 1992).

Police administrators should know that studies have shown a positive correlation between college education and two important management characteristics: responses to new training and decision-making ability (Smith and Aamodt, 1997). Other studies have demonstrated that officers with a college education not only have demonstrated less authoritarian attitudes than have non college-educated officers, but they were also less authoritarian than college graduates in other fields (Smith, Locke and Waller, 1970). Moreover, officers who completed their education advanced more rapidly (Vanagunas and Elliott, 1980; Whetstone, 2000) and had fewer disciplinary actions than non college-

educated officers had (Vanagunas and Elliott, 1980; Tyre and Braunstein, 1992; Kappeler, Sapp, and Carter, 1992; Wilson, 1999).

Carter, Sapp and Stephens (1988:16-18) summarize more than 20 years of literature regarding the advantages of college education for police:

1. A college education permits officers to develop a broader base of information upon which to base decisions.
2. A college education allows for culturally varied experiences that contribute to the officers' maturity.
3. College course requirements and achievements in meeting those requirements inculcate a sense of responsibility in officers.
4. General education courses permit the officers to develop a richer understanding of history and the democratic process and enhance their appreciation for constitutional rights.
5. A college education fosters officers' flexibility, creativity, and innovation in problem solving.
6. A college education provides criminal justice majors with a richer understanding of the criminal justice system, including the roles of prosecutors, the courts, and corrections.
7. Because of both coursework and personal interaction, a college education develops in officers a greater empathy for minorities.
8. A college education develops in officers a greater understanding of and tolerance for differing lifestyles.
9. College-educated officers are less rigid in decision-making.

10. A college education permits officers to respond to crime and service needs more civilly and more humanely.
11. College-educated officers are more innovative and flexible when dealing with complex policies and programs.
12. College-educated officers are better equipped to perform their duties with little or no supervision.
13. A college education helps officers to develop community relations skills.
14. College-educated officers are better equipped to deal with stress.
15. College-educated officers can better adapt communication styles and behaviors to a wider range of social conditions and classes.
16. College-educated officers are less authoritarian than are non college-educated officers.
17. College-educated officers more readily adapt to and accept organizational change.

Recent studies have shown additional benefits of a college education. In two separate self-evaluation studies, college-educated officers rated themselves higher than their non college-educated peers rated themselves in several categories of police performance. A sample of 110 officers in Dade County, Florida, showed that officers with some college education rated themselves significantly higher than non college-educated officers rated themselves in several of thirty-six tested categories. Additionally, officers with college degrees rated themselves higher than both other groups. College-educated officers rated themselves higher in their ability to deal with extra work, angry citizens, and

stressful situations. They reported making fewer arrests and in using mediation and conflict resolution techniques more often before resorting to the use of force. They reported themselves to be more informed in state and federal laws, and they claimed to make better witnesses. They also reported themselves higher in leadership, responsibility and problem solving. The study found no significant difference between groups in the officers' attitudes toward their jobs or in their involvement in community projects (Kakar, 1998).

A similar study tested the self-reporting responses of 157 officers in Howell Township, New Jersey, and Bucks County, Pennsylvania, on 45 performance indicators. College-educated officers in Howell Township rated themselves higher than did non-degreed officers in knowledge of department rules, use of safety practices, and ability to accept change. College-educated Bucks County officers rated themselves higher in knowledge of the law, preparedness for court, quality of work assignments, problem-solving ability, arrest analysis, confidence with supervisors, quality of written work, quality of oral presentations, self-image, arrest report quality, investigative report quality, and interpersonal relationships (Krimmel, 1996). Without comparing performance assessments or other subjective performance appraisals with self-reporting assessments, one cannot know if college-educated officers perform better than do their non college-educated peers in the mentioned categories.

The campaign to improve police performance through college education presents two problematic assumptions, however. First, common police evaluations that typically measure numbers of arrests and citations, response

times, and crime clearance rates reflect the values and priorities of paramilitary organizations, not those of academic institutions. These measures do not capture the traditional benefits of education, such as critical thinking and problem solving. Second, research on the relationships between police performance and college education yields mixed results (Baro and Burlingame, 1999). Not all published studies indicate significant differences between the performances of college-educated and non college-educated officers. Thus, measuring the effectiveness of a college education in the evaluation of police services is difficult, and research does not make clear that a college education positively affects those attributes commonly associated with police work.

### The Disadvantages of College Education

Not all the literature on the effects of education on police performance has been positive. Many opponents have posited arguments to counter the claims that all police officers should have a college education. One such criticism was that neither the public nor social scientists could agree on quantifiable definitions of good police performance or of a good police officer. Without such a measurable standard, it is difficult to say that higher education improves police performance or makes a better officer (Vodicka, 1994).

Many college-educated officers believe that education enhances their performance, but they do not believe that education advances their careers. Other findings show that officers are satisfied with their jobs and careers as long

as they believe that their qualifications for promotion are good and their prospects for promotion are high. When officers do not receive desired rewards for what they perceive to be relevant qualifications, job and career satisfaction decline (Buckley, et al., 1993). College-educated officers may also believe that college preparation is the key to promotion. In police service, however, experience continues to be a necessary requisite for command positions, regardless of educational achievement (Berg, 1994).

Studies also reveal that the benefits of a college education do not become apparent until officers gain experience in the job (Smith and Aamodt, 1997). Additionally, a degree can change an officer's behavior and attitudes so that they work against organizational interests (Sheehan and Cordner, 1995). Officers, who do not realize the anticipated benefits of a college education education, such as higher pay or accelerated promotions, often grow disenchanted with police work. Consequently, as Niederhoffer (1967) argued, they rebel against police service by becoming cynical and non-productive. Moreover, level of education does not appear to have a significant effect on the number of commendations or reprimands, nor does it significantly increase involvement in community projects or volunteer work (Kakar, 1998).

Criticisms of some early studies allege a failure to control for intelligence levels or motivation, and for insufficient variance and poor measurement of educational quality when comparing officers without college to those who are college-educated (Sherman, 1980). One study found that with the exception of grade point average, no clear pattern of relationships emerged between

education measures and job performance (Truxillo, Bennett, and Collins, 1998). Supervisors tended to score performance assessments higher for officers who had higher grade point averages. Lofkowitz (1974) found that police officers' level of education correlated inversely to their reported job satisfaction, and that officers with Masters degrees tended to demonstrate the lowest levels of positive attitudes toward their jobs.

It may be true that an improved police management capability will become evident as college-educated officers achieve greater representation in supervisory and command positions. Because few studies have specifically addressed college education and its effect on police management performance, however, advocates of college for the police have relied more on their instincts that it is beneficial than on any extensive amount of hard research data that would fully support that supposition (Sheehan & Cordner, 1995).

### Concerns Regarding Educational Requirements

Despite several studies advocating the apparent advantages of a college education for police officers, the majority of police departments in the United States still require only a high school diploma or GED. Carter and Sapp (1990) summarize the reasons that standards have not changed significantly:

1. fear of lawsuits claiming that a college education requirement is discriminatory;

2. fear that departments cannot show sufficient evidence that a college education is a bona fide occupational requirement;
3. concern that a college education requirement may exclude otherwise capable applicants who do not have degrees;
4. concern that a college requirement will create a limited applicant pool insufficient to supply required numbers of new officers;
5. concern that police unions will resist a college education requirement; and
6. concern that a college degree requirement will hasten increases in salary and benefit package costs.

Law enforcement practitioners in Texas have raised similar concerns (Marquis, et al., 2000). Allegations have arisen that, because of past educational discrimination and present civil service type merit examinations for police service, minorities are at a disadvantage in meeting education requirements (Radelet, 1986). National statistics, however, reveal a particularly surprising result. Overall, educational levels of minorities are comparable to those of white males, and the graduate work of minorities exceeds that of white males. Similarly, women have higher average levels of education and much more graduate work than white males (Carter, et al., 1989). Additionally, college enrollment is expected to increase by some 2 million students – to 19 million – by 2015, and minority students are expected to account for 80 percent of that growth (Wilgoren, 2000).

TCLEOSE records show that African-American officers and Asian-American officers in Texas have, on average, more college semester-hours than

do Anglo officers; but Hispanic officers have, on average, fewer college semester-hours than do Anglos. The percentages and averages correspond closely to national population averages. See Table 1 – Average College Hours. Minority groups in Texas comprise 56.1 percent of the parole officers and 48.4 percent of probation officers, who must have a minimum of a baccalaureate for employment, but only 28.6 percent of peace officers, who must have only a GED or high school diploma (Campbell, 2000).

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Table 1. Average College Hours

Group	Number of Licensees <sup>1</sup>	Average College Hours <sup>1</sup>	Number of Degrees <sup>1</sup>	Percent of Officers with Degrees <sup>1</sup>	Percent in U.S. <sup>2</sup>
American-Indian	187	39.94	25	13.3%	N/A
Asian-American	397	70.85	119	30.0%	N/A
African-American	5,534	52.96	1,115	20.1%	15.8%
Hispanic	12,164	36.43	1,212	10.0%	10.4%
Anglo	45,522	48.19	8,508	18.7%	32.3%
Totals	63,804	46.48	10,979	17.2%	27.3%

<sup>1</sup> 1999 data from TCLEOSE

<sup>2</sup> 1998 data from the U.S. Department of Education

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Additionally, the courts have upheld minimum educational requirements for law enforcement officers. In 1978, the Dallas Police Department required applicants to have completed 45 semester hours of college with a “C” average. The Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals, in a suit challenging the legality of the college requirement, ruled that the City of Dallas had established a manifest relationship between college education and performance of police officers (*Davis v. City of Dallas*). Thus, the Fifth Circuit Court acknowledged college education as a bona fide occupational qualification for police service in Texas. Additionally, state and

federal courts have consistently rejected challenges to the mandatory 60 semester-hour requirement of the Minnesota Peace Officer Standards and Training Board, ruling that college education is a bona fide occupational qualification essential for police service in Minnesota (Carter, et al., 1989).

Some practitioners in Texas have expressed concerns that too few college-educated applicants will exist to fill police officer positions if a college degree is required for licensure (Marquis, et al., 2000). In fiscal year 1998, TCLEOSE recorded 3,167 new licenses issued to peace officers. In fiscal year 1999, TCLEOSE recorded 3,250 new licenses (Bolton, 2000). In 1998, 24.4 percent of the U.S. population twenty-five years old and older, or approximately 42 million Americans, had completed four or more years of college, an increase from 17 percent in 1980. Between 1987 and 1997, enrollment in colleges and universities in the United States increased 13 percent, from 12.8 million to 14.5 million, more than 969,000 in Texas alone. During that same period, enrollment of people 25 years old and older rose by 6 percent to 6.1 million. Projections for enrollment in the year 2009 are 16.3 million (U.S. Department of Education, 1999).

In 1997, 466 institutions in the United States offered four-year degrees in protective services, mostly criminal justice and corrections. In the spring of 1993, 363,000 people had a baccalaureate or higher degree in police science or law enforcement. In the 1994-5 school year, colleges and universities in the United States awarded 16,584 baccalaureate degrees in criminal justice. In 1996-7, they awarded 24,802 such degrees. Of course, the applicant pool for peace

officers is not limited to criminal justice majors alone. In the 1996-7 school year, colleges and universities in the United States awarded 1,172,879 baccalaureate degrees, 71,172 in Texas. The Department of Education has projected that colleges and universities will award 1,257,000 bachelor degrees in the 2008-9 school year (U.S. Department of Education, 1999).

The Texas cities of Arlington and Deer Park require a baccalaureate degree as a minimum requirement for employment as a peace officer (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1999). Both departments report no more difficulty recruiting qualified applicants than other departments in surrounding areas (Fisher, 2000). Thus, it is reasonable to believe that a sufficient number of people with baccalaureate degrees will be available to satisfy anticipated demands for peace officers in Texas following adoption of a rule requiring a bachelor's degree as a minimum requirement for initial licensure (Marquis, et al., 2000).

Since 1960, with a few exceptions, studies on the effects of a college education on police officers and on the police service consistently have shown the positive results of higher education and the benefits associated with college-educated officers. Additionally, since 1931, several national commissions and organizations have called for increased educational requirements for law enforcement officers. Moreover, the results of a 1999 survey conducted by the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education show that, of respondents from 848 agencies across the state, 75.7 percent stated that changes or improvements were needed in officers' abilities to read, and 86.3 percent stated that changes or improvements were needed in officers' abilities to

write (Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education, 2000). Training academies and programs are not designed to improve employees' reading and writing skills; that is the job of educational institutions, such as colleges and universities. Education and training are necessary compliments, but education will have a more profound effect on an officer's ability to promote and perform well at all levels of law enforcement.

One stated concern regarding the baccalaureate requirement, however, continues to be a serious concern, and that is the anticipated increase in salary and benefit package costs. In 1994, the last year for which such salary computations are available, the average annual salary of a baccalaureate degree recipient employed full-time one year after graduation was \$24,200, or approximately 55.4 percent of the \$43,663 median annual income of year-round full-time workers 25 years old or older with baccalaureate degrees. In 1998, the annual mean income for men with baccalaureate degrees working year-round full-time was \$51,405 (U.S. Department of Education, 1999). Applying the 55.4 percent ratio of 1994 to 1998 data, one can estimate that the average annual salary of a male baccalaureate degree recipient employed full-time one year after graduation was \$28,478, or approximately \$2373 a month. The \$2373 a month is more than one standard deviation more than the mean monthly entry salary in 1998 for peace officers in Texas departments of 1 to 24 full-time employees ( $M = 1807$ ,  $s = 476$ ), but within one standard deviation of the mean monthly entry salary for peace officers for larger departments (Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education, 1999). Consequently,

departments of 1 to 24 full-time employees can expect to pay slightly more to new officers with baccalaureate degrees should the Commission adopt a rule that would make a baccalaureate degree a minimum requirement for initial licensing of peace officers. See Table 2 – Mean Monthly Entry Salaries by Department Size. Agencies with 1 to 24 full-time employees can expect a rule making a baccalaureate degree a minimum requirement for initial licensing of peace officers to increase their labor costs \$90 to \$400 per officer per month.

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Table 2. Mean Monthly Entry Salaries by Department Size<sup>1</sup>

Full-Time Employees	Mean Monthly Entry Salary	Top Mean Monthly Salary for Line Officers
1 to 24	\$ 1,807	\$ 2,171
25 to 74	\$ 2,014	\$ 2,579
75 to 299	\$ 2,214	\$ 3,002
300 or More	\$ 2,443	\$ 3,368
All Departments	\$ 1,924	\$ 2,421

<sup>1</sup> Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education (1999).

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## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research over the past several years indicates that cynicism is on the rise in American business and industry. This rise in cynicism hurts competitiveness and the ability to accommodate organizational change (McNamara, 1999). Mirvis and Kanter (1989) found that 43 percent of American workers and 40 percent of managers were cynical. Only two years later, they found that the level of cynicism had grown to 48 percent (Mirvis and Kanter, 1991). They also made the following observations: (1) 65 percent of American workers agree that people will lie if they will gain from it; (2) 41 percent of workers doubt the truth of what management tells them; and (3) 49 percent say that management will take advantage of them if given a chance (Mirvis and Kanter, 1991:50, 52).

Goldner, Ritti, and Ference (1977) suggested that, as organizations became more complex, members of those organizations became more cynical. This argument does not bode well for law enforcement organizations that are rapidly becoming more complex as they struggle with increasing public expectations, dynamic technologies, judicial activism, and an increasingly diverse work force.

### Defining Cynicism

Cynicism is an attitude of contemptuous distrust of human nature and motives (Behrend, 1980). It is a complex sentiment that has three interlocking elements: (1) diffuse feelings of hate, envy, and hostility, (2) an inability to express those feelings toward the person or social structure evoking them, and (3) a continual experiencing of those feelings (Niederhoffer, 1967). A cynic is “one who believes that human conduct is motivated wholly by self-interest (Merriam-Webster, 1993: 323).”

Cultures, too, can be classified as cynical (McNamara, 1999). Adherents to that culture scoff at change efforts and management fads, and they tolerate shoddy service (Mirvis and Kanter, 1989). Cynical organizations are those that embody self-serving values, support managers who engage in deceptive and exploitative practices, and communicate in a one-sided and disingenuous manner with their employees (Mirvis and Kanter, 1991).

Law enforcement personnel are not immune from a sense of cynicism. Distorted media accounts of police related events, fiscal austerity, unfavorable court decisions, inefficient and outdated equipment, shift work, inadequate reward systems, and increased workloads all contribute to an officer's sense of cynicism (Pitter, 1994). Cynicism often adversely affects officers' productivity, influences the morale of their colleagues, and damages community relations. It tends to create a poor quality of life for the officers and their families, and, in

extreme cases, can lead to emotional problems, misconduct, brutality, and corruption (Graves, 1996).

A cynical attitude among police officers intensifies the need to maintain respect for the officer and the police service, and it fosters the need to assert authority (McManus, 1970). As the use of police authority escalates, officers' distrust of citizens increases (Hudson, 1970). This increased distrust, in turn, generates feelings of potential danger (McNamara, 1973). Consequently, police officers develop a paranoid outlook, becoming increasingly distrustful of peoples' motives (Toch, 1973).

Although one study shows that cynicism has little impact on police performance (Wilt and Bannon, 1976), another study shows that cynical law enforcement officers are more likely to be involved in hostile police-citizen encounters, display higher arrest rates, show more job dissatisfaction, and have poorer work relations with supervisors and peers (Regoli, Crank, and Rivera, 1990). A cynical officer expects nothing but the worst in human behavior. When the job repeatedly exposes them to the worst in people, police officers become desensitized, separating themselves from their personal and family lives (Keller, 2000). For these reasons and others, it is important to understand the complications for law enforcement that a college education requirement might create.

### Higher Education and Its Effect on Cynicism

In 1967, Arthur Niederhoffer published his seminal work on police cynicism, *Behind the Shield*. In that work, Niederhoffer developed a theory that cynicism was endemic to police work, and he tested 11 hypotheses related to the development of police cynicism. He attempted empirically to test that theory with officers of the New York Police Department. Niederhoffer believed that cynicism and professionalism were opposite ends of a continuum, and he developed his cynicism scale accordingly, attempting to define cynicism as a unitary concept. He developed a 20-item survey of multiple choice sentence completions that he gave to 220 New York City police officers and recruits to measure officers' levels of cynicism across several factors of the job. He found that patrol officers with two or more years of college education had significantly higher cynicism scores than the total population, but educated supervisors had lower scores than their less educated peers.

Niederhoffer argued that police officers stood in a dilemma posed by the divergent interests of commitment to professional goals and the more traditional values of the conservative old guard. This struggle, in which professionals imposed a new ideology on the department, undermined the norms and loyalties of the traditional regime, resulting in a transition period characterized by normlessness or anomie, especially in officers of the lowest rank (Rafky, 1975). He argued that the occupational adaptation to this anomie was cynicism. To Niederhoffer, cynicism was important because it, rather than open opposition, was the officers' means of revolting.

Although Niederhoffer's research and analysis identified a statistical difference in mean cynicism scores between college-educated and non college-educated officers, other researchers have questioned his results. Later research showed that cynicism was composed of distinct concepts and should no longer be defined as a unitary concept (Regoli, 1976b; Regoli and Poole, 1979; Lester, 1980; Regoli, Crank, Culbertson, and Poole, 1987a). Other researchers have attempted to apply the Niederhoffer scale, or some variant of it, to many populations, including nine small and medium-sized departments in the Pacific Northwest (Lotz and Regoli, 1977; Poole, Regoli, and Lotz, 1978; Regoli, 1976a; Regoli, 1976b; Regoli and Poole, 1978b; Regoli, Poole, and Hewitt, 1979a; Regoli, Poole, and Hewitt, 1979b), three-medium sized police departments in Washington state (Poole and Regoli, 1979), a small Midwestern police department (Regoli and Poole, 1978a), two departments in Colorado (Regoli, Crank, and Rivera, 1990), the Detroit Police Department (Wilt and Bannon, 1976), a medium-sized Northeastern city called Lake City (Rafky, 1975), and recruits in training academies (Rafky, Lawly, and Ingram, 1976).

Rafky (1975) surveyed all the officers of a thriving Northeastern industrial area of 198,000 according to the 1970 census. He gave this area the fictitious name of Lake City. Rafky's findings revealed that, contrary to Niederhoffer, cynicism is not endemic in officers of the lowest rank. He argued that cynicism was actually a product of two indices, cynicism about the public, and cynicism about the work. Rafky found that no significant relationships existed between

several selected factors that affect levels of frustration, such as education, rank, and social status, and cynicism as it pertained to police work.

Wilt and Bannon (1976) distributed Niederhoffer's survey to a random sample of 740 officers in the Detroit Police Department, and they used Niederhoffer's scoring scale so they could compare the results with those of the officers in New York. They found that scores based upon educational attributes of officers did not present any meaningful pattern. Wilt and Bannon argued that the Niederhoffer cynicism scale was not a measure of cynicism at all, but a measure of squad room rhetoric and the dogma of policing.

Regoli's tests of the nine Pacific Northwest departments (1976a; 1977) compared survey results from line and supervisory officers who had obtained 14 years of formal education or less to those with more than 14 years of formal education. He then made the same comparisons while controlling first for rank and then for department size. In six tests, Regoli isolated just two statistically significant differences – lower level personnel with fewer than 14 years of formal education were less cynical than personnel with 14 or more years of formal education, and all personnel in smaller agencies with fewer than 14 years of formal education were less cynical than personnel with 14 or more years of formal education.

To test their cynicism toward the judicial process, Weichman (1977) surveyed a stratified sample of 40 officers in the Evansville Indiana Police Department. The sample consisted of junior patrol officers, senior patrol officers, detectives/corporals, and sergeants. Weichman found that officers became less

cynical as they grew older, and that they became less cynical the longer they stayed on the police force. Moreover, officers at higher ranks were less cynical than were officers at lower ranks.

Regoli and Poole (1978a) conducted surveys of 324 officers in nine agencies in Washington and Idaho. They found that department size mattered when determining cynicism scores. Officers in larger departments indicated higher cynicism scores. Moreover, cynicism levels related to length of service appeared also to be interrelated to department size.

Regoli and Poole (1978b) also found some interesting contrasts in levels of cynicism among officers from varying organizational types, specifically municipal and county departments. The research findings show that, although the difference in overall scores is negligible, on the subscales of cynicism toward the public and cynicism toward dedication to duty, the score differences were significant. Municipal officers were significantly more cynical regarding attitudes about the public, while county officers were more cynical regarding dedication to duty. Additionally, the researchers found that, among city police officers the higher the advanced degree held, the less the overall cynicism and the less the cynicism toward the public. Among county police, these relationships did not hold. For county police, the higher the advanced degree, the greater the cynicism toward the police organization. That relationship did not hold for city officers. For city and county officers, however, higher advanced degrees correlated with lower cynicism scores regarding police solidarity and advanced education.

Anson, Mann, and Sherman (1986) surveyed 40 officers attending two separate training sessions at a metropolitan regional training academy in Georgia. They later compared the scores on the survey with results on supervisors' ratings of job performance for those officers. The researchers found that cynicism is a valued quality of the personality of peace officers, and the important individuals in police organizations evaluate it positively.

O'Connell, Holzman, and Arandi (1986) surveyed 418 officers across 19 precincts and commands in the New York police department. They found that officers who engaged in more complex tasks were less cynical toward police work than were officers who labored in less complex tasks. Additionally, they found an increase in work cynicism among officers who had not promoted within ten to fourteen years.

Regoli, Crank, and Rivera, Jr. (1990) conducted a survey of 110 officers during roll call in two departments in Colorado. The survey measured 16 items over four dimensions of cynicism: Rules, Legal System, Decision Makers, and Respect. The results indicated that cynicism is not a unitary concept, because some items related negatively with others. What the researchers did find was that officers who scored higher on the cynicism survey were more likely to be involved in hostile police-citizen encounters, to display higher arrest rates, to indicate more job satisfaction, and to have poorer work relations.

### Cynicism and Police Executives

Additional studies of executive officers yielded different results. In a study of 519 police chiefs in Illinois, a comparison of questionnaire responses from chiefs who had attained 14 or fewer years of formal education to responses from chiefs who had attained more than 14 years of formal education showed that the more educated executive officers were less cynical than were their less-educated peers, especially regarding their attitudes towards outsiders (Crank, Regoli, Poole, and Culbertson, 1986; Regoli, Culbertson, and Crank, 1991). A national survey consisting of a stratified random sample of 1120 police chiefs supported the researchers' conclusion that increased college education correlated with lower cynicism scores for executive officers (Regoli, Culbertson, Crank, and Powell, 1990).

Consequently, educational achievement and cynicism appear to be inversely related for line officers and positively related for executive officers, even if only modestly so. One possible reason is that line officers feel unrewarded for their level of education, while executive officers feel that education has helped to develop management and administrative skills necessary for the job (Crank, Culbertson, Poole, and Regoli, 1987). The question of whether educational achievement affects officers' cynicism, therefore, is still debatable.

### The Niederhoffer Cynicism Scale

To operationalize the concept of cynicism, Niederhoffer used a 20-item survey. In his scale, respondents selected one of three statement completions for each item. As an example, question 1 read:

The average police superior is:

- A. very interested in the welfare of his subordinates.
- B. somewhat concerned about the welfare of his subordinates.
- C. mostly concerned with his own problems.

In each item, the first response exemplified a professional view of law enforcement and was worth one point. The second response represented a centrist attitude and was worth three points. The third response emphasized a cynical view and was worth five points. Niederhoffer classified respondents with a composite score more than 60 points as cynics.

Although Niederhoffer's original scale presumed a unified concept of cynicism, subsequent research revealed that cynicism is multidimensional. Rafky (1975) identified two factors relating to components of cynicism, what he termed cyn-work, in which police work is denigrated, and cyn-public, or cynicism vis-à-vis the public. Regoli (1977) identified five factors relating to components of police cynicism: CYNPUB (cynicism toward relations with the public), CYNORG (cynicism toward organizational functions), CYNDED (cynicism about police dedication to duty), CYN SOL, (cynicism about police social solidarity), and CYNEDU (cynicism about training and education). In his classic study, he dismissed three items from the scale because they did not associate with any of the five subscales.

Critics of the Niederhoffer scale, most notably Langworthy (1987a; 1987b) claim that the instrument is not stable because repeated factor analysis fails to replicate the subscales, such as cynicism regarding the public or cynicism regarding dedication, across research settings. Langworthy, however, argues a theoretical perspective, and he offers no empirical evidence to support his argument. Supporters of the Niederhoffer scale claim that cynicism is endemic to the police occupation, and that the original items in the Niederhoffer scale are not designed to separate into discrete clusters (Regoli, Crank, and Rivera, 1990). They claim that cynicism springs from the confluence of events and people. Consequently, the factors defining cynicism are diverse and are not likely to replicate exactly across different test groups (Regoli, Crank, Culbertson, and Poole, 1987b). Moreover, Lester's four tests of the Niederhoffer cynicism scale show it to be reliable and valid in understanding officers' attitudes (1980).

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

Over the past decade, little research has focused on police officer cynicism as it relates to the new generation of officers who are beginning to fill the ranks. However, the possibility of a TCLEOSE rule mandating a baccalaureate degree as a minimum requirement for initial licensure means that law enforcement executives must learn whether such a rule may bring the unintended consequence of stifling productivity because it increases the levels of officer cynicism, and, consequently, job dissatisfaction. This study examines whether college-educated officers in the Austin Texas Police Department are more cynical than are their non college-educated peers.

This study reexamined the relationship between educational achievement and police cynicism by re-examining the relationship between educational achievement and Regoli's five components of cynicism: CYNPUB (cynicism toward relations with the public), CYNORG (cynicism toward organizational functions), CYNDED (cynicism about police dedication to duty), CYN SOL, (cynicism about police social solidarity), and CYNEDU (cynicism about training and education). Having obtained permission from the Chief of the Austin Police Department, the researcher distributed a survey to the officers in the Austin Texas Police Department. A copy of the memorandum requesting approval for

the survey, which Chief Knee initialed with his approval, is in Appendix A – Approval for Survey. Although the department had an authorized strength of 1358, 107 positions were vacant as of May 31, 2002 (Aguilar, 2002). Therefore, the researcher surveyed 1251 commissioned employees. The survey replicated the survey from Regoli's 1976 study, slightly reworded to fit the organizational structure of the Austin Texas Police Department. The survey requested from each officer basic demographic information, including: gender, race/ethnicity, age, marital status, educational achievement level, the officers' length of service, rank, time in grade, assignment, shift, number of sustained complaints, and prior military history. A copy of the survey is in Appendix B – Survey. Previous researchers had identified each of those demographics as possible correlates of officer cynicism. The researcher found it necessary, therefore, to control for each of the intervening variables, and educational achievement level served as the independent variable in this study.

The survey also contained seventeen statements designed to test the respondents' levels of cynicism. The statements consisted of Regoli's modified Niederhoffer cynicism scale clustered into five subscales: CYNPUB (cynicism toward relations with the public), CYNORG (cynicism toward organizational functions), CYNDED (cynicism about police dedication to duty), CYN SOL, (cynicism about police social solidarity), and CYNEDU (cynicism about training and education). Some of the statements on the survey were positive statements and some were negative statements. The respondents recorded their responses

on a Likert scale: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree.

The researcher divided the returned surveys into two groups: (1) non-supervisory officers (patrol officers, corporals and detectives), and (2) supervisory officers (sergeants, lieutenants, and commanders). Each of those groups was divided into three subgroups: (1) officers who have fewer than 61 college credit hours; (2) officers who have 61 college credit hours or more, but no degree; and (3) officers who have, at minimum, a baccalaureate degree. The researcher then matched samples from the returned surveys to control for the intervening variables of gender, race/ethnicity, age, marital status, length of service, rank, time in grade, assignment, shift, number of sustained complaints, and military history. The matching was completed without regard to the responses on the survey. The researcher then subjected the matched groups to chi-square and analysis of variance computations to ensure that no significant differences existed between the matched sample selections.

Once the samples were matched and verified, the researcher scored the responses to the survey questionnaire. All positive statements were tallied in the reverse to ensure a consistency of measurement, meaning that the more cynical the response, the higher the Likert scale score. A copy of the scoring instrument is in Appendix C – Survey Scoring Key. Consequently, the minimum (or least cynical) score for the cynicism scale was 17 points; the maximum (or most cynical) score was 85 points, and the median was 51 points. The CYNPUB subscale consisted of three statements, items 1 through 3. The minimum

CYNPUB score was 3 points, the maximum score was 15 points, and the median score was 9 points. The CYNORG subscale consisted of four statements, items 4 through 7. The minimum score was 4 points, the maximum score was 20 points, and the median score was 12 points. The CYNDED subscale consisted of four statements, items 8 through 11. The minimum score was 4 points, the maximum score was 20 points, and the median score was 12 points. The CYN SOL subscale consisted of four statements, items 12 through 15. The minimum score was 4 points, the maximum score was 20 points, and the median score was 12 points. The CYNEDU subscale consisted of two questions, items 16 and 17. The minimum score was 2 points, the maximum score was 10 points, and the median score was 6 points.

The researcher analyzed the variances of the scores first by the total scores, then by each subscale to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the scores within each group. One must be careful to remember, however, that the scale alone cannot determine a point total that signifies cynicism, because the concept of cynicism is not so determinate. The Neiderhoffer cynicism scale, however, can identify significantly different scores between the groups.

Based primarily on the results of previous research, the researcher proposes the following two hypotheses:

1. Non-supervisory officers who have a minimum of a baccalaureate degree will report higher cynicism scores than non-supervisory officers who have not obtained a degree.

2. Supervisory officers who have, at a minimum, a baccalaureate degree will report lower cynicism scores than supervisory officers who have not obtained a degree.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

By the stated deadline for responding, officers returned 426 of the 1251 surveys distributed. However, 17 of the surveys had errors that precluded their use in the analysis. Consequently, the useful return was 409 surveys, or 32.7% of the distribution. For non-supervisory officers (officers, corporals and detectives), 45.7 percent of the responses were in Group I (officers with fewer than 61 college hours of education), 18.9 percent were in Group II (officers with 61 college hours or more, but no degree), and 35.4 percent were in Group III (officers with at least a baccalaureate degree).

For supervisory officers, the return percentages were substantially different. For supervisory officers (sergeants, lieutenants and commanders), 30.9 percent were in Group IV (officers with fewer than 61 college hours of education), 25.9 percent were in Group V (officers with 61 college hours or more, but no college degree), and 43.2 percent were in Group VI (officers with at least a baccalaureate degree). It is interesting to note that the plurality of responses from non-supervisory officers, 45.7 percent, was in Group I (officers with fewer than 61 college hours of education), but the plurality of responses from supervisory officers, 43.2 percent, was in Group VI (officers with at least a baccalaureate degree). Chi-square for independence analysis, however, shows

that the differences are not statistically significant, based on percentage analysis ( $df = 2$ ,  $\chi^2 = 4.78$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  at  $\alpha = .05$ ).

The number of surveys returned in each group restricted the size of the matched samples available for the statistical analysis. For non-supervisory officers, the sample size consisted of 50 matched responses. For supervisory officers, the sample size consisted of 21 matched responses, the total number of responses in Group V. See Table 3 – Total Responses Received.

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Table 3. Total Responses Received

Non-Supervisory Officers			Supervisory Officers		
n = 328			n = 81		
Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV	Group V	Group VI
n = 150	n = 62	n = 116	n = 25	n = 21	n = 35
45.7%	18.9%	35.4%	30.9%	25.9%	43.2%

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### Results for Non-Supervisory Officers

The useful surveys from all non-supervisory officers were matched to ensure that there were no statistically significant differences between Group I, Group II, and Group III in any of the eleven variables: gender, race/ethnicity, age, marital status, length of service, rank, time in grade, assignment, shift, number of sustained complaints, and prior military history. Nonparametric variables of gender, race/ethnicity, marital status, rank, assignment, shift, number of sustained complaints, and prior military history were subjected to chi-square analysis. Parametric variables of age, length of service, and time in grade were

subjected to one-way analysis of variance (Fox, Levin, and Shively, 1999; Gravetter and Wallnau, 2000). The descriptive statistics on the matched non-supervisory officers' samples and the statistical analyses for each demographic category are included in Appendix D – Statistical Analysis for Non-Supervisory Officers' Matched Samples.

Each group contained responses from 41 males and 9 females.

Differences in the distributions relating to race/ethnicity ( $df = 10$ ,  $\chi^2 = 2.61$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), age ( $k = 3$ ,  $n = 150$ ,  $F = 0.1457$ ,  $p = 0.865$ ), marital status ( $df = 4$ ,  $\chi^2 = 0.17$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), length of service ( $K = 3$ ,  $n = 150$ ,  $F = 1.298$ ,  $p = 0.276$ ), rank ( $df = 4$ ,  $\chi^2 = 0.66$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), time in grade ( $K = 3$ ,  $n = 150$ ,  $F = 0.9837$ ,  $p = 0.376$ ), assignment ( $df = 8$ ,  $\chi^2 = 4.25$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), shift ( $df = 6$ ,  $\chi^2 = 4.79$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), complaint history ( $df = 6$ ,  $\chi^2 = 5.72$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), and military history ( $df = 2$ ,  $\chi^2 = 0.48$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ) were not significant.

The scores on the modified Niederhoffer cynicism index were analyzed through a one-way ANOVA, testing the composite scores and the scores from each of the five subscales. Significant differences were tested for validity with Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) post hoc test.

Hypothesis:

H<sub>1</sub> – Non-supervisory officers who have a minimum of a baccalaureate degree will report higher cynicism scores than non-supervisory officers who have not obtained a degree.

### Null Hypothesis:

$H_0$  – Non-supervisory officers who have a minimum of a baccalaureate degree will not report higher cynicism scores than non-supervisory officers who have not obtained a degree.

### Statistical Tests:

#### *Composite Scores: Non-Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group I	33-62	49.8	5.89
Group II	39-66	48.9	5.94
Group III	36-61	46.6	5.81

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	271.6	2	135.8	3.923	0.022
Error	5087	147	34.61		
Total	5359	149			

The distribution is significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

#### Tukey's Post Hoc Test

	Group II	Group III
Group I	q = 1.08	*q = 3.85
Group II		q = 2.76

\*Significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The composite cynicism scores between Group I and Group III are significant, but in the opposite direction from the hypothesis. Group III scores are significantly lower than Group I. The scores between Group I and Group II are not significantly different, nor are the scores between Group II and Group III.

*CYNPUB Scores: Non-Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group I	4-13	9.08	1.82
Group II	4-13	9.16	2.09
Group III	6-12	8.76	1.96

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	4.480	2	2.240	0.5823	0.560
Error	565.5	147	3.847		
Total	570.0	149			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

*CYNORG Scores: Non-Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group I	8-18	13.4	2.50
Group II	8-18	13.2	2.46
Group III	8-20	12.5	2.55

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	22.33	2	11.17	1.783	0.172
Error	920.7	147	6.263		
Total	943.0	149			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

*CYNDED Scores: Non-Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group I	5-16	9.42	1.86
Group II	4-15	9.16	1.86
Group III	6-17	9.36	1.95

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	1.853	2	0.9267	0.2598	0.772
Error	524.4	147	3.567		
Total	526.3	149			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

*CYNSOL Scores: Non-Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group I	8-18	11.4	2.37
Group II	7-18	11.1	2.41
Group III	7-15	10.5	2.41

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	20.52	2	10.26	1.778	0.173
Error	848.4	147	5.772		
Total	868.9	149			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$

*CYNEDU Scores: Non-Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group I	4-10	6.48	1.07
Group II	4-9	6.12	1.27
Group III	3-9	5.48	1.31

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	25.65	2	12.83	8.561	0.001
Error	220.2	147	1.498		
Total	245.9	149			

The distribution is significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

## Tukey's Post Hoc Test

	Group II	Group III
Group I	q = 2.08	*q = 5.78
Group II		*q = 3.69

\*Significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The CYNEDU scores of Group III are significantly different from the scores of Group I and Group II, but in the opposite direction from the hypothesis. Group

III scores are significantly lower than Group I and Group II. Group I and Group II scores are not significantly different.

#### Conclusion:

The researcher cannot reject the null hypothesis, because non-supervisory officers who have a minimum of a baccalaureate degree did not report higher cynicism scores than non-supervisory officers who have not obtained a degree. However, the responses indicate that the opposite is true. Non-supervisory officers who have a minimum of a baccalaureate degree reported significantly lower composite cynicism and CYNEDU scores than non-supervisory officers who have not obtained a degree.

#### Results for Supervisory Officers

The useful surveys from all supervisory officers were matched to ensure that there were no statistically significant differences between Group IV, Group V, and Group VI in any of the eleven variables: gender, race/ethnicity, age, marital status, length of service, rank, time in grade, assignment, shift, number of sustained complaints, and prior military history. Nonparametric variables of gender, race/ethnicity, marital status, rank, assignment, shift, number of sustained complaints, and prior military history were subjected to chi-square analysis. Parametric variables of age, length of service, and time in grade were

subjected to one-way analysis of variance (Fox, Levin, and Shively, 1999; Gravetter and Wallnau, 2000). The descriptive statistics on the matched non-supervisory officers' samples and the statistical analyses for each demographic category are included in Appendix E – Statistical Analysis for Supervisory Officers' Matched Samples.

Each group contained responses from 19 males and 2 females.

Differences in the distributions relating to race/ethnicity ( $df = 4$ ,  $\chi^2 = 4.11$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), age ( $k = 3$ ,  $n = 63$ ,  $F = 0.0588$ ,  $p = 0.943$ ), marital status ( $df = 4$ ,  $\chi^2 = 2.26$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), length of service ( $K = 3$ ,  $n = 63$ ,  $F = 0.0879$ ,  $p = 0.916$ ), rank ( $df = 4$ ,  $\chi^2 = 6.78$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), time in grade ( $K = 3$ ,  $n = 63$ ,  $F = 1.355$ ,  $p = 0.266$ ), assignment ( $df = 8$ ,  $\chi^2 = 6.68$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), shift ( $df = 6$ ,  $\chi^2 = 7.22$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), complaint history ( $df = 6$ ,  $\chi^2 = 2.02$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ), and military history ( $df = 2$ ,  $\chi^2 = 2.34$ ,  $\alpha = .05$ ) were not significant.

The scores from the surveys were analyzed through a one-way ANOVA, testing the composite scores and the scores from each of the five subscales of the three groups. Significant differences were tested for validity through Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) post hoc test.

Hypothesis:

$H_2$  = Supervisory officers who have, at a minimum, a baccalaureate degree will report lower cynicism scores than supervisory officers who have not obtained a degree.

Null Hypothesis:

$H_0$  = Supervisory officers who have a minimum of a baccalaureate degree will not report lower cynicism scores than supervisory officers who have not obtained a degree.

Statistical Tests:

*Composite Scores: Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group IV	34-55	45.5	5.95
Group V	39-63	48.1	6.22
Group VI	33-58	44.6	5.71

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	141.8	2	70.92	1.995	0.145
Error	2133	60	35.55		
Total	2275	62			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

*CYNPUB Scores: Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group IV	5-13	8.14	2.15
Group V	4-13	8.52	2.11
Group VI	5-13	8.00	1.67

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	3.079	2	1.540	0.3885	0.680
Error	237.8	60	3.963		
Total	240.9	62			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

*CYNORG Scores: Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group IV	9-17	13.3	2.31
Group V	12-18	14.7	1.91
Group VI	9-20	13.4	2.54

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	24.22	2	12.11	2.359	0.103
Error	308.1	60	5.135		
Total	332.3	62			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

*CYNDED Scores: Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group IV	5-13	8.52	1.72
Group V	6-17	8.86	2.54
Group VI	4-11	8.76	1.64

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	1.238	2	0.619	0.1537	0.858
Error	241.6	60	4.027		
Total	242.9	62			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

*CYNSOL Scores: Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group IV	6-17	9.81	2.42
Group V	6-14	9.67	2.42
Group VI	6-13	9.81	2.11

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	0.2857	2	0.1429	0.0265	0.974
Error	323.1	60	5.386		
Total	323.4	62			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

*CYNEDU Scores: Supervisory Officers*

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group IV	4-8	5.95	0.92
Group V	5-8	6.43	0.81
Group VI	3-10	5.00	1.58

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	22.22	2	11.11	8.323	0.001
Error	80.10	60	1.335		
Total	102.3	62			

The distribution is significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

Tukey's Post Hoc Test

	Group V	Group VI
Group IV	q = -1.90	*q = 3.77
Group V		*q = 5.67

\*Significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The differences in CYNEDU scores between Group IV and Group VI and between Group V and Group VI are significant. Group VI scores are significantly lower than Group IV and Group V. Group IV and Group V scores are not significantly different.

Conclusion:

The researcher rejects the null hypothesis. Supervisory officers who have, at a minimum, a baccalaureate degree reported lower CYNEDU scores than supervisory officers who have not obtained a degree. However, no other significant differences were found.

## Discussion of Results

The study discovered three statically significant differences:

1. Non-supervisory officers who had at least a baccalaureate degree displayed significantly lower composite cynicism scores than did their peers who had fewer than 61 college hours.
2. Non-supervisory officers who had at least a baccalaureate degree displayed significantly lower cynicism scores regarding training and education (CYNEDU) than did non-supervisory officers who had fewer than 61 college hours and non-supervisory officers who had 61 or more hours of college, but who did not have a degree.
3. Supervisory officers who had at least a baccalaureate degree displayed significantly lower cynicism scores regarding training and education (CYNEDU) than did their peers who had fewer than 61 college hours and supervisory officers who had 61 or more hours of college, but who did not have a degree.

Other notable results were found in the responses to the survey. Although the Niederhoffer index cannot define a point at which an officer becomes cynical, it is interesting to note that the composite score means for all six groups were lower than the composite median of 51 for the index. Group I had the highest composite mean score of 49.8, and Group VI had the lowest composite mean score of 44.6. This same result was apparent in analyzing the responses to the

dedication (CYNDED) and police solidarity (CYNSOL) subscales. All six groups recorded score means lower than the median of 12 on those subscales.

The opposite result was evident, however, when comparing the scores regarding the administration of the organization (CYNORG). All six groups recorded score means higher than the median score of 12 for that subscale. Results regarding cynicism toward the public (CYNPUB) and education and training (CYNEDEU) were mixed. Group I and Group II reported score means slightly higher than the median score of 9 for the CYNPUB subscale, and Groups III, IV, V, and VI recorded means lower than the median. Groups I, II and V reported score means slightly higher than the median score of 6 for the CYNEDEU subscale, and Group III, IV, and VI reported score means slightly lower than the median.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSIONS

This study raises questions about whether previous research regarding the cynicism level of law enforcement officers is applicable to the new generation of police. Niederhoffer (1967) found that patrol officers with two or more years of college education had significantly higher cynicism scores than the total population, but that educated supervisors had lower scores than their less educated peers. This study, however, found that patrol officers, corporals, and detectives with college degrees had significantly lower composite cynicism scores than their peers who had fewer than 61 hours, or approximately two years, of college education. Additionally, this study found no significant difference in the composite scores of the sergeants, lieutenants, and commanders.

Rafky (1975) and Wilt and Bannon (1976) found that cynicism scores based upon educational attributes of officers did not present any meaningful patterns. This study, however, shows a correlation between education level and cynicism levels of both non-supervisory and supervisory officers. That correlation, however, is limited to composite scores for non-supervisory officers and to CYNEDU scores for both non-supervisory and supervisory officers.

Regoli (1976a; 1977) isolated two statistically significant differences – lower level personnel with fewer than 14 years of formal education were less cynical than personnel with 14 or more years of formal education, and all personnel in smaller agencies with fewer than 14 years of formal education were less cynical than personnel with 14 or more years of formal education. This study found the opposite. Lower level officers with a college degree had significantly lower composite scores than did lower level officers who had fewer than 61 hours of college education, or approximately 14 years of formal education, and there was no significant difference in the composite scores of supervisory officers.

Regoli and Poole (1978b) found that, among municipal police officers, the higher the advanced degree held, the lower the overall cynicism scores and the lower the cynicism toward the public scores. For all officers, however, the higher the advanced degree earned, the less the cynicism toward police solidarity and advanced education. This study confirmed two of the findings. First, lower echelon officers with at least a baccalaureate degree had significantly lower composite cynicism scores than did lower echelon officers with fewer than 61 hours of college education. Second, both non-supervisory and supervisory officers had significantly lower cynicism scores regarding advanced education than did their non-degreed peers. This study found no significant difference in scores regarding police solidarity.

Of course, it is not surprising that officers who have completed their degrees, or who have pursued a post-graduate education, are less cynical about

the benefits of a college education than are non-degreed officers. Most people will believe that the time and money they spend to obtain their degree is beneficial and enhances their job performance. Research by Kakar and Krimmel supports that assumption. Whether that self-assessment is accurate, however, is a question for additional research.

Additional research is also necessary to test whether the results of this study apply to smaller municipal departments or to other types of departments, such as county or state agencies. Regoli and Poole found that cynicism results might vary with department type and size.

More importantly, additional research is necessary to determine whether researchers should dispossess themselves of the myth of the cynical law enforcement officer. Since the 1960s, researchers and scholars have accepted, almost as dogma, that police officers have an inherent distrust of the public, the courts, and the media. As this study shows, however, the mean composite scores and the scores for the CYNDED and CYN SOL subscales in all six categories of officers were below the medians for the scale. Only the scores for the subscale measuring cynicism regarding the organization, CYNORG, were higher than the scale median for all six categories. Such a result indicates that police officers in the Austin Police Department are not as cynical as one commonly expects police officers to be. Additional research is necessary to test police officers' relative to non-police and non-public employees. It may be true that police officers are not as cynical as the public they serve.

## APPENDIX A

### Approval for Survey



*Approved*  
*Chief K*

## MEMORANDUM

### **Austin Police Department** *Northeast Area Command*

**TO:** Chief of Police Stanley L. Knee  
**FROM:** Commander Howard Williams 135 *HW*  
**DATE:** March 28, 2002  
**SUBJECT:** Request to Conduct a Survey Study

I am requesting your permission to distribute a survey questionnaire to the officers of the Austin Police Department. This survey is part of the research for the master's thesis that I will write this summer. The survey is intended to measure the effect of educational achievement on officer cynicism. Attached for your review is a draft of the survey instrument I will use.

In 2000, the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education researched a proposal to require officers, by 2010, to have a baccalaureate degree as a minimum requirement for initial licensure. In its report to the Commission regarding the proposal, the Education Committee cited a 1977 study by Dr. Robert Regoli. That study indicated that college-educated officers tend to be more cynical than their non college-educated peers were. My study is designed to test whether, a generation later, that conclusion applies to the officers of the Austin Police Department.

With your permission, I will distribute the survey instruments in June. Officers can complete the survey in fewer than ten minutes and return them via inner-office mail. The responses will be confidential, but I will provide you with a copy of the results and the thesis upon completion of the project.

Xc: Asst. Chief James Fealy

## APPENDIX B

### Survey

## All Responses Are Confidential

Please complete both sides of the form and return it via inter-office mail.

Commander Howard Williams is conducting this survey as part of the research for his master's thesis. All responses are confidential, and participation in this survey is **voluntary**. Please check the adjacent box to indicate that: (1) you agree voluntarily to participate in this study, and (2) you understand that completing this survey is **not** a requirement of your official duties with the Austin Police Department.

**Gender:** Male  Female

**Race/Ethnicity:** Anglo  African-American  Hispanic   
Asian  American Indian  Other

**Age:** \_\_\_\_\_ Years of Age

**Marital Status:** Single  Married  Divorced

**Education Level:** High School/GED  1 to 30 Hours College   
31 to 60 Hours College  61 to 90 Hours College   
90+ Hours College  Baccalaureate Degree   
Graduate Hours  Graduate Degree

**Length of Service:** \_\_\_\_\_ Years

**Rank:** Officer  Corporal  Detective  Sergeant   
Lieutenant  Commander  Asst. Chief

**Time in Grade:** \_\_\_\_\_ Years

**Assignment:** Patrol  Investigations  Tactical   
Support  Administration

**Shift:** Days  Evenings  Nights  Rotating

**Total Sustained IA Complaints:** 0  1  2  3+

**Military History:** None  1-3 Years  4-6 Years   
7-9 Years  10 Years or More

Please mark one box for each statement below to indicate your responses.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The public shows a lot of respect for police.					
2. The public is more apt to obstruct police work, if they can, than to cooperate.					
3. The news media, in general, try to help police departments by giving prominent coverage to items favorable to the police.					
4. When you get to know the department from the inside, you begin to feel that it is a wonder it does one half as well as it does.					
5. The rules and regulations of police work are fair and sensible in regulating conduct on and off duty.					
6. The majority of special assignments in the police department depend on whom you know, not on merit.					
7. Police officers have a peculiar view of human nature because of the misery and cruelty they see every day.					
8. The average police supervisor is very interested in his/her subordinates.					
9. The average arrest is made because the police officer is dedicated to perform his/her duty properly.					
10. The best arrests are made as a result of hard work and intelligent dedication to duty.					
11. The average police officer is dedicated to the high ideals of police service and would not hesitate to perform police duty even though he/she may have to work overtime.					
12. The average departmental complaint is the result of the pressure on superiors from higher authority to give out complaints.					
13. Police academy training of recruits might as well be cut in half.					
14. When a police officer appears for a disciplinary review board, he/she will probably be disciplined even when he/she has a good defense.					
15. When testifying in court, police officers are treated as criminals when they take the witness stand.					
16. A college degree as a requirement for appointment to the police department would result in a much more efficient police department.					
17. The youth problem is best handled by police officers who are trained in a social service approach.					

Thank you for your assistance. Please return surveys to Cmdr. Howard Williams at the North Sub-Station. Your responses will remain confidential, but the tabulated results will be available upon request.

## APPENDIX C

### Survey Grading Key

<b>Please mark one box for each statement below to indicate your responses.</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
1. The public shows a lot of respect for police	5	4	3	2	1
2. The public is more apt to obstruct police work, if they can, than to cooperate.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The news media, in general, try to help police departments by giving prominent coverage to items favorable to the police.	5	4	3	2	1
4. When you get to know the department from the inside, you begin to feel that it is a wonder it does one half as well as it does.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The rules and regulations of police work are fair and sensible in regulating conduct on and off duty.	5	4	3	2	1
6. The majority of special assignments in the police department depend on whom you know, not on merit.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Police officers have a peculiar view of human nature because of the misery and cruelty they see every day.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The average police supervisor is very interested in his/her subordinates	5	4	3	2	1
9. The average arrest is made because the police officer is dedicated to perform his/her duty properly	5	4	3	2	1
10. The best arrests are made as a result of hard work and intelligent dedication to duty.	5	4	3	2	1
11. The average police officer is dedicated to the high ideals of police service and would not hesitate to perform police duty even though he/she may have to work overtime.	5	4	3	2	1
12. The average departmental complaint is the result of the pressure on superiors from higher authority to give out complaints.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Police academy training of recruits might as well be cut in half.	1	2	3	4	5
14. When a police officer appears for a disciplinary review board, he/she will probably be disciplined even when he/she has a good defense.	1	2	3	4	5
15. When testifying in court, police officers are treated as criminals when they take the witness stand.	1	2	3	4	5
16. A college degree as a requirement for appointment to the police department would result in a much more efficient police department.	5	4	3	2	1
17. The youth problem is best handled by police officers who are trained in a social service approach.	1	2	3	4	5

## APPENDIX D

### Statistical Analysis for Non-Supervisory Officer Matched Samples

#### Descriptive Statistics: Non-Supervisory Officer Sample

	Group I	Group II	Group III
<b>Gender</b>			
Male	41	41	41
Female	9	9	9
<b>Race/Ethnicity</b>			
White	32	31	31
African-American	8	8	6
Hispanic	8	9	10
Asian	0	1	1
American-Indian	1	0	1
Other	1	1	1
<b>Age</b>			
Range	21-53	24-52	24-52
Mean	36.6	35.8	36.0
Standard Deviation	8.17	7.19	7.10
<b>Marital Status</b>			
Married	32	32	32
Single	13	12	12
Divorced	5	6	6
<b>Length of Service</b>			
Range	1-24	1-23	1-27
Mean	10.3	8.5	8.4
Standard Deviation	7.27	6.75	6.63
<b>Rank</b>			
Officer	35	35	32
Corporal	2	2	3
Detective	13	13	15
<b>Time in Grade</b>			
Range	1-23	1-22	1-22
Mean	6.1	4.7	4.7
Standard Deviation	6.18	5.43	5.14

Assignment			
Patrol	31	31	28
Investigations	13	13	14
Tactical	2	2	2
Support	4	4	4
Administration	0	0	2
Shift			
Days	35	26	30
Evenings	8	12	13
Nights	6	11	6
Rotating	1	1	1
Internal Affairs Complaints			
0	37	38	30
1	7	4	11
2	2	4	5
3+	4	4	4
Military History			
Yes	29	29	26
No	21	21	24

Gender Computation: Non-Supervisory Officers\*

	Male	Female
Group I	41	9
Group II	41	9
Group III	41	9

\*Because the categories were identical, no statistical analysis was necessary.

Race/Ethnicity Computation: Non-Supervisory Officers

	White	African-American	Hispanic	Asian	American Indian	Other	Total
Group I	32	8	8	0	1	1	50
Group II	31	8	9	1	0	1	50
Group III	31	6	10	1	1	1	50
Total	94	22	27	2	2	3	150

df = 10,  $\chi^2 = 2.61$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 18.31$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

Age Computation: Non-Supervisory Officers

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group I	21-53	36.6	8.17
Group II	24-52	35.8	7.19
Group III	24-52	36.0	7.10

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	16.41	2	8.207	0.1457	0.865
Error	8280	147	56.33		
Total	8296	149			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

Marital Status Computation: Non-Supervisory Officers

	Married	Single	Divorced	Total
Group I	32	13	5	50
Group II	32	12	6	50
Group III	32	12	6	50
Total	96	37	17	150

df = 4,  $\chi^2 = 0.18$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 9.49$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

Length of Service Computation: Non-Supervisory Officers

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group I	1-24	10.3	7.27
Group II	1-23	8.5	6.75
Group III	1-27	8.3	6.63

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	123.2	2	61.62	1.298	0.276
Error	6979	147	47.48		
Total	7102	149			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

Rank Computation: Non-Supervisory Officers

	Officer	Corporal	Detective	Total
Group I	35	2	13	50
Group II	35	2	13	50
Group III	32	3	15	50
Total	102	7	41	150

df = 4,  $\chi^2 = 0.66$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 9.49$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

Time in Grade Analysis: Non-Supervisory Officers

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group I	1-23	6.1	6.18
Group II	1-22	4.7	5.43
Group III	1-22	4.7	5.14

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	61.69	2	30.85	0.9837	0.376
Error	4610	147	31.36		
Total	4671	149			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

Assignment Computation: Non-Supervisory Officers

	Patrol	Investigations	Tactical	Support	Administration	Total
Group I	31	13	2	4	0	50
Group II	31	13	2	4	0	50
Group III	28	14	2	4	2	50
Total	90	40	6	12	2	150

df = 8,  $\chi^2 = 4.25$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 15.51$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

Shift Computation: Non-Supervisory Officers

	Days	Evenings	Nights	Rotating	Total
Group I	35	8	6	1	50
Group II	26	12	11	1	50
Group III	30	13	6	1	50
Total	91	33	23	3	150

df = 6,  $\chi^2 = 4.79$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 12.59$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

Complaint History Computation: Non-Supervisory Officers

	0	1	2	3+	Total
Group I	37	7	2	4	50
Group II	38	4	4	4	50
Group III	30	11	5	4	50
Total	105	22	11	12	150

df = 6,  $\chi^2 = 5.72$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 12.59$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

Military History Computation: Non-Supervisory Officers

	Yes	No	Total
Group I	29	21	50
Group II	29	21	50
Group III	26	24	50
Total	84	66	150

df = 2,  $\chi^2 = 0.49$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

## APPENDIX E

### Statistical Analysis for Supervisory Officer Matched Samples

#### Descriptive Statistics: Non-Supervisory Officer Sample

	Group IV	Group V	Group VI
<b>Gender</b>			
Male	19	19	19
Female	2	2	2
<b>Race/Ethnicity</b>			
White	18	16	17
African-American	1	0	2
Hispanic	2	5	2
<b>Age</b>			
Range	36-55	36-53	34-53
Mean	44.4	44.5	44.9
Median	44.0	44.0	46.0
Standard Deviation	4.95	5.11	5.27
<b>Marital Status</b>			
Married	19	18	16
Single	1	1	3
Divorced	1	2	2
<b>Length of Service</b>			
Range	10-31	7-32	8-28
Mean	19.5	19.7	19.0
Median	18.0	20.0	18.0
Standard Deviation	4.9	5.3	5.7
<b>Rank</b>			
Sergeant	19	12	13
Lieutenant	1	7	6
Commander	1	2	2
<b>Time in Grade</b>			
Range	1-11	1-10	1-16
Mean	4.2	4.0	5.6
Median	4.0	4.0	5.0
Standard Deviation	2.8	2.4	4.5

Assignment			
Patrol	11	7	13
Investigations	3	5	4
Tactical	1	0	1
Support	5	8	3
Administration	1	1	0
Shift			
Days	13	15	18
Evenings	3	5	2
Nights	4	1	1
Rotating	1	0	0
Internal Affairs Complaints			
0	14	12	12
1	4	5	5
2	2	3	4
3+	1	1	0
Military History			
Yes	8	8	4
No	13	13	17

Gender Computation: Supervisory Officers\*

	Male	Female
Group IV	19	2
Group V	19	2
Group VI	19	2

\*Because the categories were identical, no statistical analysis was necessary.

Race/Ethnicity Computation: Supervisory Officers

	White	African-American	Hispanic	Total
Group IV	18	1	2	21
Group V	16	0	5	21
Group VI	17	2	2	21
Total	51	3	9	63

df = 4,  $\chi^2 = 4.11$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 9.49$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .  
The distribution is not significant.

Age Computation: Supervisory Officers

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group IV	36-55	44.4	4.95
Group V	36-53	44.5	5.11
Group VI	34-53	44.9	5.27

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	3.079	2	1.540	0.0588	0.943
Error	1570	60	26.17		
Total	1573	62			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

Marital Status Computation: Supervisory Officers

	Married	Single	Divorced	Total
Group IV	19	1	1	21
Group V	18	1	2	21
Group VI	16	3	2	21
Total	53	5	5	63

df = 4,  $\chi^2 = 2.26$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 9.49$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

Length of Service Computation: Supervisory Officers

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group IV	10-31	19.5	4.85
Group V	7-32	19.7	5.29
Group VI	8-28	19.0	5.74

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	4.952	2	2.476	0.00879	0.916
Error	1690	60	28.17		
Total	1695	62			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

### Rank Computation: Supervisory Officers

	Sergeant	Lieutenant	Commander	Total
Group IV	19	1	1	21
Group V	12	7	2	21
Group VI	13	6	2	21
Total	44	14	5	63

df = 4,  $\chi^2 = 6.78$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 9.49$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .  
The distribution is not significant.

### Time in Grade Analysis: Supervisory Officers

	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Group IV	1-11	4.2	2.83
Group V	1-10	4.0	2.35
Group VI	1-16	5.6	4.46

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between	30.13	2	15.06	1.355	0.266
Error	667.0	60	11.12		
Total	697.1	62			

The distribution is not significant at  $\alpha = .05$ .

### Assignment Computation: Supervisory Officers

	Patrol	Investigations	Tactical	Support	Administration	Total
Group IV	11	3	1	5	1	21
Group V	7	5	0	8	1	21
Group VI	13	4	1	3	0	21
Total	31	12	2	16	2	63

df = 8,  $\chi^2 = 6.68$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 15.51$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .  
The distribution is not significant.

Shift Computation: Supervisory Officers

	Days	Evenings	Nights	Rotating	Total
Group IV	13	3	4	1	21
Group V	15	5	1	0	21
Group VI	18	2	1	0	21
Total	46	10	6	1	63

Df = 6,  $\chi^2 = 7.23$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 12.59$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

Complaint History Computation: Supervisory Officers

	0	1	2	3+	Total
Group IV	14	4	2	1	21
Group V	12	5	3	1	21
Group VI	12	5	4	0	21
Total	38	14	9	2	63

df = 6,  $\chi^2 = 2.02$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 12.59$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

Military History Computation: Supervisory Officers

	Yes	No	Total
Group IV	8	13	21
Group V	8	13	21
Group VI	4	17	21
Total	20	43	63

df = 2,  $\chi^2 = 2.34$ , significant  $\chi^2 = 5.99$  at  $\alpha = .05$ .

The distribution is not significant.

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