Promoting the moral and conceptual development of law enforcement officers: A deliberate psychological educational approach

Barbara M. Morgan
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PROMOTING THE MORAL AND CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT
OF LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS:
A DELIBERATE PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATIONAL APPROACH

A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of the School of Education
The College of William and Mary in Virginia

In Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

by

Barbara M. Morgan

April 1998
PROMOTING THE MORAL AND CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT
OF LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS:
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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to Frank Morgan, my husband, partner, and best friend. His unwaivering support and encouragement have enabled me to face enormous personal and professional challenges with humor and sanity. Frank’s best quality is his ability to quietly listen as I process my angst and my sometimes “half baked” plans for the future. He selflessly supported my academic efforts, which involved becoming the family banker, postman, cook, chauffeur, and emotional support system. Frank’s willingness to invite me onto his “turf” to conduct this research required patience and a tremendous effort to recreate his criminal justice course to accommodate my intervention. Furthermore, he spent many hours proofreading my work and offering suggestions for improvement. Above all, Frank introduced me to a life philosophy many years ago that literally changed my life’s path. I can only offer Frank my sincerest thanks and unconditional love in return for his many gifts.

Finally, I would like to express my thanks and appreciation to my daughters Rachel, Erin, and Brittany, three wonderful children who, for the past ten years, have patiently waited for their mother to achieve her dream. Their patience involved going to bed some nights without a kiss from mom and eating leftovers when I took a late class. Amazingly, they never complained, yet enthusiastically embraced my return home and our special moments together. In many ways, this achievement is bittersweet, because it has involved the sacrifice of an entire family; however, I am fortunate that this particular family is filled with giving, supporting, and loving members. The benefit of this educational experience has been my personal and professional growth. I intend to use these to bring my best self to my husband and children, who will, no doubt, someday call on me as they embark on their own journeys.
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PROMOTING THE MORAL AND CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT OF LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS: A DELIBERATE PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATIONAL APPROACH

ABSTRACT

The history of ethical problems and corruption in American law enforcement is well documented. Current law enforcement training lacks a focus on ethics training and is in need of modifications which would include a greater emphasis on ethics education. This study drew on cognitive developmental theory, specifically applied to the domains of moral and conceptual development, to create and implement an educational program for police officers and students in criminal justice. The Deliberate Psychological Education model provided the framework for this educational program designed to promote development of moral reasoning and conceptual complexity among law enforcement trainees and criminal justice students. In addition, self-monitoring theory provided an auxiliary framework to further understanding about possible additional components of moral behavior and conceptual complexity and the relationship between tendency to conform to group expectations and moral development and conceptual complexity.

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Promoting the Moral and Conceptual Development
of Law Enforcement Officers:
A Deliberate Psychological Educational Approach
Chapter One

Introduction

Description of Problem

The history of ethical problems and corruption in American law enforcement is well documented (Armao & Cornfeld, 1993; Barker, 1983; Barker & Carter, 1990; Dombrink, 1988; Hale, 1989; Klockars, 1984; Norris & Norris, 1993; Schmalleger, 1997). Police corruption is "loosely identified in the literature as deviant, dishonest, improper, unethical, or criminal behavior by a police officer" (Roebuck & Barker, 1974, p. 423). Roebuck and Barker (1974) cited eight types of police corruption: 1) corruption of authority (receiving unauthorized material gain through position as a police officer, e.g., free meals, sex, discounts on merchandise); 2) kickbacks (services or money for referring business, e.g., to towing companies, lawyers, bondsmen); 3) opportunistic theft (from arrestees, victims, crime scenes, and unprotected property); 4) shakedowns (accepting a bribe for not making an arrest); 5) protection of illegal activities (vice operations pertaining to gambling, illegal drug sales, prostitution, etc. frequently exist as police protected enterprises); 6) the fix (the fixer in criminal cases is often a police officer who may tamper with evidence or give perjured testimony); 7) direct criminal activities (police directly commit crimes against people or property for material gain or for other reasons such as racism); 8) internal payoffs (officers who administer the distribution of assignments and personnel may collect fees for assigning officers to certain divisions, details or shifts).

The earliest systematic, well-documented study of police ethics was the Prohibition
era's Wickersham Commission Report (1931) on New York City police corruption. It found corruption rampant and suggested that legislating morality (e.g., passing vice laws) actually creates a context that thrusts police officers into moral dilemmas (Cole & Smith, 1995). Vice crimes are often viewed as victimless crimes. Therefore, anti-drug or anti-prostitution laws may set up a situation where police officers "look the other way" or receive remuneration for non-enforcement. Dombrink (1988) maintained that for the entire existence of the urban American police force, vice-related situations have presented opportunities for corruption. Since that time, vice laws and many other sources of moral dilemmas for police officers have increased.

In 1973, the Knapp Commission found police corruption to be systematic and pervasive (Braziller, 1973). Barker (1983) found that all of the subjects in his study (171 police officers from 91 American police forces) believed that corruption existed in their police organization. Dombrink (1988) described "a recent wave of police corruption" citing several incidents of corruption: thirty-one Philadelphia police officers were convicted as the Philadelphia Inquirer referred to the city as a "petri dish for corruption;" several members of New York City's 77th Precinct were indicted after they were suspected of extortion; Boston officers were convicted of activities including receipt of payoffs; San Francisco officers were involved with prostitutes; and the onslaught of drug importation in Miami facilitated the running of a drug distribution enterprise by Miami police officers (p.201). More recently, the 1993 Mollen Commission report confirmed findings of police corruption, and well-publicized incidents involving police brutality, police racism, and police lying have again brought police corruption and moral issues
confronting police officers to the forefront (Armao & Cornfeld, 1993; Schmalleger, 1997).

Even in the face of decades of such findings, "training in police ethics is still not well integrated into more basic law enforcement training programs, but a movement in that direction has begun, and calls for expanded training in ethics are on the increase" (Schmalleger, 1997, p. 187). However, as of July, 1995, California's POST (Police Officers Standards and Training) Program, which serves as a model for basic police academies throughout the United States, only has one mention of ethics in its 664 hour curriculum (Schmalleger, 1997). Furthermore, Jackson, Breymann, Robin, and Robin (1986) stated ethics codes and training for police officers are perceived to be ineffective. They also asserted that unethical behavior among police officers tends to be the expectation, not the exception.

The current lack of or ineffectiveness of police ethics training may be due in part to a lack of consensus regarding the focus of ethics education for police trainees. Although suggestions for preventing corruption include providing a clear and enforceable code of ethics followed by teaching this code of ethics via police academy training or in-service training, "invoking the law to provide the standards of good practice assumes that the rhetoric of law is practiced in the reality of the law" (Norris & Norris, 1993, p. 217). The literature on the prevalence of police corruption has demonstrated that this is not the case.

One of the barriers to strict enforcement of a code of ethics is that although police are sworn to uphold the law, they actually have much more discretion when they are unsupervised and make decisions based on situational interpretation as well as the law (Hale, 1989). Norris and Norris (1993) maintained that proper police practice cannot
always be fully determined in advance by policies or training manuals. They stated that
good policing is often defined as that which is in line with the values and rules of the
occupational culture. This occupational culture, unfortunately, sometimes promotes
deviant and corrupt practices.

The literature suggests that most recruits learn accepted modes of practice and
decision making from their mentors with many years of experience on the police force.
Hale (1989) described the occupation of policing as a subculture, "reinforced by the
socialization of recruits" (p. 61). Grennan (1989) as quoted in Hale (1989) offered that "a
young officer could learn very quickly, if he wanted to, how to be corrupt. This training
was given to him/her by a senior street officer . . ." (p. 80).

Roebuck and Barker (1974) described police corruption as group behavior guided
by the norms linked to the organization to which the individuals belong, i.e.,
organizational deviance. For example, lying and other deceptive practices are an integral
component of the police subculture (Barker & Carter, 1990). Lies range from certain
forms of accepted lying (e.g., lies told during undercover operations or to coerce suspects
into cooperating) to deviant lies which violate laws such as those against perjury or lies
about knowledge of corrupt activities within the force. Some lies are rationalized because
they are deemed necessary to ensure that criminals are convicted; however, the line
between accepted lying and deviant lying is often blurred and easily crossed (Klockars,
1984). Police lying is further reinforced by the code of silence protecting police
misbehavior (Hale, 1989). Roebuck and Barker (1974) revealed that "this norm of
secrecy is typically the first general rule to which the rookie officer is introduced" (p. 427).
They described the rookie police officer as "initially an outsider . . . isolated from privileged information and situations" until this rookie can prove his loyalty and the socialization process is well underway (p. 427). Hale (1989) maintained that rookies' being accepted by peers on the police force is contingent on conformity. The socialization of recruits molds their attitudes and behaviors which reflect their value system regarding what they deem to be wrongful behavior. These attitudes and behaviors are reinforced and protected by the code of silence.

Roebuck and Barker (1974) further asserted that norms of secrecy within police organizations support not only solidarity, but also corruption. For example, some police organizations are reluctant to expose their own members; rather, they secretly warn or punish them. Often these informal sanctions sway officers' decisions to engage in corrupt activity; i.e., the gain involved might outweigh the risk of mild sanctions (Roebuck & Barker, 1974). Police officers who do not engage in corrupt acts may become involved in covering for other officers or lying simply by not reporting, omitting incriminating information, or turning the other way. Klockars (1984) described the socialization of police officers by explaining that police legitimize the lies they tell by looking to their partners, peers, and the occupational culture of policing, in addition to their experience and values.

Schmalleger (1997) maintained that the "police personality provides fertile ground for the growth of corrupt practices" (p. 215). Skolnick (1966) originally described the working personality of police officers consisting of six characteristics; other researchers have added to his original list to compile this current profile of the police personality:
authoritarian, cynical, conservative, suspicious, hostile, individualistic, insecure, loyal, efficient, honorable, secret, and prejudiced (Schmalleger, 1997). Schmalleger (1997) stated that while some components of the police working personality are essential for survival and effectiveness, the cynicism that develops out of prolonged association with criminals and other citizens who routinely reject society's formalized norms may add to the vulnerability of police officers to engage in corruption. In addition, low pay and a sense that police work is not valued also fosters temptation to engage in corrupt practices such as accepting bribes.

Two major reasons police officers are so easily influenced by their peers are the level of stress and the social isolation experienced by many officers (Hale, 1989). Symonds (1973) as quoted in Hale (1989) described policing as "one of the few occupations that one engages in for which he/she is feared, sometimes hated, occasionally reviled, or even assaulted in the ordinary performance of his/her duties" (p. 61). Because of the experience of stress and social isolation, police men and women often identify with other officers with whom they spend most of their time (Hale, 1989).

Prevention of police corruption is essential for obvious reasons. Two of the more important reasons are: 1) Police work is often discretionary in nature and usually occurs in an unsupervised setting (out in the real world) where "police interpret on an everyday basis the 'real' law and concomitantly have the power to take away an individual's liberty" (Warren, 1974 as cited in Hale, 1989, p. 60). Abuses of this power often infringe upon the basic rights of citizens. 2) The reaction of citizens to the police may be predicated upon citizens' perceptions of police corruption. Where corruption is deemed to be
rampant, civic cooperation may be reduced (Dombrink, 1988).

While organizational reform would certainly do much to alleviate the problem of corruption, the conditions and costs of reforming corrupt police departments are so great that they often preclude any meaningful reform (Dombrink, 1988). Given the strong socialization process within the police subculture, it becomes imperative to address police corruption from a perspective of prevention. Barker (1983) offered that the best method to control or prevent police corruption or involvement in patterns of police deviance is to introduce the police recruit to these issues before he/she enters the police force.

Lynch (1976) proposed several ways in which higher education can contribute to the promotion of ethical behavior in law enforcement. He stated that the ability to confront and discuss ethical questions related to law enforcement in an academic setting can psychologically prepare police officers for dealing with these ethical dilemmas while on the job. Police officers can take the time to think through or imagine themselves in a variety of moral dilemmas in the classroom; this process can "fortify them for the street" (p. 288). Lynch (1976) postulated:

> ethics is not simply rules and regulations frozen into cliches and the Golden Rule; it is an appreciation of the reasonableness of how things are. A necessary prelude to ethics is a wide-ranging discussion of the nature of human beings and this is essentially where higher education can make its greatest contribution (p. 289).

Because of the discretionary nature of police work mentioned earlier, good practice cannot simply be taught or replicated, but it can be developed (Norris & Norris, 1993).
Further, the creation of an "ethical space in which the values and moral dimensions of policing can be explored" is advocated (Norris & Norris, 1993, p. 219). In Australia and Britain, the curriculum is structured to allow periods of off-the-job training created for "critical reflection on the experience of policing" (Norris & Norris, 1993, p.219). Therefore, higher education can enable individuals to examine choices, solutions, and various courses of action regarding moral and ethical dilemmas outside the rushed and pressured situation of daily law enforcement (Lynch, 1976). The police officer might then enter his/her practice utilizing more complex thinking and resources for problem solving in addition to being more prepared for the temptations to become involved in the corruption that awaits him or her.

Norris and Norris (1993) described educational practice as more than the development of expertise designed to achieve ends. Carr (1987) as cited in Norris and Norris (1993) saw educational practice as "a morally informed or morally committed action" (p. 218). Moral competence combines knowledge of what is good with sound judgment about how to express the good. Therefore, the connection between moral judgment and moral action or expression might best be achieved through deliberation and reflective practice which can be attained through educational opportunities within higher education curricula. The broad-based theory of cognitive development has been used effectively in designing educational programs to promote student development. Cognitive developmental theory offers a promising framework for implementing training and educational programs to promote development among law enforcement officers.
Theoretical Rationale

Cognitive Developmental Theory

Cognitive developmental theories describe human thought processes and how these processes influence human behavior. These theories share several basic assumptions:

1) Human motivation toward mastery and competence is intrinsic.
2) Cognitive development occurs in stages or structures, and each stage or structure represents the individual's current style of constructing meaning of experiences.
3) Movement from one stage to another represents qualitative change in the individual's meaning-making system rather than quantitative change.
4) Movement from one stage to another occurs in a hierarchical and sequential fashion.
5) Movement from one stage to another occurs from the least complex stage to the most complex stage, and this movement is irreversible.
6) Growth is dependent upon the interaction between the person and the environment.
7) Human behavior is a function of experience and level of cognitive complexity.
8) Cognitive development includes both physiological and psychological transformations.
9) Development occurs along specific domains (e.g., moral, emotional, intelligence) rather than across the entire realm of domains.
10) People operate in the stage they most frequently use; however, no one person is
completely in one stage at any particular time.

11) Cognitive development is culturally universal (McAdams, 1988).

Cognitive developmental theory encompasses several domains including moral, conceptual, ego, and faith development. Two areas of cognitive development which may be useful in creating educational programs for police officers are the domains of moral development and conceptual development.

Moral Development

Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral development proposes a cognitive developmental perspective of moral judgment or reasoning. According to Kohlberg (1975), when people are confronted with moral dilemmas, they refer to cognitive schema for resolutions. Research has indicated that these cognitive schema of moral meaning-making develop in a hierarchical and sequential fashion. Kohlberg asserted that moral development represents the qualitative reorganization of reasoning about justice and the relationship between the self and society's rules and expectations, progressively moving towards more principled ways of thinking. Kohlberg's claim that higher or principled stages of moral reasoning are better rests on considerations of liberal moral philosophy. This liberal tradition of moral philosophy posits that adequate morality is principled in that it makes judgments in terms of universal principles applicable to all mankind (Kohlberg, 1975).

Rather than teaching moral behavior through didactic instruction alone, Kohlberg (1975) maintained that the focus of moral education must be upon the moral reasoning system. According to Kohlberg, principled morality is most effectively achieved through
developmental training models that challenge moral meaning-making or reasoning structures. Such developmental models have been found to be more effective than didactic instruction in promoting moral development (Rest & Narvaez, 1994).

**Moral Development and Moral Behavior**

While Kohlberg (1975) recognized that moral reasoning is only one factor in moral behavior, he maintained that an individual's level of moral judgment is the single most important or influential factor yet discovered in moral behavior. Studies have revealed a significant, positive relationship between developmental level of moral reasoning and moral action (Blasi, 1980; Thoma, 1985). Because moral reasoning is related to moral behavior, promoting the moral development of law enforcement officers is particularly relevant as they will be entering professional positions of power within the community.

**Conceptual Developmental Theory**

Hunt (1975) maintained that individuals at higher levels of conceptual complexity have a greater capacity for behaving responsibly and adapting to a changing environment. Conceptual level is a cognitive developmental domain which is related to critical thinking and the concepts an individual uses to conceptualize and make meaning of experience and interpersonal relationships. Police officers undertake a variety of roles in their work including crisis interventionist, mediator, counselor, social worker, authority figure, administrator of first aid, public relations officer, etc. (Hale, 1989). Because of the requirements of this multitude of complex roles and the fact that the majority of incidents encountered by police officers can be resolved by a variety of means (Norris & Norris, 1993), promotion of cognitive complexity or conceptual development might assist police
officers in creating a broader array of alternatives when approaching problems, dilemmas, and crises within their many roles.

**Deliberate Psychological Education**

The Deliberate Psychological Education (DPE) model (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1971) has successfully promoted cognitive development in educational settings. The DPE model rests on the assumptions that psychological growth does not happen automatically but can be stimulated given an adequate learning environment (Sprinthall, 1994). This environment should include: opportunities for significant role taking experiences in a real world context; ample support such as that provided in a seminar group in which to "learn requisite skills and to integrate the experiential learnings;" and guided reflection offered by instructors and peers (Hatfield, 1984, p. 295; Sprinthall, 1978). For example, moral growth can occur when an individual is given the opportunity to deliberate decisions about situations that arouse internal contradictions in present reasoning structures or through exposure to others who utilize discrepant moral reasoning (Kohlberg, 1976).

Furthermore, development has been shown to continue into the adult years as a result of lifelong interactions between the individual and the environment (Noam, 1988); therefore, deliberate psychological education is applicable to adults as well as children and adolescents.

In addition to cognitive developmental level, socialized expectations within the police subculture must be considered as a potential influence on a law enforcement officer's decision making and problem solving process. The degree of an individual's susceptibility to social demands may influence whether he or she succumbs to temptations
to engage in corrupt activity or which alternatives are chosen to resolve conflict and challenge.

**Self-Monitoring/Self-Presentation Theory**

Self-monitoring theory focuses on the dilemma of choosing between social expectations and inner directives (Johnson, 1989). Social psychologists have studied two categories of subjective phenomena operating in social interaction: individual values and perceptions of how others expect one to behave. When another's values contradict the individual's values, a challenge to the individual's skills in self-regulation of social behavior occurs (Cutler & Wolfe, 1985). Arkin (1981) delineated two styles of self-presentation, **protective** and **acquisitive**. The protective style serves to avoid social disapproval and the acquisitive style serves to enhance social approval. Heavy reliance on either style creates internal conflict, as desire for social approval or avoidance of social disapproval contradicts personal values. This conflict is likely to be common among police trainees as they begin the socialization process within the police force.

**Purpose**

The purpose of this study is to answer the following research questions:

1) **What is the effect of a Deliberate Psychological Education intervention on the moral reasoning and conceptual development of law enforcement officer trainees and college students studying criminal justice?**

2) **What is the relationship between law enforcement trainees' and criminal justice students' tendency to comply with social expectations and their level of moral reasoning and conceptual development?**
3) Given that some of the participants in this intervention are taking on a significant role in a helping profession (i.e., law enforcement officers), what is the effect of role taking on moral and conceptual development within a Deliberate Psychological Education intervention?
Chapter Two

Review of the Literature

In the preceding chapter, it was established that corruption is a pervasive problem within American police forces and that there is a lack of consistent, effective training in ethics. Cognitive developmental theory, specifically related to the domains of moral development and conceptual development, and the Deliberate Psychological Education model were identified as frameworks within which moral education and opportunities for growth in conceptual complexity can occur among law enforcement trainees. In addition, self-monitoring theory was presented as a paradigm for understanding the tendency of many police rookies to conform to social demands to engage in corrupt practices within the subculture of the police force. This review of the literature will present and examine research on the history of and current police training in ethics; cognitive development; moral development; conceptual development; self-monitoring/self-presentation theory; and the Deliberate Psychological Education model.

Police Ethics Training

Specific law enforcement training requirements or standards were initiated in the 1950's in New York, although training programs had been conducted for over one hundred years. Also in the 1950's, a voluntary system of Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) was established in California. Standards such as the POST standards are mandated by law today in some form in every state in the nation (Schmalleger, 1997). Contemporary police education involves training which ranges from a minimum of 100 classroom contact hours (Missouri) to nearly 1,000 hours of intensive training in some
states such as Hawaii (Flanagan & Maguire, 1990). Subject areas include human relations, firearms and weapons, communications, law, patrol, criminal investigations, administration, report writing, and criminal justice systems (Schmalleger, 1997).

As early as 1931, the Wickersham Commission also known as the National Commission of Law Observance and Enforcement emphasized the importance of education for police officers. By 1973, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals recommended that every police agency should require a four year college degree as a condition of employment (Schmalleger, 1997); however in 1988, a survey conducted by the Police Executive Research Forum of 699 police departments found the average educational level of officers to be nearly the equivalent of an associate's degree from a junior or community college (Carter, Sapp, & Stephens, 1989).

The need for educated police officers has been stressed for the following reasons: 1) better written reports; 2) enhanced communications with the public; 3) more effective job performance; 4) fewer citizens' complaints; 5) greater initiative; 6) wiser use of discretion; 7) heightened sensitivity to racial and ethnic issues; and 8) fewer disciplinary problems (Carter et al., 1989). In order to facilitate college-level training for police officers, the International Association of Police Professors (IAPP) was created in 1963. The name of this association was later changed to the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (ACJS) as it widened its focus to include criminal justice education (Schmalleger, 1997). In the last ten years, more and more police agencies are requiring the completion of at least some college-level work for police officers. For example, in 1991, New York state began requiring the completion of 60 semester hours of college-level curriculum as a
Effective performance as a police officer does not rely solely on educational attainment. According to Wilson and McLaren (1977), other qualities important to good policing are as follows: initiative; responsibility; ability to deal with emergencies; effective communications skills, particularly with persons of other cultural and ethnic backgrounds; ability to learn new tasks quickly; ability to adapt to change; desire to help; empathy; emotional maturity; and physical strength and endurance. Adequate educational programs for police officers should incorporate a framework that will promote many, if not all, of these qualities.

In addition to the characteristics enumerated above, increasing professionalism within law enforcement includes attention to the problem of corruption among police officers. The ethical code that guides police work was originated in 1956 by the Peace Officer's Research Association of California (PORAC), in conjunction with Berkeley's School of Criminology; however, ethics training is still not well integrated into most law enforcement training curricula (Schmalleger, 1997). Although the POST standards continue to serve as the model for other police training programs throughout the country, training on ethics comprises only a minor portion of the 599 instructional hours of the 664 hour curriculum. Ethics training is imbedded in the eight hour component on *History, Professionalism and Ethics* (POST, 1995). Schmalleger (1997) offered that "high moral standards, embedded into the principles of the police profession, and effectively communicated to individual officers through formal training and peer group socialization, are undoubtedly the most effective way to combat corruption in police work" (p. 215).
Calls for ethics training and for higher education within law enforcement can be answered through curriculum development within the college setting by incorporating moral education into criminal justice or similar courses police trainees are often required to complete. Furthermore, given the list of characteristics of the effective professional law enforcement officer mentioned previously, promotion of conceptual complexity or critical thinking within the same curriculum would also enhance police officer performance. Development in both domains, moral and conceptual, can best be understood by examining the overarching framework of cognitive developmental theory.

**Cognitive Developmental Theory**

Dewey (1963) first formulated the idea that children develop through stages. Before Dewey, the prevalent notion was that children were miniature adults who developed quantitatively as they grew from small to large. Dewey claimed that children's development was a qualitative transformation along a series of distinct stages. He characterized children not as "blank slates" to be written upon by experience as claimed by Locke, but as natural philosophers intent on making meaning of their experiences in the world. Dewey believed that people actively construct their perceptions of experience according to their internal world view.

The occurrence of growth within the individual depends on the quality of the person's interaction with the environment. Therefore, growth does not take place automatically, but is dependent upon a series of significant experiences at crucial junctures in order for a shift from a lower stage to a higher stage of development to occur. Without these significant experiences, a person may prematurely stabilize at a stage below his/her
potential (Sprinthall, 1978). The impact of these significant experiences is constrained by the interpretive capabilities within the individual's present structures of meaning-making (Loevinger, 1976).

Piaget applied Dewey's ideas about human development to human cognition. Piaget's theory of cognitive development described how cognitive processes or patterns of thinking developed over time. Piaget (1970) defined cognition as the regulating mechanism that connects the person to the environment. According to Piaget, people actively interpret the environment through a process of meaning-making within specific structures of thought. A structure is a framework used to interpret the world which may include different elements of cognition related to each other in organized patterns. Structures attempt to remain in equilibrium, resisting change; however, this equilibrium is dynamic and must allow for adjustment to ever-changing environmental stimuli. This adjustment, according to Piaget, occurs through two processes he referred to as assimilation and accommodation.

Using assimilation, an individual interprets the environment using existing mental structures; whereas, accommodation involves changing existing structures in order to interpret new stimuli which may not fit into existing patterns of thinking. Assimilation and accommodation occur almost simultaneously as stimuli are integrated into present structures and present structures are subtly transformed allowing new information to be interpreted. When new information cannot be integrated into existing structures, disequilibrium occurs which facilitates a cognitive shift, allowing new information to be accommodated in order to restore balance. This dynamic process is known as
equilibration. Cognitive structures evolve gradually through repeated assimilation and accommodation. As development occurs, existing structures are transformed into qualitatively different structures, allowing the individual to make more differentiated and complex adaptations to the environment. Therefore, higher stages of development are related to more adaptive functioning.

The basic tenets of cognitive developmental theory across a variety of domains focusing on various aspects of human development such as moral development, ego development, conceptual development, interpersonal development, and faith development are as follows:

1) Human motivation for growth and development is intrinsic.

2) Individuals interpret the world through an organized system of meaning-making or thought patterns.

3) Stages of development consist of underlying thought patterns or structures.

4) Stages of cognitive growth are sequential and follow a hierarchical, invariant sequence.

5) Individuals rarely skip a stage or return to an earlier stage.

6) Each succeeding stage represents a qualitative transformation in patterns of thinking and subsumes earlier stages.

7) Stages never exist in pure form; elements of preceding and future stages can be found within an individual's level of development; however individuals function at the modal or most frequently used level of stage development.

8) Growth depends on interaction between the person and the environment.
9) There is a relationship between developmental stage and behavior.

10) Cognitive development is also dependant upon physical development.

11) Stage growth is specific to particular domains (such as ego, moral, conceptual) rather than across domains.


Moral Developmental Theory

The cognitive developmental approach to moral growth focuses on the development of universal stages of moral thought (Gielen, 1991). Lawrence Kohlberg changed the way psychologists and educators conceptualize moral development. Until the mid-twentieth century, morality was assumed to be a result of cultural transmission (Kuhmerker, 1991). Kohlberg, however, drew on liberal moral philosophy to define moral reasoning. Liberal moral philosophy posits that morality is principled in that judgments are based on universal standards found across cultures; therefore, this morality is superior. These principled universal standards become the guide for moral decision making. Kohlberg insisted that moral reasoning is based on ethical principles of justice, not simply on adjustment to cultural norms. He believed that individuals take an active role in constructing their moral reality from early childhood through adulthood (Kuhmerker, 1991). Although Kohlberg acknowledged that morality includes components such as feelings, thoughts, and actions, he believed that moral reasoning is the component that guides an individual's judgment when confronted with moral dilemmas.

Kohlberg, through his research, found that he could delineate six stages of moral
reasoning which he grouped into three major levels: Level I - Preconventional level, Level II - Conventional level, and Level III - Postconventional level. Kohlberg found that the preconventional level is the level within which most children under nine operate. The conventional level is the level within which most adolescents and adults operate. The postconventional level is reached by a minority of adults and usually only after age twenty (Kohlberg, 1976). The three levels represent types of relationships between the individual and society's rules and expectations. The person at the preconventional level views rules and social expectations as something external. The individual's thinking is egocentric, primarily concerned with self-gratification. At the conventional level, the individual has internalized the rules and expectations of others, especially authority figures. A person at the conventional level is aware of interpersonal relationships and the rights of others. The postconventional person has differentiated him or herself from rules and expectations of others; values are defined in terms of self-chosen principles (Kohlberg, 1976).

Each of the three moral levels consist of two hierarchical stages, with the second stage being more advanced and organized. Table 1 describes the six moral stages defined in terms of what is right; the reason for upholding what is right; and the social perspective related to each stage.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL AND STAGE</th>
<th>WHAT IS RIGHT</th>
<th>REASONS FOR DOING RIGHT</th>
<th>SOCIAL PERSPECTIVE OF STAGE</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>LEVEL I - PRECONVENTIONAL</strong>&lt;br&gt;Stage 1 - Heteronomous Morality&lt;br&gt;Stage 2 - Individuals, Instrumental Purpose, and Exchange</td>
<td>To avoid breaking rules backed by punishment, obedience for its own sake, and avoiding physical damage to persons and property.</td>
<td>Avoidance of punishment, and the superior power of authorities.</td>
<td><strong>Egoistic point of view.</strong> Doesn't consider the interests of others or recognize that they differ from the actor's; doesn't relate two points of view. Actions are considered physically rather than in terms of psychological interests of others. Confusion of authority's perspective with one's own.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>LEVEL II - CONVENTIONAL</strong>&lt;br&gt;Stage 3 - Mutual Interpersonal Expectations, Relationships, and Interpersonal Conformity&lt;br&gt;Stage 4 - Social System and Conscience</td>
<td>Following rules only when it is to someone's immediate interests; acting to meet one's own interests and needs and letting others do the same. Right is also what's fair, what's an equal exchange, a deal, an agreement.</td>
<td>To serve one's own needs or interests in a world where you have to recognize that other people have their interests, too.</td>
<td><strong>Concrete individualistic perspective.</strong> Aware that everybody has his own interest to pursue and those conflict, so that right is relative (in the concrete individualistic sense).</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Living up to what is expected by people close to you or what people generally expect of people in your role as son/daughter, brother/sister, friend, etc. &quot;Doing good&quot; is important and means having good motives, showing concern about others. It also means keeping mental relationships, such as trust, loyalty, respect, and gratitude.</td>
<td>The need to be a good person in your own eyes and those of others. Your caring for others. Belief in the Golden Rule. Desire to maintain rules and authority which support stereotypical good behavior.</td>
<td><strong>Perspective of the individual in relationship with other individuals.</strong> Aware of shared feelings, agreements, and expectations which take priority over individual interests. Relates points of view through the concrete Golden Rule, putting yourself in the other guy's shoes. Does not yet consider generalized system perspective.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Fulfilling the actual duties to which you have agreed. Laws are to be upheld except in extreme cases where they conflict with other fixed social duties. Right is also contributing to society, the group, or institution.</td>
<td>To keep the institution going as a whole, to avoid the breakdown in the system &quot;if everyone did it,&quot; or the imperative of conscience to meet one's defined obligations.</td>
<td><strong>Differentiates societal point of view from interpersonal agreement or motives.</strong> Takes the point of view of the system that defines rules and roles. Considers individual relations in terms of place in the system.</td>
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<tr>
<td>LEVEL III - POST CONVENTIONAL OR PRINCIPLED</td>
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<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>Stage 5 - Social Contract of Utility and Individual Rights</td>
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<td>Being aware that people hold a variety of values and opinions, that most values and rules are relative to your group. These relative rules should usually be upheld, however, in the interest of impartiality and because they are the social contract. Some normative values and rights like life and liberty, however, must be upheld in any society and regardless of majority opinion.</td>
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<td>Stage 6 - Universal Ethical Principles</td>
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<td>Following self-chosen ethical principles. Particular laws or social agreements are usually valid because the rest on such principles. When laws violate these principles, one acts in accordance with the principle. Principles are universal principles of justice; the equality of human rights and respect for the dignity of human beings as individual persons.</td>
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<td>A sense of obligation to law because of one's social contract to make and abide by laws for the welfare of all and for the protection of all people's rights. A feeling of contractual commitment, freely entered upon, to family, friendship, trust, and work obligations. Concern that laws and duties be based on rational calculation of overall utility, &quot;the greatest good for the greatest number.&quot;</td>
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<td>Kohlberg, 1976, pp. 34-35.</td>
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Like Piaget, Kohlberg believed that moral stages occur as structured wholes or organized patterns of meaning-making systems; moral stages occur in a hierarchical, invariant, irreversible sequence, with higher stages subsuming lower stages; each succeeding stage represents a qualitative change in structures of moral reasoning; and these stages occur universally, across cultures (Kohlberg, 1975).

Kohlberg's original work on moral development focused on ten to sixteen-year old males, but his later longitudinal studies, along with the work of other researchers involving more diverse participants revealed that moral reasoning could continue to develop and grow into adulthood. Further, these studies revealed that adult development could be fostered by the challenges encountered in daily life, but also could be stagnated by the stresses encountered in adult life (Kuhmerker, 1991).

Kohlberg's approach to measuring moral development culminated in the creation
of the Standard Issue Moral Judgment Interview and Scoring System. "This detailed scoring system is one of Kohlberg's greatest achievements and has not been surpassed by any other methodical approach to the study of sociomoral development" (Gielen & Lei, 1991, p. 61). Kohlberg collected data using the Moral Judgment Interview (MJI) which is a semi-open-ended interview using three parallel forms (A, B, and C), each containing three moral dilemmas in which a conflict between two moral issues is described. The moral dilemmas are followed by probing questions which elicit subjects' reasons for their answers. The subjects' answers are scored by raters who classify responses by issue, norm, and element, comparing them to criterion judgments in the manual which delineate the stage of moral development represented by the answers given. A global stage score and weighted average score are calculated. Global stage scores may represent pure (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) or mixed (1/2, 2/3, 3/4, 4/5) stages. A mixed global stage score indicates that the second stage in the score is represented by at least 25 percent of the reasoning in the interview. The weighted average score provides a continuous numerical assessment of the subject's reasoning ranging from 100 or pure Stage 1 reasoning to 500 or pure stage 5 reasoning (Gielen & Lei, 1991). The Standard Issue Scoring Manual provides reliable assessments of stage structure. Threats to validity and reliability occur when the interview may not contain appropriate probing questions due to inexperienced interviewers; the interview may contain answers unique to certain cultures not easily matched against the criterion judgments in the manual; or raters may have difficulty matching interview answers with criteria in the manual due to insufficient training or lack of understanding of subtle distinctions in the scoring procedure (Gielen & Lei, 1991).
According to Gielen (1991), the work of Colby, Kohlberg, Gibbs, and Lieberman (1983) is the most rigorous test of Kohlberg's theory. Kohlberg's earlier data from the twelve year longitudinal study of his original subjects were reanalyzed and extended by another eight years. Kohlberg's original sample of 98 adolescent males was stratified by age levels (10, 13, 16) and sociometric status and social class. The subjects were tested six times at three to four year intervals over twenty years. According to the researchers, the results validated the moral judgment stages as defined in the Standard Issue Scoring Manual.

Further, the results indicated that the Standard Issue system of scoring is a reliable and valid measure of moral judgment. One month test-retest reliability for Forms A and B were in the high .90's. Interrater reliability for forms A, B, and C ranged from .92 to .98. Internal consistency, calculated using Cronbach's alpha, was .92 for form A, .96 for form B, and .94 for form C.

Regarding validity, Colby et al. (1983) argued that prediction to an external criterion such as action taken in a moral conflict situation was not an appropriate indicator of validity. Instead, they questioned whether the interview and scoring system provided a valid assessment of moral judgment stage. The study identified a clear relationship between age and moral judgment stage. The correlation between age and moral maturity was .78. Analysis of internal consistency revealed that most interviews produced scores at a single stage or at two adjacent stages. The mean percentage of reasoning at the modal stage ranged from 67% to 72% for the three forms. Multiple regression analyses revealed that the proportion of variance accounted for by stage score far exceeded that of
succeeding factors, leading the researchers to conclude that moral judgment is a single, general domain. Colby et al. (1983) considered this study to provide substantial support for the validity of Standard Issue Scoring, i.e., when used to score longitudinal interviews not used to construct the measure, the Standard Issue Scoring system yielded scores that agreed closely with the theoretical predictions of invariant sequence and internal consistency (Colby, et al., 1983).

Snarey (1985) reviewed 45 studies of moral development carried out in 27 countries. Snarey found that Kohlberg's interview, given the evidence, was reasonably culture fair when interview content was adapted and subjects were interviewed in their native language. Snarey also found that Kohlberg's invariant stage sequence proposition was well supported; stage skipping and stage regressions were rare and always below a level that could be attributed to measurement error. Evidence indicated that Stage 1 through Stage 4 were found universally across cultures when age and sample size were taken into consideration. Presence of Stage 4/5 or 5 was extremely rare in all populations.

According to Snarey, the only problematic area in terms of empirical support for Kohlberg's universality claim involved the relative absence of postconventional reasoning in many populations, particularly traditional folk societies. Snarey maintained that Kohlberg's stage definitions and scoring manual may be incomplete, especially for Stage 5. Because descriptions of stage 5 reasoning are based upon Western philosophy, Snarey suggested that the stage model and scoring manual should also draw on examples of reasoning at the higher stages from a wider range of cultural world views. Kohlberg acknowledged that the sixth stage of moral judgment has not been empirically validated,
but maintained that it is still of theoretical importance (Kohlberg, Levine, & Hewer, 1983).
Snarey advocated a more pluralistic stage theory, with a scoring manual that incorporates culturally specific examples of formal principles from diverse cultures.

**Sex Differences in Moral Development**

One of the fiercest challenges to Kohlberg's work was made by Gilligan (1982) who argued that women utilize a different system of moral reasoning based on an ethic of care rather than justice. Gilligan proposed two patterns of development of moral reasoning, one more characteristic of women and the other more characteristic of men. The pattern more characteristic of women is based on relationship and connectedness, while the pattern more characteristic of men is based on separation, logic, and individuality (Stonewater, 1987). These two paths of development result in two moral orientations: a justice orientation (predominantly male) and a care orientation (predominantly female), although both orientations can coexist in both genders. She proposed that women's moral development is guided by an orientation toward care, emphasizing sensitivity and responsibility to the needs of others, and that these characteristics are largely biologically determined. Gilligan claimed that Kohlberg's research and method of scoring produced results which were biased against women, who, because of their ethic of care, would be rated lower using Kohlberg's stage system which tracks development of the justice orientation.

Kerber (1986) expressed concern about some of Gilligan's conclusions. Gilligan proposed that women's affinity for relationship and care is biologically determined. Kerber warned of the danger in ascribing attributes such as care and relationship to
biology because these values have been historically demeaned and cited as reasons to deny women access to power. Furthermore, Kerber asserted that the research on which Gilligan's book *An Ethic of Care* was based involved women confronting a decision about abortion. Kerber stated that themes of responsibility and care would inherently emerge for most people making such a decision, including men. "The conclusions that Gilligan reports are implicit in the central question of the project itself" (Kerber, Greeno, Maccoby, Luria, Stack, & Gilligan, 1986, p. 305).

Greeno and Maccoby (1986) pointed out that Gilligan's writings do not include data on how women change their moral reasoning over time. Furthermore, they asserted that Gilligan had an obligation to demonstrate quantitative differences in the moral reasoning between the genders, something she has not yet shown. Greeno and Maccoby also posed questions about whether women's reputation for greater altruism and empathy is valid, citing studies that have shown that women are often not more likely to exhibit more care and helping behavior than men (Kerber et al., 1986).

Luria (1986) made the point that the overlap of scores on psychological measures for males and females is far greater than the differences. Luria also stated that some of the samples that Gilligan used (e.g., eight males and eight females at different ages and Harvard University students) had limited generalizability (Kerber et al., 1986).

Friedman (1993) suggested that we should not attempt to dichotomize the justice and care orientations. She proposed that the concepts of justice and care are mutually compatible. According to Friedman, Gilligan's interpretation of justice is limited, failing to recognize that positive rights such as taking care of others through welfare, etc. can
also be endorsed from a justice perspective. Friedman called for a moral framework in which all moral concerns can be expressed, regardless of gender. Kohlberg did respond to criticism of the omission of the care orientation in his theory by placing notions of care and responsibility into the assessment of moral development (Levine, Kohlberg, & Hewer, 1985).

Walker (1984) reviewed 31 studies involving 2,879 subjects (ages 5 - 17) that used Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Interview and reported the analysis of gender differences. Gender differences were found to be infrequent; only six of the 41 samples indicated significant differences. Walker also examined 35 studies involving 3,901 adolescents and young adults. Only ten of the 46 samples revealed significant gender differences. Most of the studies which did report gender differences found more mature development for males, although the differences were small, usually consisting of less than half a stage.

Walker's review of 21 studies of adult samples (1,223 subjects ranging in age from 21 to 65+) revealed only four significant differences in gender favoring men. However, gender was either confounded with educational or occupational differences in these studies. Walker's subsequent meta-analysis of the studies supported the results of his previous review indicating that there were no significant differences in gender.

In 1986, Walker reanalyzed and updated his original review in response to criticism regarding the meta-analytic procedure he used. He expanded his review to include more recent studies, bringing the total to 80 studies involving 152 samples and a total of 10,637 subjects. Eleven disputed samples were reanalyzed, substituting the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with the Mann-Whitney test, which is more likely to detect
differences among the type of data in question. Results indicated that only one of the samples yielded a significant difference in moral reasoning by gender, and only a minor change was revealed through recalculation of the meta-analysis. Walker concluded that there was no support for Gilligan's claim that Kohlberg's theory penalizes women. Other major studies that used Kohlberg's most recent scoring system also showed no sex differences (Snarey, Reimer, & Kohlberg, 1985; Gibbs & Widamon, 1982; Nisan and Kohlberg, 1982).

Interestingly, Gilligan did not actually do a systematic review of the moral judgment literature on gender differences before making her claim that justice-oriented scoring systems favor males. Her position lacked a coherent theoretical definition of the care orientation and how it differs from a justice orientation. Furthermore, even though the care orientation is claimed to be an alternative and parallel path of moral development, there is no longitudinal or cross-sectional data to support this claim (Rest, Thoma, Moon & Getz, 1986).

Gilligan (1986) responded to her critics by emphasizing the flaw inherent in research that has traditionally been conducted using primarily male subjects. She stated that her intent was not to introduce quantitative analysis, but to provide a qualitative description of the experience of her subjects (Kerber et al., 1986). Gilligan can be credited with describing another component of moral development which should be considered in assessing moral reasoning; this component, “an ethic of care,” is used by both men and women.
Given the length and complexity of the Standard Issue method of assessing moral reasoning, other instruments have been developed that assess moral reasoning in a simpler fashion with scoring methods that take less time. The Defining Issues Test (DIT), developed by James Rest (1986b), is an objective multiple choice test that indexes moral development based upon the recognition of, and preference for, seventy-two moral arguments for six moral dilemmas (Gielen & Lei, 1991). Rather than produce reasons for answers given, subjects must evaluate the items following each dilemma that raise the most important considerations that influenced their decision by ranking them. The assumption is that the selection and rank ordering of these items indicates a person's moral developmental level (Rest & Narvaez, 1994).

The DIT presupposes various structures of thinking in stage scoring of items. Rather than assigning a subject to one or another stage, the quantitative usage of each qualitative stage type is considered, arriving at a summary score that is expressed in terms of a continuous index. This difference in scoring from Kohlberg's stage scoring stems from Rest's endorsement of a soft concept of stage rather than Kohlberg's hard concept of stage in which one stage is the ruling program of a person's mind (Rest, 1986a). Rest believed that stage mixture predominates throughout the domain of moral reasoning (Gielen & Lei, 1991). Kohlberg, himself, reformulated his hard stage stance in later years (Rest, 1986b).

Another important theoretical difference between Kohlberg's test and the DIT is in the method of stage definition. Both scoring systems focus on the concept of justice in which each stage represents a different conception of what constitutes justice; however,
Kohlberg's latest scoring system, characterized stage movement with more abstract formalistic terms such as universality and prescriptivism; that is, stages are based on universal standards of justice based on what should or ought to be done, not simply what one would actually do (Kohlberg et al., 1983). The DIT characterizes the stage definitions as following from different concepts of how social cooperation can be organized. These distinctions are content differences according to Kohlberg, not structural, and do not define his stages (Rest, 1986a); however, Rest (1986a) stated that stage definition should be determined by the characterization that illuminates how moral decision-making occurs. He believed the Kohlberg system to be too abstract to represent how people's notions of justice determine their reasoning and judgments about morality.

The most frequently used DIT score is the P-score or the Principled Score. This score is based on the percentage of principled moral thinking used by the respondent in ranking items (items corresponding to stage 5 and 6). Whereas Kohlberg's assessment categorizes subjects by stage, the DIT locates a subject in terms of a continuous number representing the developmental continuum. When a person evaluates moral arguments on the DIT, the evaluation may reflect a variety of stages because the evaluation process is influenced by the content and the structure of the moral arguments. Davison and Robbins (1978) reported internal consistency reliabilities (alpha) in the high .70's. Test-retest reliabilities of the DIT P score were reported as generally in the high .70's or .80's. Intervals between testings ranged from one week to five months. Concurrent validity was reported in the .40's with a measure of general aptitude, in the .60's with a measure of comprehending moral issues, in the high .40's or .50's with a measure of law and order.
orientation, and in the .50's and .60's with a measure of political tolerance.

Recent research indicates that a new way of scoring the DIT (using the same format as before - same stories, items, ratings, and rankings) is generally a better index. The new index or "N" index attempts to address two criticisms of the P Index that have predominated in discussions of the DIT, the "qualitative/quantitative" issue and the problem with "throwing data away" (Rest, Thoma, Narvaez, & Bebeau, 1996, p. 2.). As stated previously, Rest assesses development in terms of how people over time come to use higher stages more and lower stages less (not people moving out of one stage into another). Moral development according to Rest, therefore, involves shifting distributions of stages rather than moving completely out of one stage into the next. DIT researchers make qualitative distinctions in designating stage differences to different items, yet use quantitative differences in depicting the developmental scores of subjects (Rest, Thoma et al., 1996). In using the P score, none of the information about the lower stage items is used (it is a composite of stage 5 and stage 6 reasoning). The creation of the "N" score attempts to address these criticisms by measuring prioritization of higher stages and measuring discrimination and rejection of the lower stages.

The N score has two parts: the degree to which P items are prioritized plus the degree to which the lower stages are rated lower than the ratings of the higher stages. The second part of N is based on rating data, not ranking data. N generally outperforms the P index across all types of studies (Rest, Davison & Evens, 1996). Although the improvements of N over P are slight, they occur over different types of studies and different samples. Rest, Davison, and Evens (1996) recommended that researchers using
the DIT analyze their results with both the P and N indices.

**Moral Reasoning and Moral Action**

Kohlberg's emphasis on moral development included a focus on the relationship between moral reasoning and moral behavior. Kohlberg (1975) maintained that moral judgment was only one factor in moral behavior, yet it was the most distinctive, influential moral factor in moral behavior. Because moral reasoning is more stable than moral behavior, Kohlberg stated that society would receive greater benefits by promoting moral reasoning as a precursor to moral behavior.

Rest (1986a) expanded on Kohlberg's view of moral judgment and moral behavior with the description of a Four Component Model which sought to explain what happens psychologically in order for moral behavior to occur. Rest delineated four distinct processes:

**Component I - Moral Sensitivity** - The awareness of how actions affect other people. This involves being able to imagine the possible consequences, empathize, and assume role-taking skills.

**Component II - Moral Judgment** - A judgment about which line of action (generated in Component I) is more morally justifiable. Deficiency in Component II comes from simplistic justification of choices of moral actions.

**Component III - Moral Motivation** - Relates to the importance given to moral values in competition with other values. Deficiencies in Component III result from insufficient motivation to place moral values above other values.

**Component IV - Moral Character** - Involves ego strength, perseverance, strength of
conviction, and courage. Even if all of the other components are in place, moral failure will occur because of a deficiency in Component IV (Rest, 1986a; Rest & Narvaez, 1994).

The Four Component Model outlines the necessary elements for moral behavior to occur. These elements are interactive and non-linear. Rest (1986a) proposed that the Four Component Model provides a framework for better understanding and predicting moral behavior and to formulate objectives for moral education programs; however, to date, cognitive developmentalists and measures of moral development have focused primarily on moral reasoning or moral judgment, Component II of Rest's model.

Blasi (1980) reviewed empirical literature investigating the relationship between moral judgment and moral action. Blasi found that there is a positive relationship between moral judgment stage and resistance to conformity and that delinquent individuals tend to be at lower stages of moral reasoning than non-delinquents. There was also evidence of a positive relationship between moral reasoning and honesty, as well as moral reasoning and altruism. Blasi pointed out that these findings are not conclusive because of methodological problems among and differences between the studies. Despite the studies' limitations, 57 of the 75 studies he reviewed revealed at least a moderate relationship between moral judgment and moral behavior.

Thoma and Rest (1986) reviewed 28 studies of the relationship between moral reasoning and moral action using the DIT. Delinquents and cheaters received low DIT scores in comparison to attendees at social justice meetings, conscientious objectors, and jury leaders who received high DIT scores. While the correlations between instrument scores and moral behavior were modest to moderate, they covered a variety of situations.
As Rest (1994) pointed out in his Four Component Model, if moral judgment is only one determinant of moral behavior and the other determinants vary randomly, then one would expect that determinant to be consistently linked to behavior, but to be only modestly correlated. Overall, the research suggests consistent support for the relationship between moral reasoning and moral behavior.

Moral developmental theory is relevant to law enforcement officer training in ethics. If promoting moral reasoning is a precursor to moral behavior, then educational programs that incorporate an emphasis on the development of moral judgment may be effective in deterring new police officers from becoming involved in corrupt or immoral activities.

Conceptual Systems Theory

Conceptual systems theory as proposed by Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder (1961) describes development as resulting from interaction between the environment and the individual. Conceptual systems theory is a cognitive developmental approach that maintains that optimal environmental conditions are necessary to facilitate a person's conceptual growth. When environmental conditions are not optimal, conceptual growth may stagnate (Hunt, 1970).

The conceptual system is defined as "a schema that provides the basis by which the individual relates to the environmental events he experiences" (Harvey, Hunt, & Schroder, 1961, pp. 244-45). This system is the organizational structure through which a person processes information or how one thinks. The interpersonal component within conceptual systems can be described as an individual's self-conceptualization, other-conceptualization,
and the conceptualization of the relationship between self and other.

Conceptual level is a "personality characteristic that describes persons on a developmental hierarchy of increasing conceptual complexity, self-responsibility, and independence" (Hunt, 1978, p. 78). Progression along the continuum of conceptual complexity provides the individual with increased availability of multiple alternatives in evaluation and behavior (Holloway & Wampold, 1986). Hunt (1975) stated that "a person at a higher conceptual level is more structurally complex, more capable of responsible actions, and most important, more capable of adapting to a changing environment than a person at a lower conceptual level" (p. 218).

Conceptual level exists on a continuum from concrete to abstract. Individuals at a concrete level (low CL) exhibit conceptual simplicity and external, dependent orientations to interpersonal relationships. Individuals at the abstract level (high CL) exhibit conceptual complexity and internal interdependent orientations (Holloway & Wampold, 1986). High conceptual level is associated with greater flexibility in dealing with problems, greater creativity, exploration behavior, and tolerance of stress (Harvey & Schroder, 1963). Higher conceptual level is also associated with greater self-understanding and empathy.

Conceptual development, like moral development, is considered to develop along stages occurring in an invariant sequence given optimal conditions. Hunt's model of conceptual development consists of the following four stages:

Stage 0.0 - Unsocialized persons who resist and avoid external imposition. Ambiguity cannot be tolerated and information is processed in a very simple, concrete manner.
Stage 1.0 - Individuals are more concerned with behaving in a socially acceptable way, and information is processed in dichotomous (right-wrong or good-bad) categories.

Stage 2.0 - Absolutes are questioned and challenged. Individuals are more open to others' ideas, are concerned with their own thoughts and feelings, and are striving for independence. Tolerance of ambiguity and uncertainty increases.

Stage 3.0 - Denoted by an interdependence between one's self and one's environment and consists of a clear understanding of the self, a selective openness to external imposition, and an avoidance of dependency (Khalili & Hood, 1983).

Conceptual level is assessed using the Paragraph Completion Method (PCM) developed by Hunt, Lapin, Liberman, McManus, Post, Sabalis, Sweet, and Victor (1968) and revised by Hunt, Butler, Noy, and Rosser (1978). The PCM is an instrument developed to index an individual's position on a continuum of conceptual level, rather than to place that individual within a discrete stage. The PCM requires individuals to do conceptual work by reacting to a stimulus likely to require some cognitive reflection in his/her response (Hunt, 1970). The Paragraph Completion Method consists of six topics. The individual responds to each topic with three or four sentences indicating his/her personal reactions to the topic. A person's conceptual level (CL) index is calculated as a composite of the six scores. With trained raters, the interrater reliability is .80 to .85 (Hunt, 1970). One year test-retest reliability coefficients for CL for studies involving subjects grades six through eleven were reported as ranging from .45 to .56. (Hunt et al., 1978). Concurrent validity was reported in the .20 -.30 range when correlated with tests of intelligence and at .40 when correlated with the Kohlberg Moral Maturity Scale (Hunt,
1970; Hunt et al., 1978) which lends cross-validation to these two cognitive developmental measures.

Hunt (1971) developed the Conceptual Level Matching Model, which coordinates the learner’s level of conceptual complexity with the appropriate degree of structure in the educational environment. Hunt stated that there is an inverse relationship between conceptual level and environmental structure where low CL learners require higher structure in the learning environment and high CL learners require lower structure. There are two different kinds of matches in the learning environment, a match that satisfies the learner’s needs and a match that stimulates the learner’s conceptual level development. The stimulating match is based on the developmental principal of providing an environment that is just challenging enough for the learner to develop higher level strategies. Although the satisfying match maximizes the opportunity for learning the task, the learner remains at the same level of development. It is the stimulating match or slight mismatch that promotes growth to a higher level (Holloway & Wampold, 1986). In providing a stimulating match, a plus one convention must be applied whereby the learner is challenged at no more than one stage level above his or her present level of conceptual complexity. Challenge that is more than one stage level above the student’s present level of reasoning becomes overwhelming and is counterproductive (Hunt, 1971).

Higher education, by providing the appropriate learning environment, can significantly contribute to the promotion of conceptual development in students. Khalili and Hood (1983) performed a longitudinal study on conceptual level among college students. The PCM was administered to a random sample of 169 first-year students at a
large mid-western, public university the summer prior to their entrance to college. Thirty-eight students were retested after one year of college. Four years later, 77 students were retested.

The results revealed that conceptual level increased significantly after both one and four years of college. The average stage growth after one year was 1/4 of a conceptual level stage. The stage gain in the first year was equivalent to the stage gain between the second and fourth years of college. Because of attrition, an analysis was performed to check for significant differences between those who did not participate at the four year testing and those who did. The students who did not participate did not differ significantly from the students who were re-tested after four years. Changes in conceptual level were not significantly related to extracurricular activities, type of student residence, major, commitment to career choice, religion, marriage, or life-style. A weakness of this study was the relatively low interrater reliability scores, which ranged from .63 to .78.

No studies could be found regarding conceptual level and police officer performance. As mentioned previously, higher conceptual complexity would provide law enforcement officers with a broader array of alternatives in problem conceptualization and resolution. The lack of research on the application of Hunt's theory to law enforcement represents an opportunity to contribute to the literature.

Higher is Better

Research corroborates the cognitive developmental tenet that higher stages of development are related to more effective functioning. In the domain of moral development, Sheehan, Husted, Candee, Cook, and Bargen (1980) found that the moral
reasoning ability of 244 pediatric residents was a predictor of their clinical performance, which led the investigators to conclude that higher moral reasoning was related to better clinical performance. A similar study by Duckett and Ryden (1994) also supported the relationship between moral reasoning and clinical performance.

Subjects were 85 nursing students who were entering a nursing program. In addition to having students complete the Defining Issues Test (DIT), a measure of moral development, clinical performance ratings as measured by the Clinical Evaluation Tool (CET), an instrument developed to assess students' clinical performance across settings at various levels of the program, were obtained. Other variables included in the study were each student's age, prior number of credits; scores on the ACT, an instrument used to assess academic aptitude; grade point average; and scores on an ethical theory test.

Complete data were available for 48 of the original subjects. There was significant attrition of subjects (N=17), some tests results had invalid moral reasoning scores (N=5), and some CET ratings were missing because completion of this evaluation was voluntary on the part of supervisors (n = 15); however, no significant differences were found between the group with complete data and those who either left the study or generated incomplete data.

Results showed that the DIT score of principled moral reasoning (P score) was the variable most strongly associated with the clinical performance score (r=.58). A stepwise multiple linear regression of the CET scores showed that the DIT P score accounted for 34% of the variance followed by age, which accounted for 12% of the variance. The other variables did not enter the equation.
The reliability of the clinical evaluation instrument (CET) is somewhat questionable (it includes subjective evaluation); however, most evaluation tools include subjective information. Barring the ability to completely objectively quantify performance in the nursing profession, the CET is an adequate indicator of clinical performance.

Overall results of this study revealed that the DIT was a good predictor of clinical performance. Those subjects whose scores indicated higher percentages of principled reasoning on the DIT were also rated higher in terms of their clinical performance.

Research also indicates that teachers at higher levels of moral reasoning tend to better perceive students' feelings and needs and maintain a more positive relationship with students than teachers operating at lower levels of moral reasoning. In addition, teachers at higher levels of moral reasoning tend to create an intellectual and participative climate in the classroom. (Rest & Narvaez, 1994).

Only one study involving moral reasoning and police officer training could be found in the literature. Scharf, Linninger, Marrero, Baker, and Rice (1978) found an association between moral stage and decision-making in their study of police responses to hypothetical dilemmas about the use of deadly force. California police officers (N=24) completed an interview schedule including moral dilemmas from police and non-police situations. A descriptive analysis revealed an association between moral stage and decision about a shooting dilemma. Stage 2 officers tended to view the dilemma as a problem of personal authority and control; stage 3 and 4 officers showed concern with procedural legality of actions; stage 5 officers viewed the dilemma in terms of regard for human life.
Police officers then participated in a twelve-week dilemma training course that involved dilemma discussions and training simulations involving real life dilemmas the officers might encounter. Analysis of moral change during the intervention revealed that non-significant change was found in the responses to the standard Kohlberg dilemma; however, significant change was found in terms of the shift in responses to the police dilemmas ($t = 2.102$, $df = 9$). These dilemmas were designed to be "real life" situations that the officers might encounter; therefore, the stage growth related to this dilemma might be expected to exceed growth related to the Kohlberg dilemmas. These results suggest a form of horizontal decalage, whereby subjects who did not change in terms of moral judgment did change in their responses to dilemmas in a specific area (Scharf et al., 1978). Police officer responses in this study were indications of what they would actually do given the "real life" situations presented; therefore, interventions using moral discussion about relevant dilemmas may promote more mature moral thinking and action among participants.

Despite the dearth of information regarding the relationship between level of moral development and police officer performance or morality, studies mentioned previously that examine moral development in other helping professions such as nursing and teaching may be applicable to the public service profession of law enforcement as well. Many of the qualities required of nurses and teachers in the performance of their duties such as effective communication, ability to respond to crises, ability to remain within ethical guidelines, and ability to establish rapport are qualities which are also necessary for effective performance within the law enforcement profession.
In the domain of conceptual development, Miller (1981) reviewed over 60 studies which used Hunt's Conceptual Systems Test to measure cognitive complexity. Miller found that individuals at higher levels of cognitive complexity exhibited behaviors including: a reduction in prejudice, greater empathic communication, more internal locus of control, and enhanced information processing skills. All of these qualities might improve police officers' effectiveness in dealing with the public, problem solving, and their ability to resist peer pressure.

Bruch, Juster, and Heisler (1982) maintained that individuals high in cognitive complexity are able to better discriminate stimuli in a multidimensional manner. In addition, these individuals possess more complex structures, enabling them to integrate dissonant information, which enhances their ability to make varied interpretations of the same event. Bruch et al. (1982) further asserted that "if people evaluate stressful or troublesome situations in a more complex fashion, this style may facilitate their capability to suspend judgment or to reinterpret initially distressing events in a manner that fosters a more adaptive final appraisal" (p. 344).

Bruch et al. (1982) conducted a study in which they tested whether relationships exist between subjects' level of conceptual complexity and the focus of subjects' thought content as manifested in their attribution judgments and self-referenced speech about problem situations. The study also focused on whether a relationship exists between conceptual complexity and negative feelings when focusing on these situations. It was hypothesized that individuals who exhibited lower conceptual complexity would exhibit a greater degree of negative emotional arousal to problem situations.
The intervention involved exposing subjects to negative or problematic situations through imagery procedures. Subjects were given practice in imagining scenes; then while listening to scene descriptions, they were asked to project themselves into these situations. Subjects were then asked to assess any thoughts and feelings accompanying their imagery. Because of the possibility that self-report may be prone to effects from subject differences in social desirability response set, correlations between social desirability scores and variance on independent and dependent measures were computed to evaluate this threat to internal validity.

A total of 59 females and 47 males from undergraduate educational psychology classes completed the Paragraph Completion Method (PCM), an instrument measuring conceptual complexity. Protocols for each gender were divided into high and low complexity groups. The final sample consisted of 24 females (12 high complexity; 12 low complexity) and 24 males (12 high complexity; 12 low complexity). These individuals served as paid volunteers. Subjects participated in the experiment on an individual basis.

Subjects, after practice with imagining scenarios, were given six situations. Following each scene they were asked four questions about the scene: 1) What are you imagining? 2) How do you feel in this situation? 3) What are you thinking about? and 4) What would you do next in this situation? Among the six scenes, there were three social rejection situations, two stressful academic performance situations, and one neutral scene. Subjects' responses were tape recorded to provide records from which thought content could be rated based on the following criteria: positive self-referent; negative self-referent; positive task referent; and negative task referent. Self-referent statements refer to
verbalizations about feelings or personal characteristics; task referent statements refer to verbalizations about a particular action the subject was taking or intended to take.

After subjects answered the four probe questions, they were instructed to complete two instruments: the Multiple Affect Adjective Check List (MAACL) used to assess subjects' negative emotional reactivity (reliability and validity were not given) and an attribution questionnaire in which subjects rated on a Likert scale the degree to which various causal factors contributed to the outcome of each situation in the imagery exercise. Questionnaire responses were scored for a subject's orientation toward both internal and external causes (no reliability or validity information was given). Prior to debriefing, subjects were administered the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale to obtain an estimate of their social desirability response set (no reliability or validity information was given).

Social desirability scale scores were correlated with the PCM scores, the MAACL scores, and the attribution questionnaire responses to test whether this response set was associated with scores on these variables. There were no significant correlations between the social desirability scale and these variables.

A multivariate analysis of variance of conceptual complexity group differences was conducted on the 10 subscores of the attribution questionnaire as an overall test for a significant difference between group means. Differences between the high and the low conceptual complexity group's tendency to attribute negative outcomes more to internal or external causal factors were evaluated by univariate F tests. Tape-recorded responses to the questions that followed imagery of each scene were rated by two trained raters.
Results indicated that differences due to conceptual complexity occurred in all three categories of dependent measures: cognitive responses regarding causal attributions for negative outcomes (internal vs. external); self-statements that were evaluated on four types of content - positive self-referent, negative self-referent, positive task referent, negative task referent; and emotional arousal. High conceptual complexity individuals placed more emphasis on internal than external causal factors. Low conceptual complexity individuals made significantly more negative task statements which may be associated with a tendency to infer that situations are more likely to lead to negative responses in their own behavior and the behavior of others. High conceptual complexity individuals evidenced more appropriate thought content than low conceptual complexity individuals. There was an inverse relationship between conceptual complexity level and the amount of negative feelings reported. High conceptual complexity subjects evidenced less of an increase in negative affect when presented with stress-evoking imagery.

Because these subjects were volunteers and not chosen on the basis of pre-existing problems with social or performance anxiety, these results cannot be evaluated in terms of dysfunctional thinking and emotional expression. They can, however, be viewed in terms of the relationship between level of conceptual complexity and thought content and negative affect in college students. The omission of reliability and validity data for the three dependent measures limits reliance on these results as conclusive; however, this study does indicate that higher levels of conceptual complexity may be associated with more complex evaluation of problem situations and less negative emotional reactions when
encountering distressing situations.

Holloway and Wolleat (1980) studied the relationship between clinical hypothesis formation and the conceptual level of counselor education students. Thirty-seven first-semester students were administered the Paragraph Completion Method (PCM), a measure of conceptual development.

One month after the PCM administration, subjects watched a 20 minute videotape of five segments of an initial counseling session. The students then had 45 minutes to complete the Clinical Assessment Questionnaire (CAQ), an instrument which elicits information about counselors' hypotheses about a client's problem. The CAQ consists of five written tasks directing the counselor about formulating hypotheses about the client's problems. The CAQ is scored for the presence or absence of six theoretically relevant categories of clinical hypothesis formation. An overall category, rating the hypothesis and substantiation for general quality of thought and clarity of expression, was added by the investigators.

Professional raters scored the PCM (interrater reliability ranged between .85-.90). Experienced counselors trained by the investigators scored the CAQ. Interrater reliability for categories 1-6 ranged from .85-.95 and .65 for the overall category.

Multiple regression statistical analyses were used to test for a relationship between conceptual level and professional experience and hypothesis formation ability. There was a positive, significant relationship between subjects' conceptual level and their ability to formulate clinical hypotheses and in their posing of divergent questions regarding clients' behavior.
No studies could be found that examined the relationship between conceptual complexity and characteristics of law enforcement officers; however, because many rookie police officers are college-age individuals, findings from the Bruch et al. study mentioned previously might be generalized to the population of rookie police officers. Results from this study showed that higher conceptual complexity may translate to more complex problem evaluation, which might improve police officers' conceptual ability as they approach the varied tasks they are required to fulfill. Also, as mentioned previously, police officers often engage in a variety of roles including social worker, counselor, crisis interventionist, and public relations officer. Therefore, studies related to counselor development are relevant in that a higher level of conceptual complexity as it translates to more effective performance on counselor-related tasks also applies to some of the roles undertaken by many police officers requiring rapport building and hypothesis formulation in dealing with citizens.

Critique of Cognitive Developmental Theory

A review of the literature revealed two major criticisms of cognitive developmental theory. The first criticism deals with unequal access to social resources necessary for cognitive developmental growth to occur and the second deals with the hard versus soft stage debate.

Unequal Access to Social Resources

Kohlberg maintained that Kant's categorical imperative - act only as you would be willing that everyone should act in the same situation - is a principle free from culturally defined context, transcending and subsuming particular social laws; therefore, it has
universal applicability (Kohlberg & Mayer, 1972). Braun and Baribeau (1978) criticized this view, stating that morality is inseparable from life within real cultures, economies, and struggles to make meaning of social contradictions. Giarelli (1982) stated that it is not the abstractness or universalism of cognitive developmental theories that are problematic, but their failure to take into account the social and political structures they support and that are required to support them. In other words, the theories fail to address the limited access of some populations to the social factors such as reciprocity, role-taking, and experience in formal and abstract social relations that cognitive developmental theory proposes are necessary for growth. Cognitive developmental theory is limited by its failure to relate the patterns of individual cognitive and moral development to patterns of specific social and political organization (Giarelli, 1982). Snarey (1985) also maintained that reasoning at stage 5 or above may be missing from traditional folk societies because values such as collective solidarity are missing from the scoring manual’s examples of reasoning at higher stages. Broughton (1981) cautioned that in levying these criticisms, we must distinguish between judgments of the stage theory and judgment of the particular structures of reasoning and thought that are influenced by social factors. If indeed the problem lies within the social factors that influence development of more advanced structures of reasoning, both Snarey (1985) and Giarelli (1982) recommended that the cognitive developmental focus must be broadened outside the realm of education to address social factors such as limited access to resources necessary for cognitive development to occur. Social and political reform, in addition to educational reform, might be required for development of higher level cognitive skills (Giarelli, 1982).
In response to the issue of differential social experience and access, Rest (1986a) contended that there are fundamental conceptions that structure human understanding of the social world such as: awareness of individual differences in social power and capacity; awareness that each self has an internal consciousness along with his or her own point of view; awareness of human relationships of affection, loyalty, and mutual caring; and awareness of group expectations and norms, social roles, customs, and laws. Rest maintained that the cognitive developmentalist would argue that these kinds of conceptions are fundamental to representing and organizing social experience in every culture and are equally relevant in every society. Rest found the similarities between cultures much more striking than the differences between them. Furthermore, the DIT, unlike Kohlberg’s test, does identify principled reasoning in non-Western populations; this may be due to the difference in task requirements of recognition versus having to formulate a response at a scorable level (Rest, 1986a).

**Hard Versus Soft Stage Debate**

The hard versus soft stage debate questions whether individuals really operate only in one stage at a time or whether there are elements of other stages present. Brainerd (1978) and others have questioned the hard stage conceptualization of cognitive developmental theorists such as Piaget and Kohlberg. Although studies have shown that children make swift mental gains at about the ages Piaget stated, learning theorists maintain that children continuously gain specific knowledge yet do not undergo stage-like increases in general mental ability (Coon, 1997). Rest (1986a, 1986b) addressed the issue of soft stage rather than hard stage movement with the development of a fluid model of
stage movement which is assessed with the Defining Issues Test. Hunt et al.'s (1978) system for assessing conceptual level with the Paragraph Completion Method also involved movement along a continuum of stages, rather than placing individuals in one specific stage. Furthermore, Kohlberg reformulated his hard stage stance in later years to incorporate "stage adjacent" reasoning (Levine et al., 1985).

**Self-Monitoring Theory and Self-Presentation Theory**

Social behavior is influenced by many interactive factors. Two characteristics which influence social behavior have been studied by social psychologists: 1) the individual's inner directives (needs, desires, values) and 2) the individual's perceptions of how others expect him/her to behave (Johnson, 1989). When inner directives conflict with social expectations, dissonance occurs which challenges the individual to decide whether to follow inner directives or act in accordance with social expectations. If inner directives are followed, the individual reduces intrapersonal conflict, yet risks social disapproval. If the individual conforms to social demands, social disapproval is minimized, however intrapersonal conflict may increase. Self-monitoring theory (Snyder, 1974, 1979) focuses on the dilemma of choosing between inner directives and social expectations and the individual's skill in regulating self-presentation. Snyder proposed that people differ in their tendencies to follow their inner directives versus social expectations and designed the Self-Monitoring Scale to measure these differences (Johnson, 1989). Snyder delineated two styles of self-presentation: the high self-monitor and the low self-monitor.

Snyder (1987) proposed that high self-monitors respond out of concern for social appropriateness and are sensitive to the cues of others to guide their own responses. High
self-monitors have a low tolerance for ambiguity, and Snyder maintained that “high self-monitors ought to choose situations that have good scripts with explicit stage directions” (p. 52). In other words, high self-monitors choose situations where instructions for behavior and response are explicit, and they receive their cues for behavior and response from those around them in any given situation.

Low self-monitors rely on a principled conception of self. Low self-monitors are reluctant to compromise their identities and values for other people and resist bending “to the will of circumstance” (Snyder, 1987, p. 50). Low self-monitors remain true to themselves and their relationships, valuing character more than appearances (Howells, 1993).

Criticisms of the Self-Monitoring Scale are that the scale is multidimensional and that psychometric studies of the scale indicate a lack of congruence between the scale and its construct (Briggs & Cheek, 1986; Briggs, Cheek & Buss, 1980; Gabrenya & Arkin, 1980). In response to this criticism, Lennox and Wolfe (1984) developed the Concern for Appropriateness Scale (CFA) which is intended to measure individuals' tendencies to comply with social expectations. The Concern for Appropriateness Scale has also been shown to be a measure of the protective self-presentation style associated with conformity as described by Arkin (1981).

Arkin's (1981) theory of self-presentation described two styles of self-presentation in social situations, protective and acquisitive. The protective style is adopted to avoid social disapproval. It is associated with social anxiety and conformity. The acquisitive style is adopted to enhance favored treatment by acquiring social approval. Even though
circumstances may determine which style is adopted in given situations, individual
differences in reliance on either style exist (Wolfe, Lennox, & Cutler, 1986). If these
tendencies can be accurately assessed, distinctive patterns of motivation and affect within
individuals who rely on either style can be revealed (Wolfe et al., 1986).

Wolfe et al. (1986) reported two studies that showed that CFA scores are
positively correlated with measures of social anxiety, importance of social identity,
sociability, and self-reported conformity to peer pressure to use alcohol and marijuana.

Cutler and Wolfe (1985) reported internal consistency of the CFA as .82 - .89
(coefficient alpha). Three week test-retest reliability has been reported as .84 (Johnson,
1989).

Johnson (1989) investigated the validity of the Concern for Appropriateness Scale
in measuring tendency to conform to group pressure. The study was conducted in two
phases. In phase one, 138 general psychology undergraduates (67 men and 71 women)
completed the CFA in class. During phase two, subjects were categorized as high concern
and low concern. The high and low concern students were asked to volunteer for the
experiment. Sixty-three subjects participated in phase two, 34 in the high concern group
and 29 in the low concern group. Men and women were proportionately distributed
between the two groups.

During the intervention phase of the study, subjects were taken to a room where
they met two other subjects (trained confederates) who had a list of responses to questions
the participants had already completed during the pretest. The confederates had been
trained to create an air of agreeability by using friendly conversation and eye contact.
Confederates communicated the benefit of all group members having similar values by saying things such as "I think it is important to share similar values with other students." The purpose of this conversation was to communicate the need to get along via shared attitudes.

Subsequently, an interviewer entered the room. Confederates and interviewers were blind as to whether the subject was in a high or low concern group. The interviewer asked the participants to give their opinion about a series of 12 value issues previously answered by the subject in class. Eight of the value issues were the same for all subjects. The other four value issues consisted of two identified earlier by subjects as important issues and two identified as unimportant. Subjects were instructed to give their opinions using a Likert scale ranging from very acceptable to very unacceptable.

Confederates gave the same answer on all of the subjects' responses except on the four critical issues. By giving the same answers on most of the questions, confederates communicated group solidarity and agreement with the subject; the purpose in giving different answers on the four critical questions was to influence the subject to conform to group-held values. Subjects' conformity scores were determined by giving 1 point for each scale point deviation in the direction of the confederate's response from the subject's response during the pretest. Conformity scores could range from no conformity to complete conformity. During debriefing, none of the subjects indicated that they knew they were being deceived.

A 2 x 2 (Concern Group x Value Importance) ANOVA with repeated measures over value importance indicated statistically significant main effects for concern group, F
(1, 59) = 6.27, p < .01, value importance, F (1, 59) = 5.02, p < .01, and a statistically significant interaction, F (1, 59) = 22.61, p < .01. There was no significant difference for the low concern group between important and unimportant values; however, the high concern group did show a significant difference between important and unimportant values with greater conformity for unimportant issues. There was no significant difference between the low and high concern groups for important values; however, a significant difference was found between the high and low concern group for unimportant values with greater conformity in the high concern group. Overall, participants tended to conform more in situations involving unimportant values than those involving important values.

The fact that the subjects were volunteers in an undergraduate psychology course limits the generalizability of these results. However, the results seem to correspond with the idea that low concern individuals may adhere to internal stimuli as suggested by Wolfe et al. (1986) and therefore, are better able to resist peer pressure to conform.

Information about an individual's self-monitoring or self-presentation style as measured by assessing level of concern for appropriateness may contribute to understanding another component of moral behavior and its relationship to moral reasoning. Developing an understanding of the level of concern for appropriateness of law enforcement officers may indicate their susceptibility to conform to peer pressure to engage in corrupt activities. Also, descriptions of high self-monitors versus low self-monitors include insight about tolerance for ambiguity and the need for social cues to guide behavior. Such insight may be helpful when assessing the conceptual complexity of law enforcement officers who will, no doubt, face many ambiguous situations, requiring an
appropriate and effective decision and response without the assistance of others to provide cues.

**Deliberate Psychological Education**

Powell, Locke, and Sprinthall (1991) maintained that education in and of itself is not sufficient, rather it must be “education with a particular goal, a particular content, and a particular style” (p. 192). Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall (1983) identified five essential elements needed by educational programs to promote development as follows:

1. A significant new role-taking experience as a helper in a real world context (e.g., law enforcement, nursing, teaching, counseling, etc.).

2. Careful and continuous guided reflection where the individual is afforded the opportunity to reflect upon new experiences and receive guidance through instructor responses to journals or verbal processing.

3. A balance between experience and reflection.

4. Continuous programs that allow enough time for significant cognitive structural growth to occur. Mosher & Sullivan (1976) proposed that at least a six-month period with weekly meetings is generally required for significant growth to occur. However, other research has shown that although short-term treatments (less than three weeks duration) are ineffective, longer duration treatments (13 - 28 weeks) have no more effect than medium duration treatments (4 - 12 weeks) (Rest, 1986a; Schaefli, Rest & Thoma, 1985).

5. Adequate support and challenge where the instructor balances support for the learner as he or she experiences disequilibrium with challenge or facilitation of the
learner's trying new behaviors, ideas, and ways of approaching problems. This developmental model of education is known as the Deliberate Psychological Education (DPE) model.

Studies using DPE interventions support the effectiveness of the DPE model in promoting growth among several cognitive developmental domains. Sprinthall (1994) conducted a meta-analysis of 11 field studies employing the DPE model. Ten of the studies assessed development in two domains. The ten studies assessing moral development used the Moral Judgment Interview or the Defining Issues Test. Other cognitive developmental measures used were Loevinger's Sentence Completion Test (ego development) and Hunt's Paragraph Completion Method (conceptual development). Sprinthall combined the effect sizes for the ego and conceptual domain assessments, reasoning that the assessment method for these domains is highly similar (both use projective measures requiring the individual to generate responses to questions or sentence stems). Sprinthall found significant effect sizes for moral development assessment (+.85) and ego/conceptual development assessment (+1.10).

According to Sprinthall, generalizability of these studies was enhanced because the educational programs were independent of the measures in content and process. Also, ten of the studies used two different measures of the dependent variable which established cross-validation for the treatment's effectiveness. In addition, samples varied in terms of socioeconomic status, ethnicity, geographic region, and types of schools and colleges. Approximately half of the studies were quasi-experimental designs, which can be considered a weakness of the studies; however, Cohen, Kulik, and Kulik (1982)
conducted a meta analysis involving 500 studies which found no differences in effect size by true versus quasi-experimental designs.

Although cognitive developmentalists initially believed that development did not occur after early adulthood (Sprinthall, 1994), recent literature points to a growing consensus among psychologists that growth occurs into the adult years, particularly as a result of lifelong interactions between the individual and the environment (Noam, 1988). Kohlberg also revised his theory to account for development in adulthood; therefore, DPE programs can also be geared toward adult populations.

Role-taking is one of the developmental conditions that is most crucial to the advancement of moral thought. Role-taking differentiates social experience from "mere interaction" (Day, 1991, p. 306). Adults taking on new roles (such as law enforcement officer) can benefit in their training or educational preparation for these roles from the experience of support and challenge offered by educational models such as the DPE.

Calls for law enforcement training to incorporate more emphasis on ethics have been cited. Applying the DPE framework to law enforcement ethics training may facilitate developmental growth in moral reasoning and conceptual complexity among police trainees. Hunt’s (1971) Conceptual Level Matching Model (CLMM) as previously described can be incorporated into a DPE program to facilitate conceptual development. The instructor must initially match the level of structure within the learning environment to the student’s level of conceptual complexity through the contemporary or satisfying match. The satisfying match is accomplished by reflecting on student contributions to discussion without challenging the student. Eventually, the learning environment must
provide the stimulating match, challenging the student and gradually lessening structure in the learning environment, thereby creating the dissonance that facilitates movement to higher levels of cognitive development.

Kohlberg proposed throughout his writings that moral reasoning can be taught (Kohlberg, 1969; Kohlberg, 1975; Kohlberg & Turiel, 1971). The moral discussion approach outlined by Galbraith and Jones (1976) attempts to arouse moral conflict within students by presenting them with open-ended dilemmas for which there is no clear, agreed upon morally correct answer. Students are required to deliberate about the dilemmas and present reasons in support of their moral decisions. Students are challenged to justify their choices, not merely to state them. Classes are arranged (small groups) so that students are exposed to moral reasoning one stage above their own, thus generating a level of dissonance that may promote growth (Harris, 1977).

In addition to role-taking opportunities, another important factor in the development of moral reasoning stressed by cognitive developmental theory is the experience of cognitive moral conflict. Movement to the next stage occurs through reflective reorganization when the individual senses contradiction in his/her current meaning-making system. Experiences of cognitive moral conflict can occur through exposure to situations that arouse internal contradiction or through exposure to the discrepant moral reasoning of others such as teachers or peers (Kohlberg, 1976).

Research has supported the moral discussion method of promoting development in moral reasoning (Beck, Sullivan, & Taylor, 1972; Blatt & Kohlberg, 1975). Houston (1983) investigated whether moral instruction affected moral reasoning and moral
behavior. In a study investigating the effect of moral instruction on cheating behavior, Houston sought to answer whether moral instruction must be directly relevant to the behavior in question for the instruction to affect that behavior. Ninety-six undergraduate paid volunteers participated in three sessions which took place over three weeks. In the first session, all subjects engaged in a short free-recall task and evaluated three moral dilemmas. The purpose of this session was to determine the comparability of the various groups in terms of recall ability and moral thought. For the second session, subjects were to meet in three groups of 32 during three successive time periods. Subjects were randomly assigned to either a related instruction, unrelated instruction, or no instruction condition. Subjects in the related and unrelated conditions engaged in a 45 minute group discussion of three dilemmas. The experimenter attempted to elicit, encourage, restate, and refine Kohlberg Level III type thinking; discussions in the related condition involved cheating dilemmas. Subjects in the no instruction situation did not engage in instructional discussion, they merely responded to dilemmas without discussion.

Following moral discussion, subjects in the related and unrelated groups were handed sheets containing the dilemmas just discussed, with instructions to write down what they finally felt should be done and why, even though there were no right answers. After recording their interpretation of the dilemmas, some subjects were immediately administered a recall test while others returned on another day to complete the recall test.

As an incentive to cheat on the recall test and to minimize fear of detection, bonus money was promised for superior performance, and subjects were informed that many individuals managed to recall almost all of the words. During the recall test it was possible
to cheat by recording correct words that appeared to have been carelessly printed on the reverse side of the recall sheet. These words were barely visible, but could be discerned with effort.

Moral thought scores were compiled by having two judges independently rate the subjects' responses to dilemmas, giving each response a score from one to six corresponding to Kohlberg's six stages. Interrater reliability was reported at .89. The mean moral thought scores for all groups ranged from 3.79 to 4.29. These scores were comparable to or slightly higher than those obtained by Kohlberg (1973) for a similar age group.

An analysis of variance indicated that the groups receiving moral instruction (both related and unrelated to cheating) displayed a higher level of post-instruction moral thought than the no-instruction group (significant main effect; $F(2, 90) = 14.33$, $p < .01$). There was a significant interaction between type of instruction and immediate vs. delayed recall ($F(2, 90) = 3.80$, $p < .05$). The related instruction group who took the test immediately after instruction generated a mean which was significantly less than all of the remaining means. Results suggested that cheating was reduced in the related instruction - immediate recall condition.

Tentative conclusions were that moral instruction affects moral reasoning (subjects displayed higher levels after instruction), but a change in behavior occurred only when moral instruction was relevant to that behavior and only when a test of that behavior was made immediately. This study involved only a single 45-minute discussion session which generated a significant behavioral change in one group. Additional discussions (longer
term intervention) and follow-up would be needed to determine the lasting effects of this change. Because the subjects were college student volunteers, other studies would be needed to corroborate that this phenomenon is possible in other populations and situations (Houston, 1983).

Powell et al. (1991) asserted that discussions of moral dilemmas in educational programs must be relevant to the student. They raised the issue that environmental social conditions that often promote lower levels of moral reasoning (such as in prison or among corrupt police officers) may often overpower or negate any growth resulting from discussion of "generic" moral dilemmas such as those used in the Moral Judgment Interview.

Powell et al. (1991) created an intervention in which they attempted to implement and evaluate a cognitive developmental intervention program for female inmates and their guards. Assessment instruments used were the Defining Issues Test (Rest) and the Sentence Completion Method (Loevinger). The three-story version of the DIT and an 18 item Sentence Completion Test were administered on a pretest posttest basis.

Subjects were 42 female inmates and 11 guards at a southern correctional center for women. Inmates were randomly assigned to either a control or an experimental group. All subjects were serving at least a seven year sentence and were convicted of a major offense. Because of the small size of the guard sample, no control group was used.

For the guards, the program consisted of a modified dilemma discussion format from August to May. Sessions consisted of weekly two hour meetings. For the inmates, the program was offered from January to May. The same instructional teams and basic
class organizational format was used for both groups.

The content for the dilemma discussions included classical Kohlberg dilemmas and practical contemporary dilemmas which might be faced by group members. Analytic discussions, excerpts from films with prepared handouts underlining important issues, dilemma discussions, and current event discussions were included in the program format. The goal was to impact the reasoning level of each subject and the moral judgment atmosphere of the group as a whole.

For the female inmates, a two-group pretest posttest analysis of gain scores on the two dependent variables of moral judgment and ego development revealed differences in gain scores between the experimental (13.16) and control group (7.98) \( (t = 1.70, p < .05) \) for moral judgment and a gain of .851 for the experimental group versus -0.256 for the control group on the ego development scale \( (t = 3.223, p < .01) \). The one-semester intervention raised both the level of moral judgment and the level of ego development for the experimental group. There was little or no change indicated for the control group.

The direct difference method was used for the group of guards, because there was no control group. There was a gain on the pretest and posttest scores for moral development for the guards \( (10.42; t = 4.14, p < .001.) \). On the ego development measure, pretest posttest gain was 1.09; \( t = 2.76, p < .01 \) which can be considered to be statistically significant. Follow-up information after two years continued to lend support to the overall effectiveness of the program.

A weakness of the study is the lack of a control group for the guard sample. Another consideration that might be a confound to this study is the fact that women in
both groups were also enrolled in other college credit courses offered on site. These academic programs might account for some of the observed changes. However, as Powell et al. pointed out, a combination of academic programs and programs focused on ethical reasoning and self-development might produce overall positive effects, which further promotes the benefits of incorporating programs designed to promote cognitive development (moral, conceptual, ego, etc.) into higher education.

Summary

The preceding review of the literature has attempted to explain current law enforcement training in light of the need for modifications such as an increased emphasis on ethics education. The overarching framework of cognitive developmental theory was presented as an introductory understanding of cognitive growth in several domains, including moral and conceptual development. Moral developmental theory as it relates development of moral reasoning to moral behavior and conceptual developmental theory as it relates conceptual complexity to more adaptive functioning were presented. It was established that higher levels of cognitive development, specifically moral and conceptual development, were more adequate and functional levels of development. Self-monitoring theory and self-presentation theory were described as auxiliary frameworks that might facilitate insight into other components of moral behavior and the relationship of concern for appropriateness to moral development and conceptual complexity. Deliberate Psychological Education was described as a model that has been effectively applied in the creation of educational programs designed to promote cognitive developmental growth. This research attempted to facilitate the moral and conceptual development of police
trainees within an undergraduate criminal justice course utilizing the Deliberate Psychological Education model, while also investigating the relationship between concern for appropriateness and moral and conceptual development.
Chapter Three

Research Design and Methodology

The design and methodology of the study will be described within the following sections:

1. Population and Sample
2. Research Design
3. Data Gathering
4. Instrumentation
5. Hypotheses
6. Data Analysis
7. Critique
8. Ethical Considerations

Population and Sample

The target population for this study is American law enforcement officers. The sample came from an accessible population of law enforcement officer trainees at a criminal justice academy in southeast Virginia and an accessible population of college students at a junior college in southeast Virginia. The sample consisted of 33 police trainees who were completing their training in the police academy and 31 students enrolled in a criminal justice course at a junior college. Ages for the sample (police trainees and students) ranged from 17 to 54, with a mean age of 25. Police trainees ranged in age from 22 to 54, with a mean age of 30. College students ranged in age from 17 to 25, with a mean age of 20. Forty-six participants (72%) were male and 18 participants (28%) were
female. Of the police trainees, two (6%) were female and 31 (94%) were male. Of the college students, 16 (52%) were female and 15 (48%) were male.

For the entire sample, 49 (76%) participants were White, ten (16%) were Black, three (5%) were Native American, and two (3%) were Hispanic. Of the police trainees, 22 (67%) were White, eight (24%) were Black, two (6%) were Native American, and one (3%) was Hispanic. Of the college students, 27 (87%) were White, two (7%) were Black, one (3%) was Native American, and one (3%) was Hispanic.

Research Design

The design of this study was quasi-experimental. Police trainees and college students were enrolled in a criminal justice course at a junior college. The length of police academy training is one semester; requirements for graduation from the academy include successful completion of an undergraduate course in criminal justice offered at the local junior college. The criminal justice course meets twice weekly for two hours and fifteen minutes for a period of ten weeks. The college students were enrolled in the same course for elective credit toward their degree. Sixteen police trainees and 16 college students were enrolled in the course during the fall semester when it was taught using a Deliberate Psychological Education Model (see chapter four for description of the intervention). Seventeen police trainees and 15 college students served as the comparison group and were enrolled in the criminal justice course during the spring semester following the intervention. The course for the comparison group was taught using the lecture method, with minimal student discussion. The sample was an intact sample of police trainees and students; therefore, participants were not randomly selected or assigned to the intervention.
and comparison courses.

The course for the intervention group was taught by the criminal justice professor and by the researcher who was responsible for implementing the Deliberate Psychological Education Model; i.e., leading discussions and responding to writing assignments (see Appendix B for illustration of discussion exercises and writing assignments). The course for the comparison group was taught by the criminal justice professor without the assistance of the researcher and did not include the elements of the DPE model.

Since completion of this course is part of a one-semester training period for the police academy which runs training rotations every spring and fall, each group of trainees took the course with relatively the same level of experience. Therefore, the results should not be affected by length or level of training of recruits taking the course in different semesters.

Data Gathering

A demographics questionnaire, the Defining Issues Test (DIT), the Paragraph Completion Method (PCM), the Concern For Appropriateness Scale (CFA), and a test taking motivation questionnaire were administered to the police trainees and students in both the intervention and the comparison groups on two occasions, once at the beginning of the semester and once at the end of the semester. The instruments and questionnaires are found in Appendix A. The intervention was part of the regular course design; therefore, participation in course requirements such as small group discussion and writing assignments comprised credit for class participation. Students and trainees were offered the opportunity to complete course requirements through an independent study if they...
chose not to participate in classroom activities. Completion of the instruments was voluntary. All responses and data were maintained in a confidential manner. Results are reported as group means rather than individual scores. Instruments were identified with a code of the participants' choice, thereby assuring anonymity. Because of the potential that the students and police trainees may not have taken the test seriously (it is not part of their course grade), a short Likert scale questionnaire was included to ask for participant self-report regarding degree of interest and care in completing the instruments.

Instrumentation

The Defining Issues Test (DIT) was used to measure level of moral reasoning; the Paragraph Completion Method (PCM) was used to measure level of conceptual complexity; the Concern For Appropriateness Scale (CFA) was used to measure tendency to comply with social expectations; and the test motivation questionnaire was used to discern respondent sincerity in completing the instruments.

Defining Issues Test (DIT)

The DIT assesses the level of moral reasoning or judgment based on Kohlberg's theory of moral development. The DIT consists of six moral dilemmas followed by 12 items for each dilemma which represent possible considerations in deciding each issue. The subject rates each item according to its value in making a decision about the dilemma on a five point Likert scale ranging from no importance to great importance. Once the subject has rated each of the 12 items, he/she must rank order the four items that were most important in making a decision about the dilemma. Scores for each dilemma are determined by rating the ranking of items for each dilemma along Kohlberg's scales 2, 3, 4,
5a, 5b, and 6. Aggregate scores across dilemmas for stages 5a, 5b, and 6 provide the P-index which represents the individual's use of principled reasoning in his or her decision making. This score is typically presented in terms of a percentage and can range from 0 to 95 (Rest, 1986b).

The N score includes a calculation of the information given by the P score; however, the N score also incorporates information about the discrimination and rejection of the lower stages. Discrimination is measured in terms of the average rating given to items at stages 2 and 3 subtracted from the average rating given to items at stages 5 and 6. The distance of stages 2 + 3 from stages 5 + 6 is the measure of discrimination. Average ratings are standardized by dividing this difference (stages 5 + 6 - stages 2 + 3) by the subject's standard deviation of stages 2 + 3 + 5 + 6 (Rest, Thoma et al., 1996).

The DIT includes several subscales. Two subscales, the M-score, which indicates the extent to which subjects endorse lofty sounding but meaningless statements, and a Consistency Check, which compares ratings and rankings to identify random responses, provide checks to invalidate questionnaires that exceed the cutoff on either of these scales. The A-score provides evidence of antiestablishment attitude, "a point of view which condemns tradition and the existing social order for its arbitrariness or its corruption by the rich for the exploitation of the poor" (Rest, 1986b, p. 4.2). In the past, there was an emerging interest in the antiestablishment orientation as a possible transition phase between conventional morality and principled morality. Items were included in the DIT to enable some preliminary study of this transition; however, not much work has been done along this line. For most purposes, the A score has been disregarded (Rest, 1986b).
Validity

According to Rest (1986b), "moral judgment is a psychological construct that cannot be validated or invalidated by a single kind of finding. It is a construct with many empirical implications. It is validated by a variety of studies and findings or by 'construct' validation" (p. 5.1). There is considerable support for the construct validity of the DIT. Longitudinal studies have shown change in the direction of "higher stages" for subjects who are retested (Davison, 1979; Rest, 1986b; Rest, 1979; Rest, Davison, & Robbins, 1978). Years of formal education also correlate highly with the DIT (Rest, 1986b).

Concurrent validity of the DIT is reported as high as .70 and averaging at .50 when correlated with Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Interview and the Comprehension of Moral Concepts Test (Davison, 1979; Rest, 1979). The DIT is related to but distinct from general cognitive capacity. Correlations between the DIT and measures of non-moral cognitive development including IQ and achievement tests only reach as high as the .50's and average .36 (Davison, 1979; Rest, 1979). There is support for the DIT's divergent validity (lack of correlation with theoretically dissimilar measures). The DIT is not consistently related to attitudes, values, social desirability, or most personality measures. The DIT is a measure of moral judgment rather than morality. As predicted, the correlation between the DIT and moral behavior is significant, but not strong, with most correlations ranging between .30 and .40 (Rest, 1994).

Reliability

Test-retest reliabilities for the P score are generally in the high .70s or .80s (intervals ranging from one week to five months). Cronbach's alpha index of internal
consistency is generally in the high .70s (Rest, 1986b).

The three stories in the short form were chosen because they had the highest correlation of any 3-story combination with the full 6 story test. The P Score from the short version (P-3) correlates .93 with the P score of the 6 story version using a sample of 160 subjects. Using a larger sample of 1,080 subjects, the 6 story P correlates at .91 with the 3 story P (Rest, 1986b). Rest (1986b) maintained that the short form has basically the same attributes as the longer version.

Some examples of studies involving comparisons of the N and P index are as follows:

- In correlations of indices with level of education (n = 1115) P = .66; N = .69.
- Pre-post gains on the DIT in educational interventions (n = 55) P = 9.24; N = 10.67; (n = 213) P = 7.88; N = 6.96; (n = 116) P = 4.38; N = 5.35; (n = 134) P = 3.62; N = 3.00.
- Correlations of DIT with attitudes and behavior:
  Political tolerance (n = 160) P = .59; N = .62
  Law & Order Attitude (n = 160) P = -.58; N = -.57
  Civic Responsibility (n = 102) P = .44; N = .47
- Internal reliability (n = 1115) P = .76; N = .76
- Summary of first place in studies using both the P and N index: P(6); N(16).

Even when N is in second place for some studies of a particular type, it is generally in first place in other studies of that type (Rest, Davison, & Evens, 1996).
Paragraph Completion Method (PCM)

The Paragraph Completion Method was developed by Hunt, Butler, Noy, and Rosser (1978) to assess conceptual level. The PCM is a semi-projective instrument developed to index an individual's position on a continuum of conceptual level, rather than to place that individual within a discrete stage. Respondents are encouraged to write at least three sentences on six open-ended topics which are designed to elicit responses that reveal what individuals think about rule structure and authority relations and how they handle conflict or uncertainty. A person's conceptual level is calculated as a composite of six scores established by trained raters. These raters assign a score from 0-3 (corresponding to Hunt's levels of conceptual development) to each subject's responses. The total score is determined by averaging the three highest responses.

Validity

Concurrent validity was reported in the .20 - .30 range when correlated with tests of intelligence and at .40 when correlated with the Kohlberg Moral Maturity Scale (Hunt, 1970; Hunt et al., 1978).

Reliability

With trained raters, the interrater reliability from 26 studies was reported as median r of .86. One year test-retest reliability for studies involving subjects grades six through eleven was reported as ranging from .45 to .56 (Hunt et al., 1978). The rater scoring the instruments for this study was trained at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education in 1982. She has conducted training workshops for scoring the PCM at North Carolina State University. As a protocol for scoring, the rater used Hunt et al.'s (1978)
Assessing Conceptual Level by the Paragraph Completion Method.

Concern For Appropriateness Scale (CFA)

The Concern For Appropriateness Scale was developed by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) to measure tendencies to comply with social expectations. The CFA consists of 20 items which assess the tendency to adopt a protective self-presentation style; one manifestation of this style is a high degree of situation-appropriate behavior. The CFA contains two subscales: 1) a 7-item Cross-Situational Variability subscale and 2) a 13-item Attention to Social Comparison Information subscale. A sample item from the Cross-Situational Variability subscale is "I tend to show different sides of myself to different people." A sample item from the Attention to Social Comparison Information subscale is "When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues." Wolfe, Welch, Lennox, and Cutler (1985) stated that the CFA may be useful to those interested in attitude-behavior relations, dispositional and environmental determinants of social behaviors, conformity, and self-presentation. The scale's applicability is enhanced by the fact that the two subscales can and should be analyzed separately as well as together. Susceptibility to social influence is better predicted by the attention to social comparison information subscale than by the cross-situational variability subscale or by the scale as a whole (Wolfe et al., 1985).

Validity

Cutler, Lennox, and Wolfe (1984) found that students who placed high importance on social identity (measured by the Aspects of Identity Questionnaire) scored significantly higher on the CFA than the group of students for whom social identity was not important.
In two studies, the CFA scale exhibited convergent and discriminant validity. Subjects' judgments of their roommates' levels of concern converged significantly with roommates' scores on the CFA scale (r (21) = .56, p < .01, and r (104) = .41, p < .01). Concern for appropriateness was discriminant from two constructs that were unrelated to it: popularity and boredom susceptibility (Cutler, 1984; Cutler & Wolfe, 1985). Wolfe et al. (1985) found that CFA score interacted significantly with a measure of religiosity, (F(1, 234) = 7.777, p < .01) in the self-reported use of alcohol in college and precollege students. CFA also interacted significantly with Drug-Specific Environment (F (1, 234) = 6.15, p < .05) in explaining reported alcohol use.

Reliability

Wolfe, Lennox, and Cutler (1986) report internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha) in nine samples (n ranged from 23 - 408) of undergraduate students at SUNY, College at Geneseo of .82 to .89 for total CFA score, .80 to .90 for the attention to social comparison information subscale, and .77 to .85 for the cross-situational variability subscale. Johnson, Jewell, and Terrell (1984) found 3-week full-scale test-retest reliability of .84, .80 for attention to social comparison information, and .80 for cross-situational variability (n = 99).

Test Motivation Questionnaire

The test motivation questionnaire was created by the researcher to determine whether participants took the tests seriously. The questionnaire has two statements to which respondents reply by checking the answer on a Likert scale that applies most to them. The first statement ascertains the respondent's level of interest regarding the
instruments. The second statement ascertains the respondent’s thought and care in responding to the instruments. Participants were asked to respond to the scale honestly and anonymously, thereby enabling the researchers to determine whether the instruments were taken seriously. Descriptive data regarding overall participant responses to the scale are provided in chapter five.

Hypotheses

1. The intervention group will show higher posttest levels of principled reasoning and greater rejection of lower stage moral reasoning as measured by the moral judgment measure (DIT - P Score and N Score) than the comparison group.

2. The intervention group will show higher posttest levels of conceptual complexity as measured by the conceptual level measure (PCM) than the comparison group.

3. Law enforcement trainees in the intervention group will show higher posttest levels of principled reasoning and greater rejection of lower stage moral reasoning as measured by the moral judgment measure (DIT - P Score and N Score) than law enforcement trainees in the comparison group.

4. Law enforcement trainees in the intervention group will show higher posttest levels of conceptual complexity as measured by the conceptual level measure (PCM) than law enforcement trainees in the comparison group.

5. In the intervention group, law enforcement trainees will show higher posttest levels of principled moral reasoning and greater rejection of lower stage moral reasoning as measured by the moral judgment measure (DIT - P score and N score) than the college students (who lack the role taking component required by DPE).
6. In the intervention group, law enforcement trainees will show higher levels of conceptual complexity as measured by the conceptual level measure (PCM) than the college students (who lack the role taking component required by DPE).

7) Participants’ scores on the measure of tendency to comply with social expectations (Concern for Appropriateness Scale) will be inversely related to scores on the moral development measure (Defining Issues Test - P and N Score).

8. Participants’ scores on the measure of tendency to comply with social expectations (Concern for Appropriateness Scale) will be inversely related to scores on the conceptual development measure (Paragraph Completion Method).

**Analysis**

1. A 2 x 2 repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance was utilized to determine differences between the intervention group (n = 32) and the comparison group (n = 32) on the dependent measures: the Defining Issues Test (P and N scores) and the Paragraph Completion Method; alpha was set at .05. Independent samples t-tests on the pretest scores for the DIT (P and N) and PCM were utilized to determine initial equality of both groups. This procedure was used instead of analysis of covariance because ANCOVA, while reducing variability and error, also reduces effect size (Grimm & Yarnold, 1997). Although multiple t-tests increases experiment-wide alpha, this procedure is preferable to ANCOVA because it eliminates the risk of reducing effect size. To minimize experiment-wide error, the Bonferroni technique was utilized to hold alpha at .05 for the t-tests.

2. Because a major focus of this study involved the effects of a Deliberate
Psychological Intervention on law enforcement trainees, a 2 x 2 repeated measures MANOVA was conducted to ascertain differences between the police officers in each group (N = 16 in the intervention; N = 17 in the comparison) on the dependent measures DIT (P and N) and PCM. Alpha was set at .05. This analysis was conducted separately from the MANOVA on the entire sample to avoid a reduction of power which is related to small sample size. A comparison of less than 30 participants per group violates the central limit theorem which states that "as sample size increases, the sampling distribution of the mean will approach a normal distribution" (Keiss, 1996, p. 140). Most statisticians consider a sample size of 30 to lead to a sampling distribution of the mean that will be approximately normally distributed (Keiss, 1996). Statistical analyses such as MANOVA assume normality of the sampling distribution of the mean. Therefore, results of analyses using groups with less than 30 participants per group violate this basic assumption of MANOVA and must be viewed with caution. Despite small sample size, it is useful to the understanding of the outcome of this study to assess the effect of the intervention on the police officers with a separate analysis.

Although conducting an additional analysis increases experiment-wide error, Huberty (1987) and Cohen (1990) reminded us that the .05 alpha level is certainly not sacrosanct. Huberty (1987) stated that "if one is involved in exploratory research, breaking new ground so to speak, perhaps an alpha of .10 or .15 or higher would be acceptable" (p. 5). Furthermore, Huberty (1987) maintained that when multiple statistical tests are conducted in a given study, an
alpha, over all tests, in the range of .10 to .20 seems reasonable. Cohen (1990) stated that “the prevailing yes-no decision at the magic .05 level from a single research is a far cry from the use of informed judgment” (p. 1311). A single piece of research may not conclusively settle an issue but simply adds to information about certain theoretical propositions. Therefore, .05 is simply a convenient reference point along the possibility-probability continuum (Cohen, 1990).

Independent sample two-tailed t-tests were conducted to determine equality of the groups on the pretest for the dependent measures. The Bonferroni technique was utilized to maintain alpha at .05 for the t-tests.

3. A 2 x 2 repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to determine differences on the dependent measures DIT (P and N) and PCM between the police officers in the intervention group (n = 16) and the students in the intervention group (n = 16). Alpha was set at .05. Independent sample two tailed t-tests were conducted to determine equality of the groups on the pretest for the dependent measures. The Bonferroni technique was utilized to maintain alpha at .05 for the t-tests.

4. Studies that use bivariate or multiple regression/correlation include those that attempt to understand or explain the nature of a construct for purposes of developing or testing theories (Grimm & Yarnold, 1997). Grimm and Yarnold (1997) maintained that “one can gain a better understanding of the nature of a phenomenon by identifying those factors with which it co-occurs” (p. 33). Information about co-occurrence helps to further define the theoretical constructs.
involved in the study. Therefore, stepwise multiple regression (forward and backward) was utilized to determine the relationship between the cognitive developmental measures DIT (P and N) and PCM and Concern for Appropriateness as measured by the CFA scale. Alpha was set at .05.

5. In addition to quantitative analyses, themes from written assignments, class discussions, and instructor observations are included in the results in order to illustrate the experience of the participants. Information from an open-ended course evaluation is also included. The qualitative data were coded and categorized in order to determine the most frequently recurring themes.

The fact that the DIT and the PCM are not necessarily interval scales (that is, scores are derived from scales which may be assumed to generate ordinal data) raises a question about whether it is appropriate to use a statistical technique such as MANOVA, which assumes that the data being analyzed are interval. Keiss (1996) maintained that examples of measurements in the behavioral sciences that are definitely interval measurements are infrequent. However, rating scales which measure personality characteristics or other psychological constructs are often treated as yielding interval measurement. Gardner (1975) argued that such scores are in a gray region between ordinal and interval and that a measurement may not necessarily fit neatly into a category of ordinal or interval. Furthermore, Keiss (1996) stated that for statistical analysis, researchers often treat such scales as representing interval measurement.

Critique

Internal Validity

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The major threat to the internal validity of a nonequivalent control-group experiment is the possibility that group differences on the posttest are due to pre-existing group differences rather than the effects of the intervention. Typically, analysis of covariance is used to statistically reduce the effects of initial group differences by making compensating adjustments to the posttest means of the two groups (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). Because analysis of covariance may reduce effect size in addition to variability and error, t-tests were utilized to determine the equality of both groups on the dependent measures pretest before conducting a repeated measures MANOVA.

The effects of maturation on the internal validity of this study were minimal because the sample consisted entirely of adults. The use of a comparison group also minimizes this effect because if maturation was a factor, it would have been a factor for both groups.

Although testing may be a threat to internal validity due to the administration of a pretest, the research literature does not suggest that pretesting sensitizes people to the posttest on either the DIT, the PCM, or the CFA. Experimental mortality did not pose a threat to this study, because no students dropped the course in either the intervention or the comparison group.

Experimental treatment diffusion may have occurred if the trainees in the comparison group heard about the nature of the course presentation in the intervention group. This occurrence is unlikely because the comparison police trainees and students took the course during the semester following the intervention. The intervention police trainees were already assigned to their positions and therefore, had little or no contact
with the comparison trainees. Also, past experience with these trainees has shown that they don't generally question curriculum, but simply complete requirements in order to graduate from the academy. A similar attitude seems to exist among the students. At this junior college, students historically have not tended to seek out "higher experiences." Of course, this may have presented motivational problems during the intervention; the instructors were sensitive to this issue. This attitude among the students would, however, reduce threats from compensatory rivalry or demoralization of the comparison group.

Because the same professor was involved in teaching during the intervention and during the comparison course, treatment diffusion may have been possible. However, the professor has traditionally taught using lecture style and used this teaching method in both the intervention course and the comparison course. The DPE instructor was only involved in the intervention course and was responsible for implementing the DPE essential components and exercises.

Differential selection may have posed a threat to internal validity in that groups were not randomly assigned. However, an examination of the demographics profiles demonstrated the demographic similarity of both groups. The intervention group consisted of 20 (63%) males and 12 (37%) females, with a mean age of 24. The comparison group consisted of 26 (81%) males and six (19%) females, with a mean age of 26. In the intervention group, 25 (78%) participants were White, four (13%) participants were Black, two (6%) participants were Native American, one (3%) participant was Hispanic. There were 24 (75%) White participants, six (19%) Black participants, one (3%) Hispanic participant, and one (3%) Native American participant in the comparison
Experimenter bias may have posed a threat to internal validity because one of the instructors was also the experimenter. Using a DPE model requires the use of the instructor in influencing, supporting, and challenging students. Therefore, results stemming from influence of the instructor are expected. However, the DPE instructor/experimenter scored two of the instruments, the P score on the DIT and the CFA, which may leave room for bias. Because the DIT and the CFA are objectively scored, threats from experimenter bias in scoring are minimal. The N score of the DIT was scored by the Center for the Study of Ethical Development in Minnesota which also provided a computer calculation of the P score, enabling the experimenter to verify the accuracy of handscoring the DIT P score. The PCM was sent to an outside scorer not involved in the intervention.

**External Validity**

Threats to external validity include the following:

The extent to which results can be generalized from the experimental sample to the population of police officers in southeast Virginia are limited by the fact that this sample was not randomly chosen, nor were the groups randomly assigned; however, the sample does represent the typical population of rookies who come through training at this particular police academy who are assigned to cities and counties throughout the area. According to the criminal justice professor who has been teaching this course for thirteen years, demographics usually consist of a representative proportion of White and minority officers, who are mostly male. Age range is typically 23 to 40. Officers represent police...
departments within a 50 - 60 mile radius of the academy, located in southeast Virginia. Results, therefore, can be generalized to police officers in Southeast Virginia or any other area in the United States in which police officers share a similar demographic profile to this sample.

The Hawthorne effect, i.e., individuals improving their performance as a result of knowledge that they are participating in an experiment, may pose a threat to the external validity of this study. However, participants were told that the instruments they were completing are part of research on whether criminal justice education facilitates development of justice reasoning and critical thinking in students. Fortunately, course assessment is a fairly common practice at this junior college. The intervention was part of the course requirements during the fall semester, and participants were not aware that this course was being taught using a different framework, which would eliminate any confounds from novelty or disruption effects. Furthermore, research has suggested that it is difficult to "fake high" on cognitive developmental measures such as the DIT and the PCM. Rest (1986b) maintained that "under the usual conditions, subjects are giving their best notions of the highest principles of justice, and that the test-taking set of 'faking good' does not appreciably increase scores" (p. 5.6). Regarding the PCM, it would be difficult to "fake" a level of cognitive complexity one does not possess.

While interaction of history and treatment effects may limit generalizability of the results of this study, i.e., the results may not translate to settings outside the classroom or beyond the semester, research has shown that once cognitive developmental growth in domains such as moral reasoning or conceptual complexity occurs, that it is irreversible.
and, given an appropriate ongoing environment, would be carried with the participants into the future.

Although it would have been beneficial to extend this intervention for longer than one semester, the police trainees were assigned to locations throughout southeast Virginia following their graduation from the academy, making it virtually impossible to maintain the continuity of challenge, guided reflection, and support required to continue promoting growth in an organized group manner. While DPE recommendations call for at least a six month intervention, studies have shown that growth can occur after four weeks. Researchers have found that although short-term treatments (less than three weeks duration) are ineffective, longer duration treatments (13 - 28 weeks) have no more effect than medium duration treatments (4 - 12 weeks) (Rest, 1986a; Schaefli, Rest & Thoma, 1985). Blatt (1969) used Kohlberg's dilemmas in his Sunday School class for a twelve week period. He pretested his students for level of moral development, implemented dilemma discussions, and then posttested them after twelve weeks. Blatt found that 64% of his students had developed one full stage in their moral reasoning. Blatt replicated these findings in two sixth and two tenth grade public school classrooms. Students were divided into three groups. One group received Blatt's intervention for eighteen weeks, one group received peer-led discussion, and a third group received no intervention. Blatt's group showed an average gain of 1/3 of a stage, whereas the other groups showed almost no change. Follow-up one year later showed that the Blatt group maintained its lead over the other groups (Blatt & Kohlberg, 1975).

Powell et al. (1991) in their one-semester-long intervention with inmates...
(described previously), were also able to promote growth in a short period of time.

Kuhmerker (1991) states that the basic finding in studies such as this is that a relatively short intervention can effect cognitive developmental change.

Despite the limitations enumerated above, this study occurred in a naturalistic setting, enabling the researcher to benefit from witnessing how participants experienced this educational model and their training for a significant new role. The benefits of conducting research in such a setting seem to outweigh the limitations.

**Ethical Considerations**

The following precautions were taken to maintain ethical standards:

1) Participants were informed verbally and in writing that the purpose of completing the instruments was to determine whether criminal justice education facilitates development of justice reasoning and critical thinking in students.

2) Participants were informed that participation (i.e., completion of the instruments) was voluntary. Participation in class discussions and writing assignments was part of the course requirement and part of their final grade, however those students opting not to participate in class discussions or writing assignments were offered the option of completing an independent study (informed consent forms for both the intervention and comparison groups are found in Appendix A).

3) Measures were taken to insure confidentiality of data. The instruments did not contain identifying information that could be traced to any particular participant. For instrument matching purposes, participants marked each instrument with a code word or number of their choice, thereby maintaining anonymity for each
participant. Group means, rather than individual results, are reported.

4) Participants were assured that their responses to the instruments would not jeopardize their course grade, particularly because the responses would not be traced to any particular student.
Chapter Four

Description of the Intervention

Law enforcement officer trainees and college students participated in an undergraduate criminal justice course. The course was taught by co-instructors; the lead instructor has a Ph.D. in criminology and the co-instructor has an Ed.S. in counseling and is a Ph.D. candidate in counselor education. This course, entitled Sociology 250 - Criminal Justice, incorporated the Deliberate Psychological Education model in its design and implementation. The overall goal of the course was to introduce students to the foundation concepts in the academic discipline of criminal justice. Sociological approaches to studying criminal justice were utilized to enable students to gain greater explanatory insight into human behavior within this system and into the overall operation of the criminal justice system. The following objectives were focused upon in the course:

Course Objectives

- The student will gain a better understanding of social forces that shape society.
- The student will learn about the basic concepts of society, culture, and socialization, especially as these forces impact upon the justice process.
- The student will be able to trace the influence of Western Civilization on modern social thought (e.g. the use of an adversarial system rather than an inquisitional system).
- The student will be able to utilize appropriate analytic and conceptual tools (e.g. latent functions analysis and conflict theory) to understand
present and future courses of action (e.g., criminal justice policy-making) by the U.S. and foreign nations.

- The student will be able to describe factors which motivate individuals and result in the creation of social institutions (e.g., material and symbolic special interests).
- The student will engage in reflection during class discussions and written assignments regarding ethical issues in the field of criminal justice.

Course Requirements

Students were expected to read the assigned chapters of the text; complete three examinations; attend class; complete writing assignments; and actively participate in class discussions. The course syllabus can be found in Appendix B.

Tests

Successful performance on three examinations was required which comprised 60% of the student's course grade.

Class Participation

Class participation comprised 40% of the student's course grade which included participation in large class and small group discussions and completion of weekly writing assignments.

Large Class and Small Group Discussions

Students participated in active engagement and reflection during class discussions regarding moral and ethical issues in the field of criminal justice. Law enforcement trainees had the opportunity to discuss real-life and hypothetical dilemmas pertinent to
their work. College students were involved in the discussions, thus providing a unique perspective (that of non-law-enforcement citizens). These discussions occurred in both a small group and large classroom discussion format. Some of the issues discussed included: capital punishment, social deviance, crime and punishment, police discretion, and occupational stress. Scenarios containing ethical dilemmas were read and debated. An outline of lecture topics and discussion topics can be found in Appendix B.

The DPE instructor supervised and facilitated the large and small group discussions. The instructor attempted to establish a heterogeneous grouping of students (i.e., police trainees with regular college students, older with younger students, etc.) to increase the likelihood of varying levels of moral reasoning, conceptual complexity, and perspectives within each group. The instructor attempted to create an initial match to students' levels of reasoning and complexity and determined approximate student/trainee conceptual level through classroom discussion and quality of written work. The instructor reflected on student/trainee contributions to class discussion by restating and questioning in order to foster consideration of new possibilities and ideas. Through the stimulating match, instructor guidance and reflection became more abstract, utilizing more questioning and urging individuals to consider many different points of view. Samples of dilemmas and exercises that were utilized for classroom reflection are found in Appendix B.

Before discussions began, the DPE instructor reiterated that there were no right or wrong answers. The purpose of the exercises was to fully explore the dimensions of each dilemma. Students were encouraged to give reasons for their answers and not simply state their decisions about issues. Discussion exercises were woven throughout the content of
the course. Dilemmas pertained to the topics that were being covered by the criminal justice professor in each section of the course, therefore making them applicable to the police trainees' real life roles. Dilemma discussions were designed to promote not only development of moral reasoning, but also growth in conceptual complexity as the dimensions of each issue were fully analyzed. The DPE instructor attempted to offer sufficient challenge, support, and guided reflection.

Thematic questions that were included throughout the semester are as follows:

- What forces give rise to police culture?
- Which elements that constitute culture do you see as particularly desirable or undesirable?
- Which aspects of the police culture would you change if you could? How could you affect such changes?
- Discuss police corruption and identify pressures with which officers are likely to be faced that might lead to corruption.
- Describe the police personality. Why is the police personality structured as it is? Examine the various elements of the police personality and decide what the consequences would be (to society, victims, the criminal justice profession, and criminal defendants) of changes in each of the elements of the police personality.
- What elements of police culture might be changed to help fight police corruption? How could such changes be brought about?

Writing Assignments

The second component of the class participation grade included completion of writing assignments. Police trainees and students were given weekly writing assignments asking them to contemplate their personal experiences and the challenges encountered within their roles as law enforcement trainees and students. The instructors responded to these assignments in a manner designed to elicit more in-depth thinking about issues. Students and police trainees also completed specific writing assignments requiring analysis of dilemmas pertinent to criminal justice. Initially, instructor responses to written assignments restated what the student/trainee had written in a manner that acknowledged understanding of what the student/trainee was attempting to convey. As the semester progressed, instructor responses included questions designed to elicit further student/trainee reflection regarding the issue. Samples of writing assignments can be found in Appendix B.

Use of Live Materials

Videotapes on topics in criminal justice (e.g., police corruption, occupational stress, capital punishment, and the court system) were viewed and discussed. The course was designed not only to address corruption among law enforcement officers, but also to explore pertinent issues and dilemmas pertaining to multiple areas within law enforcement and the criminal justice system. Description of videos and discussion can be found in Appendix B.

Role Taking

Role taking is one of the most significant components of the DPE model. As
trainees engaged in their roles as helpers in a real world context (law enforcement), a program using the DPE format provided these trainees with a place to process and construct meaning of their experience. Law enforcement trainees were afforded the opportunity to begin utilizing necessary occupational skills. Some had the opportunity to experience police work with senior officers, while others struggled with the physical and mental tasks mandated by the police academy training program. As the trainees prepared themselves for the multi-faceted role of law enforcement officer, the interface of academy training, criminal justice education, and for some, on-the-job experiences provided fertile material for creating dissonance and disequilibrium leading to psychological growth.
Chapter Five

Results

This chapter provides a summary of the results of this study. Six hypotheses were proposed regarding the effect of the independent variable (Deliberate Psychological Education) on the dependent variables (moral and conceptual development) of law enforcement trainees and students. Participants in the intervention group were compared to a group of law enforcement trainees and students who did not participate in a DPE intervention. Two additional hypotheses examined the relationship between moral and conceptual development and tendency to comply with social expectations.

Preliminary independent samples two-tailed t-tests for the dependent measures (DIT and PCM) revealed no significant differences between the groups (intervention versus comparison) on the pretest (DIT P - t(62) = -1.003; DIT N - t(62) = -.504; PCM - t(62) = .427, p > .05). The Bonferroni technique was used to maintain alpha at the .05 level.

A 2 x 2 repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine differences between the intervention group (N = 32) and the comparison group (N = 32) on the dependent measures DIT (P and N Score) and PCM. The MANOVA produced a significant interaction for time and group, F (3, 60) = 3.284, p < .05; eta squared = .14; power = .72 (Table 2 presents a summary of the F tests completed).
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<th>Between Subjects Design: Group</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotelling's Trace</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
</tr>
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<td>Time</td>
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<table>
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Replicated Measures Multivariate Analysis of Variance: Summary of F Statistics - Intervention versus Comparison Group

Table 2
Univariate follow-up tests revealed the following:

Hypothesis 1:

The intervention group will show higher posttest levels of principled reasoning and greater rejection of lower stage moral reasoning as measured by the moral judgment measure (DIT - P Score and N Score) than the comparison group.

Results:

The intervention group (M = 31.75) scored significantly higher than the comparison group (M = 25.38) on the DIT posttest (P score), F (1) = 8.883, p < .05; eta squared = .125; power = .84. The intervention group (M = 38.13) scored significantly higher than the comparison group (M = 33.84) on the DIT posttest (N score), F (1) = 3.986, p ≤ .05; eta squared = .06; power = .50. These findings confirmed the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2:

The intervention group will show higher posttest levels of conceptual complexity as measured by the conceptual level measure (PCM) than the comparison group.

Results:

There was no significant difference between the two groups on the PCM posttest scores, F(1) = 2.309, p > .05, although the intervention group (M = 1.76) scored higher than the comparison group (M = 1.62). This finding failed to confirm the second hypothesis. Although the difference in posttest scores is not statistically significant, the scores for the intervention group moved in a positive direction (M = 1.65 on pretest; M = 1.76 on posttest), yet they remained the same for the comparison group (M = 1.62 on...
pretest; M = 1.62 on posttest) (see Table 3 for a listing of pre and post test means for all dependent measures; also see Figures 1, 2, and 3 for graphs of data).

Table 3.

Group Means and Standard Deviations
Intervention Versus Comparison Group

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Group 1 - Intervention
Group 2 - Comparison
Figure 1.

N Score - Pre and Posttest
Intervention and Comparison Groups

Estimated Marginal Means of N

Group 1 - Intervention
Group 2 - Comparison
Figure 2.

P Score - Pre and Posttest
Intervention and Comparison Groups

Estimated Marginal Means of P

Group 1 - Intervention
Group 2 - Comparison
Figure 3.

PCM Score - Pre and Posttest
Intervention and Comparison Groups
Pretest scores on the DIT measure (P Score) for the intervention group were similar to the average range of scores for junior high school students (Rest, 1998). Posttest scores on the DIT measure (P Score) for the intervention group were similar to the average range for senior high school students as reported by Rest (1998). The pretest scores for the DIT (N Score) for the intervention group were similar to the average range for high school students. Posttest scores for the DIT (N Score) for the intervention group approached the average range for college students. DIT (both P and N) pretest scores for the comparison group were similar to the average range for high school students. Posttest scores for the comparison group remained within the average range for high school students.

According to Cohen’s (1977) classification of effect sizes, .20 is considered to be small, .50 medium, and effect sizes larger than .80 are large. However, Kiess (1996) stated that “in practice, an eta squared of about .10 to .15 often is treated as revealing a strong treatment effect” (p. 221). Furthermore, Haase, Waechter, and Solomon (1982) as cited in Kiess (1996) reviewed 11,044 tests of statistical significance reported in issues of the Journal of Counseling Psychology and found a median eta squared value of .083 which provides some idea of the typical strength of association found in behavioral science research. Grimm and Yarnold (1997) pointed out that the majority of social research produces small to medium effect sizes; therefore, the more proper standard should be the one Cohen suggested for effect sizes measured via R squared or other such indices: .01 is small, .09 is medium, and .25 or greater is large. Given this revised standard, the overall effect size for the MANOVA interaction of .14 is in the medium to large range; the effect...
size of .06 for the N score (principled moral reasoning plus rejection of lower stages) can be considered to be in the medium range, and the effect size of .125 for the P score (principled moral reasoning) can be considered to be in the medium to large range.

A 2 x 2 repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to determine differences on the posttest dependent measures DIT (P and N Score) and PCM between the police officers in the intervention group (n = 16) and the police officers in the comparison group (n = 17). Preliminary independent samples two tailed t-tests on the pretest scores for the dependent measures DIT (P and N) and PCM revealed no significant differences between the police officers in the intervention group and the police officers in the comparison group (DIT P - t(31) = -.871; DIT N - t(30.98) = -.255; PCM - t(26.43) = .349, p > .05). The Bonferroni technique was utilized to maintain alpha at the .05 level.

The repeated measures MANOVA revealed no significant interaction, F (3, 29) = 2.146, p > .05, or main effects for group, F (3, 29) = .470, p > .05, or time, F (3, 29) = 1.025, p > .05. A reduction in power resulting from small sample size may have contributed to the lack of significant findings (see table 4 for summary of F tests).
### Table 4.
Repeated Measures Multivariate Analysis of Variance - Summary of F Statistics - Law Enforcement Officers
(Intervention Versus Comparison Group)

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<th>Value</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Error df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<td>6.439</td>
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Computed using alpha = .05
Design: Intercept + GROUP
Within Subjects Design: TIME
Based on the exception which allows follow-up tests with a non-significant MANOVA F statistic when apriori directional hypotheses are provided, univariate follow-up tests were conducted which revealed the following.

Hypothesis 3:

Law enforcement trainees in the intervention group will show higher posttest levels of principled reasoning and greater rejection of lower stage moral reasoning as measured by the moral judgment measure (DIT - P and N Score) than law enforcement trainees in the comparison group.

Results:

There was a significant difference on the posttest DIT P score between the police officers in the intervention group (M = 27.38) and the police officers in the comparison group (M = 20.65), F (1) = 5.38, p < .05; eta squared = .148; power = .61. Effect size for this ANOVA can be considered medium to large. Although there was no significant difference between the groups for the DIT N Score, F(1) = 2.085, p > .05, the intervention group police officers showed greater positive movement in N score from M = 28.75 on the pretest to M = 35.31 on the posttest than the comparison group police officers who had a mean N score of 29.88 on the pretest and a mean N score of 30.53 on the posttest. Therefore, the third hypothesis was partially confirmed by the finding of a significant difference in P score, however the findings did not confirm the hypothesis of a significant difference in N score. Small sample size and resultant reduction in power, in addition to violation of the assumption of normality for statistical tests such as ANOVA or MANOVA may have contributed to the inconsistency of this finding (the N score and the
P score are highly correlated and are, therefore, expected to perform similarly) (Rest et al., 1996).

Hypothesis 4:

Law enforcement trainees in the intervention group will show higher posttest levels of conceptual complexity as measured by the conceptual level measure (PCM) than law enforcement trainees in the comparison group.

Results:

There was no significant difference in scores for law enforcement officers in the comparison and intervention groups for the PCM, $F(1) = 2.170$, $p > .05$; therefore the fourth hypothesis was not confirmed. Although the intervention group police officers only showed slight improvement on the PCM (pretest $M = 1.70$, posttest $M = 1.76$), the police officers in the comparison group actually showed a decline in scores on the PCM (pretest $M = 1.66$, posttest $M = 1.59$).

Although movement on the N score and on the PCM for the intervention police officers was not significantly different from that of the comparison group police officers, it was in a positive direction. On the DIT - N pretest, police officers in the intervention group scored less than 30 ($M = 28.75$) which is in the average range for high school students (Rest, 1998); posttest N scores revealed a mean of 35.31 showing that police officers in the intervention group were increasingly giving up lower stage reasoning and using higher percentages of principled reasoning. Posttest N scores for the police officers in the intervention group approached the average range for college students (Rest, 1998).

Police officers in the intervention group showed the greatest gain in the DIT P
score or percentage of principled reasoning used in moral judgment. Pretest P scores for the police officers in the intervention group (M = 19.44) indicated that the police officers were using less than 20% principled reasoning in moral judgment at the beginning of the intervention. This average score is in the range of junior high school students (Rest, 1998). Posttest P scores for the police officers in the intervention group (M = 27.38) revealed that they were using almost 30% principled reasoning in moral judgment, which moved them into the average range for senior high school students. DIT P scores for the comparison police officers actually declined (pretest M = 23.29, posttest M = 20.65, leaving these officers in the average range similar to junior high school students) (see Table 5 for complete listing of means on all dependent measures; also see Figures 4, 5, and 6 for graphs of data).
Table 5.

Group Means and Standard Deviations
Law Enforcement Officers

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Group 1 - Intervention Law Enforcement Officers
Group 2 - Comparison Law Enforcement Officers

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Figure 4.

N Score - Pre and Posttest
Police Trainees
Intervention and Comparison Groups

Estimated Marginal Means of N

Group 1 - Police Trainees - Intervention
Group 2 - Police Trainees - Comparison
Figure 5.

P Score - Pre and Posttest
Police Trainees
Intervention and Comparison Groups

Estimated Marginal Means of P

Group 1 - Police Trainees - Intervention
Group 2 - Police Trainees - Comparison
Figure 6.

PCM Score - Pre and Posttest
Police Trainees
Intervention and Comparison

Group 1 - Police Trainees - Intervention
Group 2 - Police Trainees - Comparison
Because the students in the intervention group lacked one of the most important components of Deliberate Psychological Education, a significant new role taking experience as a helper in a real world context, a comparison between the students and police officers in the intervention group was conducted to determine whether the police officers, who met the role taking component of DPE, showed greater cognitive developmental growth. Because of small numbers and violation of the assumption of normality for statistical tests such as ANOVA or MANOVA, these results should be viewed with caution.

Hypothesis 5:

In the intervention group, law enforcement trainees will show higher posttest levels of principled moral reasoning and greater rejection of lower stage moral reasoning as measured by the moral judgment measure (DIT - P score and N score) than the college students (who lack the role taking component required by DPE).

Hypothesis 6:

In the intervention group, law enforcement trainees will show higher levels of conceptual complexity as measured by the conceptual level measure (PCM) than the college students (who lack the role taking component required by DPE).

Results:

Preliminary independent samples two tailed t-tests were conducted to determine initial equality of the groups on the dependent measures DIT (P and N Score) and PCM. T-test results revealed no significant differences on the dependent measures pretests between the students and the police officers (DIT P - t(30) = -2.111; DIT N - t(30) =
-1.715; PCM - t(30) = .596, p > .05). The Bonferroni technique was utilized to maintain alpha at the .05 level.

A 2 x 2 repeated measures MANOVA revealed a significant main effect for time, F(3, 28) = 3.142, p < .05; eta squared = .252; power = .67. (Table 6 provides a summary of the F tests completed). Using the standards for interpreting effect size mentioned previously, the effect size for the MANOVA main effect for time can be considered large.
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Computed using alpha = .05
Design: Intercept+GROUP
Within Subjects Design: TIME
There was no significant interaction (time by group), \( F(3, 28) = .209, p > .05 \), therefore, hypotheses five and six predicting significant differences on the dependent measures DIT (P and N Score) and PCM between the police officers and students were not confirmed.

However, univariate follow-up tests revealed a significant pre to post test change for the police officers and the students in the intervention group on the DIT P score (\( F(1) = 8.95, p < .05; \) eta squared = .23, power = .825) and the DIT N score (\( F(1) = 7.019, p < .05; \) eta squared = .19, power = .727). No significant pre to post test change was found for the PCM (\( F(1) = 3.634, p > .05 \)). The effect sizes for the pre to post test change for both the DIT P and N scores can be considered large based on the standards explained previously.

Overall, both police officers’ and students’ scores on all three measures moved in a positive direction. Scores for law enforcement officers were: N - pretest \( M = 28.75 \), posttest \( M = 35.31 \); P - pretest \( M = 19.44 \), posttest \( M = 27.38 \); PCM - pretest \( M = 1.70 \), posttest \( M = 1.76 \). Scores for students were: N - pretest \( M = 35.13 \), posttest \( M = 40.94 \); P - pretest \( M = 28.50 \), posttest \( M = 36.13 \); PCM - pretest \( M = 1.63 \), posttest \( M = 1.76 \) (see Table 7 for a complete listing of means for all dependent measures; also see Figures 7, 8, and 9 for graphs of data).
Table 7.

Group Means and Standard Deviations
Law Enforcement Officers and Students
Intervention Group

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Group 1 - Law Enforcement Officers - Intervention
Group 2 - Students - Intervention

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Figure 7.

N Score - Pre and Posttest
Police Trainees and Students
Intervention Group

Estimated Marginal Means of N

Group 1 - Police Trainees
Group 2 - Students

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Figure 8.

P Score - Pre and Posttest
Police Trainees and Students
Intervention Group

Estimated Marginal Means of P

Group 1 - Police Trainees
Group 2 - Students

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Figure 9.

PCM Score - Pre and Posttest
Police Trainees and Students
Intervention Group

Estimated Marginal Means of PCM

Group 1 - Police Trainees
Group 2 - Students
The DIT pretest scores (both P and N) for students in the intervention group were in the average range for senior high school students. The DIT posttest scores (both P and N) for students in the intervention group were in the average range for college students. Comparison group students’ DIT pretest scores (P = 31.73; N = 37.47) were in the average range for high school students. Posttest scores for comparison group students (DIT P and N) remained in the average range for high school students.

Hypothesis 7:

Participants’ scores on the measure of tendency to comply with social expectations (Concern for Appropriateness Scale) will be inversely related to scores on the moral development measure (Defining Issues Test - P and N Score).

Hypothesis 8:

Participants’ scores on the measure of tendency to comply with social expectations (Concern for Appropriateness Scale) will be inversely related to scores on the conceptual development measure (Paragraph Completion Method).

Results:

A forward stepwise multiple regression was utilized to determine the relationship between concern for appropriateness and the cognitive developmental measures DIT (P and N) and PCM on the posttest. Alpha was set at .05. The model summary produced the following information: $R = .447$, $R^2 = .20$. The PCM was a significant predictor in the model, however the N and P variables did not add significantly to the model. A backward stepwise multiple regression yielded the same results. (Table 8 provides results of the model and means and Pearson correlations for all variables; also see Figure 10 for
scatterplot).

Table 8.
Stepwise Regression Model Summary - Posttest

Dependent Variable - CFA
Predictors - PCM, N, P

Variables Entered - PCM
Excluded Variables - N, P

R = .447
R Square = .200
Adjusted R Square = .187
Standard Error of the Estimate = 13.50

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The stepwise regression revealed that conceptual complexity is moderately inversely (-.447) related to concern for appropriateness. This finding confirmed the eighth hypothesis. Although the P and N variables did not add significantly to the model, a review of the Pearson correlations generated by the analysis revealed a significant inverse correlation between the N score and the CFA, \( r = -0.295, r^2 = 0.09, p < 0.05 \), thereby
partially confirming the seventh hypothesis predicting an inverse correlation between concern for appropriateness and the DIT (relationship between CFA and P score was not significant) and also indicates that 9% of the variance in concern for appropriateness may be accounted for by principled moral reasoning and rejection of lower stages (N Score). An \( r \) square of .09 can be considered medium, but it is important to note that some or all of the shared variance between N and the CFA might also be shared by other predictors such as P and PCM (Grimm & Yarnold, 1997).

R square of .20 for the model indicates that 20% of the variance in concern for appropriateness may be accounted for by conceptual complexity. An R square of .20 is considered large based on the criteria for interpretation described previously.

Correlations ranging from .3 to .6 are considered to be moderate. Given the complexities of psychological growth, a moderate correlation between two psychological constructs is to be expected, but, nevertheless, contributes to an understanding of the various constructs related to cognitive development. Based on these results, it can be assumed that individuals with higher concern for appropriateness (tendency to comply with social expectations) may have lower levels of conceptual complexity and principled reasoning plus rejection of lower stage thinking, although the relationship between concern for appropriateness and the N score must be viewed more tentatively.

A forward stepwise multiple regression was also conducted on the pretest scores for the CFA and the cognitive developmental measures (DIT P and N and PCM). Alpha was set at .05. The model summary produced the following information: \( R = .26; R \) square = .068, indicating that, similar to the posttest results, the PCM was a significant
predictor in the model, further confirming the eighth hypothesis. Similar to the posttest results, the P and N scores did not add significantly to the model. A backward stepwise multiple regression yielded the same results. An $R$ square of .068 can be considered medium. (Table 9 provides results of the model and means and Pearson correlations for all variables; also see Figure 11 for scatterplot).

Table 9.

Stepwise Regression Model Summary - Pretest

Dependent Variable - CFA
Predictors - PCM, N, P

Variables Entered - PCM
Excluded Variables - N, P

$R = .260$
$R$ Square $= .068$
Adjusted $R$ Square $= .053$
Standard Error of the Estimate $= 14.47$

Means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
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<tr>
<td>CFA</td>
<td>43.33</td>
<td>14.87</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>32.69</td>
<td>11.84</td>
<td>64</td>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>25.61</td>
<td>13.09</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCM</td>
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<td>.32</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 9 Continued

#### Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CFA</th>
<th>PCM</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>CFA 1.000</td>
<td>-0.260</td>
<td>-0.102</td>
<td>-0.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PCM -0.260</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>0.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N -0.102</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P -0.031</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>0.867</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td>CFA</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.210</td>
<td>0.405</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PCM</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>0.210</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P</td>
<td>0.405</td>
<td>0.361</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Figure 11.

**Stepwise Regression**

**Dependent Variable - CFA Pretest**

**Predictor - PCM Pretest Score**

![Scatter plot](image.png)

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The difference in the strength of the relationship between the CFA and the PCM from pretest \( r = -0.26 \) to posttest \( r = -0.447 \) may reflect the positive movement on the PCM in the intervention group; therefore, the intervention may have been a catalyst for bringing out participants’ potential conceptual complexity, thereby strengthening the relationship to concern for appropriateness. Unlike, the results for the posttest, the relationship between the pretest N score and the CFA was not significant. The finding of a significant correlation between the CFA and the N score on the posttest (-0.295) and not on the pretest (-0.102) may reflect positive movement (mostly as a result of the intervention group movement) in the N score from pretest \( M = 32.69 \) to posttest \( M = 35.98 \).

Scores for the CFA remained virtually the same from pretest \( M = 43.33 \) to posttest \( M = 42.19 \) with a test-retest correlation of .742 and were, therefore, fairly reliable.

**Results of Test Motivation Questionnaire**

On the test motivation questionnaire, participants were asked to answer two questions by marking responses on a Likert scale. The first question dealt with the participant’s level of interest regarding the instruments. The second question dealt with the participant’s level of care in completing the instruments. Response choices for the first question were: “very interesting,” “mildly interesting,” and “uninteresting.” Response choices for the second question were: “responded carefully and thoughtfully to all items,” “responded carefully and thoughtfully to most items,” and “was not interested and therefore didn’t give much thought or care in responding.” Participant responses revealed the following:
Pretest

Intervention Group
- 47% (N = 15) of participants found the instruments to be very interesting.
- 50% (N = 16) of participants found the instruments to be mildly interesting.
- 3% (N = 1) of participants found the instruments to be uninteresting.
- 63% (N = 20) of participants responded carefully and thoughtfully to all items.
- 37% (N = 12) of participants responded carefully and thoughtfully to most items.
- 0% (N = 0) of participants reported no thought or care in responding to items.

Comparison Group
- 25% (N = 8) of participants found the instruments to be very interesting.
- 66% (N = 21) of participants found the instruments to be mildly interesting.
- 9% (N = 3) of participants found the instruments to be uninteresting.
- 66% (N = 21) of participants responded carefully and thoughtfully to all items.
- 34% (N = 11) of participants responded carefully and thoughtfully to most items.
- 0% (N = 0) reported no thought or care in responding to items.

Posttest

Intervention Group
- 34% (N = 11) found the instruments to be very interesting.
- 63% (N = 20) found the instruments to mildly interesting.
- 3% (N = 1) found the instruments to be uninteresting.
- 53% (N = 17) responded carefully and thoughtfully to all items.
- 47% (N = 15) responded carefully and thoughtfully to most items.
- 0% (N = 0) reported no thought or care in responding to items.

**Comparison Group**

- 19% (N = 6) found the instruments to be very interesting.
- 63% (N = 20) found the instruments to be mildly interesting.
- 18% (N = 6) found the instruments to be uninteresting.
- 44% (N = 14) responded carefully and thoughtfully to all items.
- 44% (N = 14) responded carefully and thoughtfully to most items.
- 12% (N = 4) reported no thought or care in responding to items.

Overall, 94% of participants found the instruments to be interesting (very or mildly) on the pretest. On the posttest, 89% of participants found the instruments to be interesting (very or mildly). On the pretest, 100% of participants reported thoughtfulness and care in responding to most or all of the items on the instruments. On the posttest, 94% of participants reported thoughtfulness and care in responding to most or all of the items on the instruments. The four individuals who reported no care in responding to items on the posttest were participants in the comparison group. An evaluation of scores for these four participants revealed that scores either stayed the same or decreased slightly from pretest to posttest across the three instruments for all four individuals. A review of all instruments revealed that there was no evidence of test taking set for any participant and all participants passed the consistency checks for the DIT. Therefore, all participants’ scores were utilized in the analysis for this study. The increase from pretest to posttest in percentage of participants who reported that the instruments were “mildly interesting” or “uninteresting” and of participants who reported “no care” in completing the instruments
may have been the result of fatigue at the end of the semester when most students tend to become overwhelmed with the demands of their coursework. Furthermore, the police academy trainees reported that they were feeling fatigued by the demands of the academy training program, in addition to the academic requirements of the criminal justice course.

Qualitative Description

In reporting the results of this study, it would be remiss to omit attention to the qualitative experience of the participants. The theories that provided the conceptual framework for this study focus on the construction of meaning and experience during the learning process. Therefore, this qualitative description of important themes that emerged from the participants' writings and discussions during the intervention is designed to serve as a supplement to the quantitative report of results in order to further enrich the reader's understanding of the experience and outcome of this intervention. Several important themes emerged from a qualitative analysis of written assignments, the instructors' observations of class discussions and reflection, and comments on the course evaluation.

Themes

Trust

An initial difficulty that had to be overcome included establishing trust between instructors and police trainees and police trainees and college students. The instructors found that many of the officers exhibited some of the characteristics of the "police personality profile" (Skolnick, 1966) which describes similar personality traits found among police officers, such as authoritarian, suspicious, conservative, cynical, individualistic, and loyal (Schmalleger, 1997; Skolnick, 1966). Several of the law
enforcement officer trainees in the intervention group exhibited cynicism when discussing certain criminal justice issues such as crime and punishment. This cynicism seemed to lead to a lack of trust in ordinary citizens and their ability to comprehend the realities of the criminal justice system. One police trainee stated “ordinary citizens just don’t get it. They don’t see what we have to see or experience how frustrated we get when they (criminals) get to walk away.” These pressures seemed to contribute to an initial reluctance on the part of some of the law enforcement trainees to trust "outsiders" who wished to facilitate a process of helping them make meaning of their experience or who wished to challenge them to move outside the realm of the accepted thinking and practices of their peers. Many of the trainees seemed to express a somewhat rigid approach to criminal justice issues and dilemmas. During a class assignment in which participants were asked to design their own justice system, some of the law enforcement trainees proposed that the justice system should move toward “an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth.” This class discussion seemed to disturb some of the college students. One student noted, “I was amazed at the hard core attitudes of some of the officers regarding punishment for certain crimes.” Another student stated "I found the officers to be extremely stubborn and most of them have a very warped sense of their job which to me is disturbing." Many police trainees spoke of “Joe Citizen” and conveyed an “us and them” attitude. One trainee stated “we always seem to be looked at as the bad guy, but who do they call when something goes wrong?” Several of the college students mentioned that the class helped them to achieve a better understanding of the perspectives of law enforcement officers and the challenges they encounter. One student commented that “having the police academy
students there to provide the other point of view helped me to see things in a different light. This criminal justice class has really changed my outlook on police officers. I knew that they had a stressful job, but I had no idea about some of the serious things they face."

**The Looking-Glass Self**

Another component of the police working personality is the notion of the "looking-glass self" where officers often feel as if their lives must be lived in a fish bowl (Henslin, 1993). One officer commented in a written essay that "my private and social life have really been changed. As a police officer your private and social life really have to be guarded. Most officers value their private time. I have found that only in my short time with the department that my private life is no longer private but has become really public. People in my community recognize me as an officer and they are always watching my life. I have to maintain a professional life at all times. This does place a lot of stress on officers and I am finding that out." Another officer remarked "I must also live a so called perfect life in the eyes of everyone else, because that again is what people expect because I will be a police officer. People expect you to know everything and be able to do everything exactly right. When I become married, I will have to have no problems whatsoever and have the perfect family life. I will also have to be careful about where I go out and what I do while I am there. Some people will think that I should not even drink alcohol at all because of my job. My life will always be in the spotlight and I must live it accordingly."

The perception of the looking glass self may have affected the police trainees' responses to some of the dilemmas discussed in class, as they seemed to weigh carefully their responses with the accepted policies of the police academy and their peers and their own
perception of the expected correct answer that should be given by a law enforcement officer.

**Social Isolation**

Social isolation is a common occurrence among police officers; i.e., police officers generally work and socialize only with other law enforcement officers (Schmalleger, 1997). Police trainees stated in class that this occurs because "no one else understands what we go through." Many trainees mentioned that they would be reluctant to discuss the stresses and problems of their jobs with friends, family, or counselors. They cited the perceived stigma of counseling within law enforcement and the unwillingness to "burden" friends or family members as reasons for only drawing on other law enforcement officers for support. One trainee was adamant that she must "have no friends outside of law enforcement. Others will never understand, so I don't even bother." This often self-imposed social isolation could possibly limit the ability of many of these police officers to take a broader perspective and analyze different points of view in solving criminal justice ethical dilemmas and other challenges inherent in their work.

**Course Evaluation and Outcomes**

Small group dynamics were initially tentative given the mix of police trainees (who came to class in uniform) and college students. However, through instructor support during discussions and gradual development of trust, groups became more cohesive. Interestingly, when breaks were given at the beginning of the semester, students congregated with other students and police trainees with other trainees. The seating arrangement in class reflected a pocket of blue uniforms in one corner of the room. As the
semester progressed, seating arrangements and congregating during break time occurred according to small group membership. One student reflected the following in a journal: "Working in groups was a little uncomfortable for me. It is also a little strange being in a group with police officers, or soon to be police officers. I know that our views on some topics are different. I must admit though, they (the officers in my group) were very nice. There must be something about being an officer on the street that maybe gets to police officers that makes them pissy, and a little short with people." Another student commented "The most unique thing about this class is the amount of (sic) police in it. I have never spoken to an officer other than to tell him/her why I was driving too fast. I found it interesting to hear what they think when we discussed various topics. I used to kind of see them as the enemy, but now I see that they are people just like me." One police trainee reported in his journal "I noticed that the police academy recruits and the students really had different perspectives on how the law works and shouldn't work. I liked getting the feedback from the students on how they felt about police officers in general." Another police trainee stated that "the diverse groups of people in the class gave everyone a different insight. Having police officers in the class gave us the opportunity to let those that are not officers know how we think and feel on many issues. In return, we were able to hear opinions about police officers and controversial subjects from ordinary citizens."

By the end of the semester, feedback from police trainees indicated that the course was a positive experience and helped them integrate the dissonance of entering this new pressure-filled occupation in a more critical and thoughtful manner. They also appreciated the opportunity to process and plan for many of the dilemmas they would, no doubt, face
in their professional experiences. The quality of the written work for both police trainees and students improved as the semester progressed. Dilemmas were analyzed in a critical manner, taking into consideration various points of view and determining which decision is most just. This task was often difficult for students and trainees because the dilemmas had no clear answers. The police trainees, in particular, began applying the "greatest good for the greatest number" principle (which is indicative of higher levels of justice reasoning) to many of the ethical dilemmas discussed in class and in writing assignments. One officer stated that the class discussions "really forced people to confront themselves with their own and sometimes, deep-rooted feelings and emotions. This caused them to reevaluate their positions on morals, ethics, working personality traits, job performance duties and responsibilities and beliefs about society in general." Another law enforcement trainee echoed the sentiments of most of the other participants: "For the most part, I think the class was great. It taught me about how complex decision making becomes when you are trying to make the best decision for the most people. Also, I really began thinking about stress and how this job can really get to some people. The class really helped me think differently about law enforcement and about myself as well."

The course evaluation consisted of an open writing assignment asking participants to reflect on their experience in the course and to make recommendations. Two recommendations emerged from these evaluations: 1) Five of the police trainees stated that they wished the course could have been extended for another semester. The fast pace of their training and attempting to meet all of the requirements of the police academy seemed to overwhelm the trainees. They stated that they would have benefitted from
more time to reflect on the experience; 2) Six students and eight trainees recommended even more class discussion and less didactic material.
Chapter Six

Summary and Discussion

It has been well established in the literature that corruption is a pervasive problem within the profession of law enforcement. Contributing factors include: the strong influence of the police subculture which promotes solidarity, yet also influences corrupt behavior; a combination of low wages, high stress, and frequent contact with the fringe element of society (i.e., criminals); an imperfect justice system which often leads to frustration and cynicism on the part of law enforcement officers; and the multifaceted requirements of a multiple-role profession in which there are often no concrete answers to resolve dilemmas.

The importance of deterring corruption within law enforcement lies in the preservation and protection of social cooperation and the maintenance of a reliable and just system of rules and enforcement for all citizens. Citizens' perception of law enforcement and subsequent respect and cooperation with the criminal justice system is predicated on the conduct of law enforcement officers, not only in maintaining ethical behavior, but also in utilizing appropriate critical thinking to solve problems.

Unfortunately, training programs for law enforcement officers have placed little emphasis on ethics training and promotion of critical thinking. Uncertainty about how to most effectively conduct such training is a major reason for the absence of an emphasis on ethics and critical thinking development within law enforcement training programs (Norris & Norris, 1993). Despite calls for increased ethics training (Schmalleger, 1997), only one study could be found that addressed these issues (Scharf, et al., 1978).
Cognitive developmental theory encompasses several domains including moral and conceptual development. Moral development addresses the individual’s framework for reasoning about justice issues. Conceptual development addresses critical thinking and the framework an individual uses to construct meaning of experience and interpersonal relationships. Research has established that promoting higher levels of cognitive development along domains such as moral and conceptual development can enable individuals to function more effectively. For example, studies have shown that there is a significant, positive relationship between level of moral reasoning and moral behavior (Blasi, 1980; Thoma, 1985). Furthermore, higher levels of conceptual complexity have been related to better information-processing skills, less prejudice, greater empathic communication (Miller, 1981) and the ability to cope with stress more effectively (Levo & Biggs, 1989).

The Deliberate Psychological Education (DPE) model has been used effectively in promoting cognitive development within educational programs. The DPE model rests on the assumption that cognitive developmental growth can be stimulated given an appropriate learning environment. Research has shown that DPE programs have promoted growth in various cognitive domains including moral and conceptual development. Rest and Narvaez (1994) cited numerous studies attesting that Deliberate Psychological Education has been effective in promoting development in professions including teaching, medicine, and other helping professions such as counseling.

This study described a pilot program designed to incorporate a Deliberate Psychological Educational framework in the training of law enforcement officers and
students studying criminal justice. A college criminal justice course, which was a requirement of the police academy training program, provided the forum within which to implement the components of the DPE model such as support, challenge, and guided reflection. The law enforcement officer trainees met the role-taking component of the DPE model by undertaking the training, both in the classroom and on the job, to become police officers. Although the role of student can be considered to be challenging as well, the students in the class were not struggling with the same issues of developing a new identity within the community (i.e., moving from “ordinary citizen” to law enforcement officer) and balancing this new identity with family obligations and personal challenges.

The research on moral behavior has focused heavily on moral reasoning. The four component model described by Rest (Rest 1986a; Rest, 1994) has attempted to delineate other components that may affect whether a person will behave morally. Rest proposed that further research should be conducted to gain a better understanding of the determinants of moral action.

Self-monitoring and self-presentation theory propose that social behavior is influenced by many interactive factors. Two such factors are inner values versus social expectations for behavior. Self-monitoring theory and self-presentation theory focus on the conflict between these factors. To further understand the relationships between various constructs such as moral and conceptual development and self-monitoring, one aspect of this study focused on assessing tendency to comply with social expectations and the relationship to moral and conceptual development.

It was hypothesized that participants (college students and law enforcement
trainees) in a Deliberate Psychological Education intervention, which was incorporated into an undergraduate criminal justice course, would show higher posttest levels of moral reasoning and conceptual development than participants in a comparison group who were enrolled in another section of the undergraduate criminal justice course without the Deliberate Psychological Education intervention. It was also hypothesized that the law enforcement trainees in the intervention group would show higher posttest levels of moral reasoning and conceptual development than law enforcement trainees in the comparison group. It was further hypothesized that law enforcement trainees in the intervention group would show higher posttest levels of moral reasoning and conceptual development than students in the intervention group because the students lacked one of the essential components of Deliberate Psychological Education, that of a significant new role as a helper in a real world context. Finally, it was hypothesized that there would be an inverse relationship between concern for appropriateness or tendency to comply with social expectations and moral reasoning and conceptual development.

Results of this study were promising. As hypothesized, the intervention group scored significantly higher on the moral development measure than the comparison group. Although the intervention group scores on the conceptual development measure did not differ significantly from the comparison group, conceptual development scores for the intervention group moved in a positive direction, yet remained the same for the comparison group. Effect sizes for the moral development scores were medium which is generally expected in behavioral science research, particularly given smaller numbers of participants.
A comparison of the police officers in the intervention group with the police officers in the comparison group revealed a difference in moral reasoning, with the intervention group scoring significantly higher. The effect size was moderate to large. Although no statistically significant difference was found for conceptual development, the scores for police trainees in the intervention group moved in a positive direction, and the scores for police trainees in the comparison group declined. The lack of significant positive change in conceptual development for the police officers in the intervention group and for the intervention group as a whole may be attributed to the phenomenon in cognitive developmental theory known as decalage, which refers to a systematic gap in development or the notion that there can be gaps in an individual's level of functioning in certain domains (Sprinthall, Sprinthall, & Oja, 1994). Decalage represents the way in which development can be haphazard or uneven and often occurs as a result of cognitive dissonance which accompanies psychological growth.

A comparison of students and police officers in the intervention group was conducted in order to determine the effect of role taking in a Deliberate Psychological intervention. Results revealed that there was significant pre to posttest change in moral development, but that conceptual development movement, while positive, was not significant. In addition to the phenomenon of decalage, small numbers and related loss of power may have contributed to the lack of significant finding for conceptual development. Also, completing the DIT is a recognition task and completing the PCM requires the participant to generate information, which may have influenced the differential pre to posttest movement between the two instruments. Contrary to the hypothesis that due to
their role taking experience, police officers would show greater movement on the cognitive developmental measures than the students, there was no difference between the police officers and the students. The lack of significant difference on the posttest measures between the students and the police officers may be related to the notion in cognitive developmental theory that overwhelming demands on cognitive structures may hinder growth. The police officers often reported during the semester that they felt overwhelmed by the demands of the police academy training, integrating their new professional identities with their personal lives, and the challenges presented by an academic college course. Holloway and Wampold (1986) and Hayes (1994), among others, maintained that challenge at more than one stage above the individual’s present cognitive developmental level may result in overwhelming anxiety which can be counterproductive to cognitive growth. It is important to note, however, that police officers’ scores, as well as students’ scores, on all three developmental measures moved in a positive direction, and the comparison group scores on all three measures either remained the same or declined.

A comparison of scores on the Concern For Appropriateness scale, a measure of tendency to comply with social expectations and of conformity, with scores on the moral and conceptual development measures revealed a significant inverse relationship between conceptual development and concern for appropriateness. A smaller inverse correlation existed between moral development and concern for appropriateness. The relationship between concern for appropriateness and conceptual development was moderate and results revealed that 20% of the variance in concern for appropriateness may be accounted for by conceptual development. The relationship between concern for appropriateness and
moral development was in the low moderate range and results revealed that 9% of the variance in concern for appropriateness may be accounted for by moral development; however some or all of this variance may be shared by conceptual complexity. Nonetheless, these findings provide important new insight into the constructs of moral and conceptual development and their relationship to social conformity. The field of law enforcement continues to search for more effective methods of screening potential law enforcement officers (Cole & Smith, 1996). Although further research about the relationship between these constructs must occur with larger samples in varying settings, the results from this study point to possible new information about individual tendencies to comply with social expectations and the relationship to critical thinking and ethical decision-making and potential behavior, which are critical components of effective performance by law enforcement officers.

The promising results of this Deliberate Psychological Educational intervention have implications for law enforcement training and for education in general. Promoting cognitive development among law enforcement officer trainees has implications for society in terms of potential deterrence of corruption and training officers who can approach their multiple roles and challenges with a more highly developed conceptual framework, thus enabling the generation of multiple viable alternatives to often ambiguous situations. Given the current limited focus on ethics training in police academy programs and the difficulty in accessing the law enforcement culture (Schmalleger, 1997; Cole & Smith, 1996), effective ethics training and promotion of cognitive development among law enforcement officers might best be delivered via law enforcement administration policies and personnel.
However, administrators and law enforcement training personnel must also be invested in their own ongoing cognitive growth in order to effectively facilitate the development of police trainees. Providing a more concentrated focus on the cognitive development of law enforcement trainees may, therefore, require policy changes and a paradigm shift at all levels within the law enforcement hierarchy, which may not be easily accomplished.

Questions may be raised, however, about whether educators are effectively assisting law enforcement officers by promoting critical thinking about problem solving and ethical dilemmas. Should educators be training police officers to simply follow the rules? Will reflection rather than quick action actually place law enforcement officers in danger? These questions can be answered in light of the realities of the practical day to day functioning of law enforcement officers.

Law enforcement officers leave the police academy with an image of the police officer who enforces the law in a structured, rule-based context. Most law enforcement officers soon discover that the largest proportion of their hours on duty is devoted to order maintenance and community service, rather than enforcing specific laws, making arrests, and using the defensive driving, firearms, and hand to hand combat training received in the academy (Schmalleger, 1997). As stated in the literature review, law enforcement officers must undertake many roles including crisis counselor and mediator. This gap between expectations and reality often results in cognitive dissonance leading to various levels of cynicism (Cole & Smith, 1996). Although the tactical training of the police academy is important and possibly life saving, the officer must be able to think critically and logically, beyond reliance upon standard operating procedure in order to
meet the full requirements of the profession. In addition, the relationship between moral reasoning and moral behavior has been established by previous research. Therefore, higher levels of moral reasoning may promote more appropriate ethical decision making among law enforcement officers, particularly when the dilemma cannot be resolved simply by "following the rules." However, the implications for the individual well-being of law enforcement officers must also be considered.

Perhaps the most insidious of all threats facing law enforcement personnel is stress (Schmalleger, 1997). Twice as many police officers die as a result of suicide than in the line of duty (Cole & Smith, 1996). Levo and Biggs (1989) among others found that conceptual development was positively related to effective coping with stress. Discussions about occupational stress and effective coping methods was a focal point of this intervention, in addition to promoting development of conceptual complexity.

The police culture does not actively encourage counseling. It was reported by many of the law enforcement officers in the class and in the literature that counseling is viewed as a sign of weakness within the subculture; therefore, officers are reluctant to ask for help. During the intervention, police officers were asked to reflect upon their new lives as law enforcement officers, the changes brought about by this new role, and potential stress outlets and coping mechanisms. To the extent that such an intervention can provide a forum in which to discuss such issues, law enforcement officers may seek more functional and effective alternatives to coping with stress than the traditional "I'll keep it to myself" and resultant negative physical and emotional consequences. Although the movement along the domain of conceptual development was not significant for law
enforcement officers in this intervention, it was in a positive direction, and given additional support and perhaps a longer term intervention, may have become both practically and statistically significant.

Regarding implications for educational in general, the debate over the promotion of moral development in educational settings is ongoing. However, most educators concede that the purpose of education is to promote growth. The controversy over the definition of "growth" and how to promote it may have left a void in the field of education and the practice of educators. This void may have contributed to the low mean scores on the cognitive developmental measures for moral reasoning and for conceptual complexity for participants in this study on the pretests. College students and police officers exhibited pretest levels of moral reasoning on the DIT (N Score) similar to averages reported by Rest (1998) for high school students. In the case of the DIT level of principled moral reasoning (P Score), scores approximated levels similar to junior high school students.

The research on cognitive developmental theory and the relationship between higher levels of cognitive development and more effective functioning in various areas such as problem solving, decision making, interpersonal functioning, and coping with stress should not be ignored. If the aim of education is to produce effective agents in acquiring life skills and meeting professional and personal demands and challenges, it would be remiss to ignore the potentials of cognitive developmental theory and its application to educational settings where students are assisted in meeting these goals.

It is acknowledged that the criticisms leveled against cognitive developmental theories must be addressed. Social reform that takes into account differential access to
resources must occur in order to effectively meet the educational demands of all cultures and subcultures, however, promotion of cognitive development in education can occur simultaneously. The cognitive growth of the students in this intervention on both dependent measures, moral and conceptual, indicates that cognitive development can occur in an educational setting, even during a brief ten week intervention.

This study represents a beginning point, in discovering how the moral reasoning and conceptual complexity of police trainees and students in criminal justice might be developed through an educational intervention. This study contributes to the existing void in the research literature regarding moral and conceptual development interventions in law enforcement. Interventions such as the one described have the potential of effectively deterring police officers from becoming involved in corrupt activities while facilitating the development of a more functional and adequate framework in problem conceptualization and resolution through promotion of conceptual development. Additional information was discovered about the relationship between moral and conceptual development to other constructs. Tendency to comply with social expectations or conformity was found to be significantly related to conceptual and moral development.

This research attempted to discern if Deliberate Psychological Education can make a difference in the promotion of moral and conceptual development; however, further investigation will be necessary utilizing multiple instructors in multiple investigations that include procedures to follow up with the participants over time to fully determine the effectiveness of such programs. Programs should be implemented in various settings, both urban and rural, in order to enhance the generalizability of results to the population of law
enforcement officers in the United States.

One of the suggestions made by several of the law enforcement officers on the written program evaluation was to extend the length of the criminal justice course. This suggestion was also verbalized by several of the students and the law enforcement trainees toward the end of the semester. Future training programs for law enforcement officers might be more effective if they were to provide a longer training period (perhaps six to eight months, rather than three or four months). Because cognitive development tends to occur slowly in adults, a longer intervention period may allow cognitive development to emerge and to be "anchored." A longer intervention period may also enable researchers to find significant movement on cognitive developmental measures such as the Defining Issues Test and the Paragraph Completion Method, therefore, lending empirical credibility to qualitative observations of the "fruits" of cognitive development (e.g., discussions utilizing more formal reasoning, greater tolerance for ambiguity among participants, and the ability to generate multiple alternatives and hypotheses).

According to Hunt et al. (1978), conceptual level does not change quickly; however, conceptual development can occur if conceptual level facilitation is the focus of an educational or training program. Although this intervention failed to find significant movement on the conceptual development measure, a longer term intervention may have enabled the researchers to find significant growth in conceptual level for the participants in the intervention group.

As mentioned previously, Deliberate Psychological Education training programs for law enforcement officers might best be implemented by personnel in the police
academy (i.e., other senior law enforcement personnel) rather than by college professors, who may be viewed as "outsiders" or unapproachable. Previous discussion of the police working personality profile (Skolnick, 1966; Schmalleger, 1997) described the common personality traits that many police officers and trainees tend to share. Part of this profile includes suspicion of "outsiders," but an immense loyalty to "insiders" or fellow officers, which includes an added respect for senior officers and training personnel. DPE programs might be most effective if police academy training personnel were instructed through seminars and ongoing training about the various components of Deliberate Psychological Education and the methods of delivering police ethics training through a DPE format. Law enforcement trainees might be more receptive to support, challenge, and guided reflection delivered by those who are more readily accepted and trusted.

Other researchers interested in Deliberate Psychological Education interventions with this population and others should note the importance of building trust between instructors and participants and among the participants themselves. Building trust tended to occur slowly in this intervention given that the instructors were not law enforcement personnel and that approximately half of the participants were college students who were not undergoing training to become law enforcement officers. To some extent, this "mixing" of participants who were engaged in different professional roles may have hampered group cohesiveness, particularly during small group discussions. However, there were benefits to including participants with different professional roles and different world views in the same discussion groups. Carefully setting ground rules for class participation and providing a "safety net" of no judgment of responses or reflections.
tended to create a safe enough atmosphere to enable the law enforcement officers and the students to form cohesive and engaged groups. The participants in this study, both students and law enforcement trainees, noted the benefit of learning about the world view of "the other group." Furthermore, differing levels of reasoning about dilemmas and problems enabled some group members to benefit from the perspectives of other students and trainees. Without the trust-building emphasis, this intervention may have reached an impasse early in the semester, perpetuating the separation between the two subgroups in the intervention and also the separation between the law enforcement trainees and the instructors.

Police ethics training is not the only appropriate forum within which to implement the components of Deliberate Psychological Education. As mentioned previously, important factors affecting the emotional well being of law enforcement trainees and their families must be considered during the training process. It might be beneficial to include the families (spouses and children) of law enforcement trainees in some program activities involving guided reflection and support as they are challenged by the implications of the significant new role undertaken by an important family member. Family inclusion might also be beneficial for DPE programs for other populations such as those entering the medical profession and the mental health profession.

The importance of an ongoing environmental context has been cited by both Kohlberg and Sprinthall. Kohlberg attempted to address this issue with his Just Community (Kuhmerker, 1994). Sprinthall (1978) stated that when individuals do not have opportunities for continued support and challenge, their growth may stagnate at
levels below their potential. Law enforcement officers entering their professional positions following an intervention designed to promote cognitive growth may find themselves in an environment that often promotes unethical behavior (e.g., the police subculture exerts pressure to conform to corrupt practices) and lower order thinking (e.g., rote solutions applied to complex, multi-dimensional problems). As one law enforcement trainee stated “I guess the bottom line is that I searched for the ‘right’ answers and didn’t really find all of them. I am still a young officer and I am hoping that in time I can answer some of my own questions.” It would be imperative, for this officer and others who are searching for answers to the many questions that arise in police work, to engage in this searching within a work environment that offers ongoing services (e.g., periodic in-service workshops, counseling, law enforcement support groups, etc.) with opportunities to extend the guided reflection and support experienced during a DPE educational program.
Appendix A

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Informed Consent

Intervention Group

I _____________________ understand that I will be completing instruments (Defining Issues Test, Paragraph Completion Method, and Concern for Appropriateness Scale) and a demographics questionnaire as part of an assessment about whether criminal justice education promotes student development in critical thinking and justice reasoning.

The class curriculum will include class discussion and reflective writing assignments, in addition to three examinations on the material in the textbook and class discussions.

I understand that I may choose not to participate in this assessment. Instead, I may choose to complete an independent study which would require the completion of a research paper on a selected topic in criminal justice (30 page minimum), six summaries (three page minimum) of selected journal articles, and successful performance on three examinations covering material in the textbook.

I understand that my responses to these instruments will be confidential and will not identify me by name. Instead, a code word will be used for instrument matching purposes. Only the class average scores will be reported and used in this assessment, not individual scores. These instruments do not comprise any part of my course grade.

I understand that I may receive a copy of the results of this assessment upon request.

____________________

Student Signature
Informed Consent

Comparison Group

I understand that I will be completing instruments (Defining Issues Test, Paragraph Completion Method, Concern for Appropriateness Scale) and a demographics questionnaire as part of an assessment about whether criminal justice education promotes student development in critical thinking and justice reasoning. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that my responses to these instruments will be confidential and will not identify me by name. Instead, a code word will be used for instrument matching purposes. Only the class average scores will be reported and used in this assessment, not individual scores. These instruments do not comprise any part of my course grade. I understand that I may receive a copy of the results of this assessment upon request.

______________________________
Student Signature
Demographics Questionnaire

Age (in years): ____

Gender: Male ___  Occupation: __________
Female ___  Code (for instrument matching purposes): __________

Race:
__ African American
__ Asian American
__ Caucasian/European American
__ Latin American/Hispanic
__ Native American/Pacific Islander
__ Multiracial

Marital Status:
__ Never Married
__ Married
__ Unmarried (living with someone in a committed relationship)
__ Divorced
__ Separated
__ Widowed

Educational Level:  Student Status:
__ High School Diploma  Full-time ___
__ Associate's Degree  Part-time ___
__ Bachelor's Degree
__ Graduate Degree

Reason for Taking this Course:
Crater Criminal Justice Academy ___  College Degree Credit ___  Other ___

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Test Taking Motivation Questionnaire

Code (for instrument matching purposes) _____________

Please give an honest response to the following questions. Your responses will be anonymous. This will help us determine whether or not to use your responses on the previous instruments as part of our data collection.

I found the previous instruments to be:

very interesting ___
mildly interesting ___
uninteresting ___

In responding to the questions on the instruments I:

___ responded carefully and thoughtfully to all items
___ responded carefully and thoughtfully to most items
___ was not interested and therefore didn't give much thought or care in responding
Defining Issues Test

University of Minnesota
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Please write a code word or number of your choosing on the line below (for instrument matching purposes only): ________________

This questionnaire is aimed at understanding how people think about social problems. Different people often have different opinions about questions of right and wrong. There are no "right" answers in the way that there are right answers to math problems. You will be asked to give your opinion concerning several problem stories. Here is a story example:

Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. Below there is a list of some of these questions.

If you were Frank Jones, how important would each of these questions be in deciding what car to buy?

Part A: (sample solution)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Importance</th>
<th>1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block as where Frank lives?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Great</td>
<td>2. Would a used car be more economical in the long run than a new car?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>3. Whether the color was green Frank's favorite color.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some</td>
<td>4. Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least 200.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
<td>5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact car?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>6. Whether the front fenders were differential.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part B: (Sample question)

From the list of questions and considerations above, select the most important one of the whole group. Put the number of the most important question on the top line below. Do likewise for your 2nd, 3rd, and 4th most important choices.

___ Most important
___ Second most important
___ Third most important
___ Fourth most important

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Newspaper

Fred, a senior in high school, wanted to publish a mimeographed newspaper for students so that he could express many of his opinions. He wanted to speak out against the use of the military in international disputes and to speak out against some of the school's rules, like the rule forbidding boys to wear long hair.

When Fred started his newspaper, he asked his principal for permission. The principal said it would be all right if before every publication Fred would turn in all his articles for the principal's approval. Fred agreed and turned in several articles for approval. The principal approved all of them and Fred published two issues of the paper in the next two weeks.

But the principal had not expected that Fred's newspaper would receive so much attention. Students were so excited by the paper that they began to organize protests against the hair regulation and other school rules. Angry parents objected to Fred's opinions. They phoned the principal telling him that the newspaper was unpatriotic and should not be published. As a result of the rising excitement, the principal ordered Fred to stop publishing. He gave as a reason that Fred's activities were disruptive to the operation of the school.

Should the principal stop the newspaper?
Should stop it __
Can't decide ___
Should not stop it ___

On the right, check the level of importance you give each item in making your decision.

Great Much Some Little No

1. Is the principal more responsible to students or to parents? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

2. Did the principal give his word that the newspaper could be published for a long time, or did he just promise to approve the newspaper one issue at a time? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

3. Would the students start protesting even more if the principal stopped the newspaper? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

4. When the welfare of the school is threatened, does the principal have the right to give orders to students? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

5. Does the principal have the freedom of speech to say "No" in this case? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

6. If the principal stopped the newspaper, would he be preventing full discussion of important problems? ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
7. Whether the principal’s order would make Fred lose faith in the principal.

8. Whether Fred was really loyal to his school and patriotic to his country?

9. What effect would stopping the paper have on the student’s education in critical thinking and judgment?

10. Whether Fred was in any way violating the rights of others in publishing his own opinions.

11. Whether the principal should be influenced by some angry parents when it is the principal who knows best what is going on in the school.

12. Whether Fred was using the newspaper to stir up hatred and discontent.

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:
Most important ___
Second most important ___
Third most important ___
Fourth most important ___

Escaped Prisoner

A man had been sentenced to prison for ten years. After one year, however, he escaped from prison, moved to a new area of the country, and took on the name of Thompson. For eight years he worked hard, and gradually he saved enough money to buy his own business. He was fair to his customers, gave his employees top wages, and gave most of his own profits to charity. Then one day Mrs. Jones, an old neighbor, recognized him as the man who had escaped from prison eight years before and for whom the police had been looking.

Should Mrs. Jones report Mr. Thompson to the police and have him sent back to prison?

Should report him ___
Can’t decide ___
Should not report him ___

1. Hasn’t Mr. Thompson been good enough for such a long time to prove he isn’t a bad person? __ Great Much Some Little No

2. Every time someone escapes punishment for a crime, doesn’t that just encourage more crime? __
1. Wouldn't we be better off without prison and the oppression of our legal system?

2. Has Mr. Thompson really paid his debt to society?

3. Would society be failing what Mr. Thompson should fairly expect?

4. What benefits would prisons be apart from society, especially for a charitable man?

5. How could anyone be so cruel and heartless as to send Mr. Thompson to prison?

6. Would it be fair to all the prisoners who had to serve out their full sentences if Mr. Thompson was let off?

7. Was Mrs. Jones a good friend of Mr. Thompson?

8. Wouldn't it be a citizens's duty to report an escaped criminal, regardless of the circumstances?

9. How would the will of the people and the public good best be served.

10. Would going to prison do any good for Mr. Thompson or protect anybody?

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:
Most important __
Second most important __
Third most important __
Fourth most important __

Heinz and the Drug

In Europe a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that the doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging ten times what the drug cost to make. He paid $200 for the radium and charged $2,000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about $1,000, which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying, and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and began to
think about breaking into the man’s store to steal the drug for his wife.

Should Heinz steal the drug for his wife?
Should steal it __
Can’t decide ___
Should not steal it ___

1. Whether a community’s laws are going to be upheld. ________________________________

2. Isn’t it only natural for a loving husband to care so much that he’d steal?

3. Is Heinz willing to risk getting shot as a burglar or going to jail for the chance that stealing the drug might help?

4. Whether Heinz is a professional wrestler, or has considerable influence with professional wrestlers.

5. Whether Heinz is stealing for himself or doing this solely to help someone else.

6. Whether the druggist’s rights to his invention have to be respected.

7. Whether the essence of living is more encompassing than the termination of dying, socially and individually.

8. What values are going to be the basis for governing how people act towards each other.

9. Whether the druggist is going to be allowed to hide behind a worthless law which only protects the rich anyhow.

10. Whether the law in this case is getting in the way of the most basic claim of any member of society.

11. Whether the druggist deserves to be robbed for being so greedy and cruel.

12. Would stealing in such a case bring about more total good for the whole society or not.

From the list of questions above, select the four most important:
Most important ___
Second most important ___
Third most important ___
Fourth most important ___
Paragraph Completion Method

Please write a code word or number of your choosing on the line below (for instrument matching purposes only):

__________________

On the following pages, you will be asked to give your ideas about several topics. Please write at least three sentences on each topic.

There are no right or wrong answers, so give your own ideas and opinions about each topic. Indicate the way you really feel about each topic, not the way others feel or the way you think you should feel.

In general, spend about 3 minutes for each item.

What I think about rules . . .

When I am criticized . . .

What I think about parents . . .

When someone does not agree with me . . .

When I am not sure . . .

When I am told what to do . . .
Concern For Appropriateness Scale

Code (for instrument matching purposes) ______________

These statements concern your reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering. Select the response that tells how true or false the statement is, as applied to you.

1. I tend to show different sides of myself to different people.
   A. _ certainly, always true
   B. _ generally true
   C. _ somewhat true, but with exceptions
   D. _ somewhat false, but with exceptions
   E. _ generally false
   F. _ certainly, always false

2. It is my feeling that if everyone else in a group is behaving in a certain manner, this must be the proper way to behave.
   A. _ certainly, always true
   B. _ generally true
   C. _ somewhat true, but with exceptions
   D. _ somewhat false, but with exceptions
   E. _ generally false
   F. _ certainly, always false

3. I actively avoid wearing clothes that are not in style.
   A. _ certainly, always true
   B. _ generally true
   C. _ somewhat true, but with exceptions
   D. _ somewhat false, but with exceptions
   E. _ generally false
   F. _ certainly, always false

4. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
   A. _ certainly, always true
   B. _ generally true
   C. _ somewhat true, but with exceptions
   D. _ somewhat false, but with exceptions
   E. _ generally false
   F. _ certainly, always false
5. At parties, I usually try to behave in a manner that makes me fit in.
A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false

6. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.
A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false

7. Although I know myself, I find that others do not know me.
A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false

8. I try to pay attention to the reactions of others to my behavior in order to avoid being out of place.
A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false

9. I find that I tend to pick up slang expressions from others and use them as part of my own vocabulary.
A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false
10. Different situations can make me behave like very different people.
A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false

11. I tend to pay attention to what others are wearing.
A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false

12. The slightest look of disapproval in the eyes of a person with whom I am interacting is enough to make me change my approach.
A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false

13. Different people tend to have different impressions about the kind of person I am.
A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false

14. It's important to me to fit in to the group I'm with.
A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false
15. My behavior often depends on how I feel others wish me to behave.
   A. ___ certainly, always true
   B. ___ generally true
   C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
   D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
   E. ___ generally false
   F. ___ certainly, always false

16. I am not always the person I appear to be.
   A. ___ certainly, always true
   B. ___ generally true
   C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
   D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
   E. ___ generally false
   F. ___ certainly, always false

17. If I am the least bit uncertain as to how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.
   A. ___ certainly, always true
   B. ___ generally true
   C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
   D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
   E. ___ generally false
   F. ___ certainly, always false

18. I usually keep up with clothing style changes by watching what others wear.
   A. ___ certainly, always true
   B. ___ generally true
   C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
   D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
   E. ___ generally false
   F. ___ certainly, always false

19. I sometimes have the feeling that people don't know who I really am.
   A. ___ certainly, always true
   B. ___ generally true
   C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
   D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
   E. ___ generally false
   F. ___ certainly, always false

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20. When in a social situation, I tend not to follow the crowd, but instead behave in a manner that suits my particular mood at the time.

A. ___ certainly, always true
B. ___ generally true
C. ___ somewhat true, but with exceptions
D. ___ somewhat false, but with exceptions
E. ___ generally false
F. ___ certainly, always false
Appendix B

Contents

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Course Syllabus

Criminal Justice 250

I. Course and Objectives

The overall goal of this course is to introduce students to the foundation concepts in the academic discipline of Criminal Justice. Sociological approaches to studying the justice system attempt to gain greater explanatory insight into human behavior by scientifically assessing the human condition.

Human behavior is a complex puzzle; most of the pieces are yet to be discovered. Empirical investigation slowly uncovers recurring patterns and correlations from both social and biochemical sources which help give greater insight into the bottom line, age-old questions: Why do we behave the way we do? In this course, behavior defined as criminal and the response of the bureaucratic organizations and law enforcement officials of our justice system will be the focal point.

The practical value you gain from this course or any other life experience is dependent upon your desire to learn from it. As the ancient saying goes: "When the student is ready, the teacher will appear." A person who is open to learning will grow intellectually and emotionally from any experience. A person who is closed-minded and resistant to learning can have countless ideas of immense potential practical value laid out before them, and they will fail to benefit from them.

On a more bureaucratic note, our college has formulated a number of quantifiable goals and objectives which we may use to assess the amount of learning happening in our classes. The following objectives are focused upon in this course.
The student will gain a better understanding of social forces that shape society.

The student will learn about the basic concepts of society, culture, and socialization, especially as these forces impact upon the justice process.

The student will be able to trace the influence of Western Civilization on modern social thought (e.g., the use of an adversarial system rather than an inquisitional system).

The student will be able to utilize appropriate analytic and conceptual tools (e.g., latent functions analysis and conflict theory) to understand present and future courses of action (e.g., criminal justice policy-making) by the U.S. and foreign nations.

The student will be able to describe factors which motivate individuals and result in the creation of social institutions (e.g., material and symbolic special interests).

The student will engage in reflection during class discussions regarding moral and ethical issues in the field of criminal justice.

II. Course Content and Subject Material to be Covered

Subject Material

Part I

General Overview of the CJS, Measurement of Crime, Theories of Deviance

Part II

History of Policing, Styles of Policing, Occupational Stress, Use of Deadly Force, Corruption
III. Course Requirements:

Students will be expected to read the assigned chapters of the text; attend class and take notes on the lectures (much of the material comes from the lectures); and participate in class discussions.

IV. Resources to be Used:

Text: Criminal Justice in America, 1996 (by Cole & Smith)

Also, several video tapes will be used during the semester.

Library reserve articles.

V. Evaluation Methods:

Grading: Three tests @ 20% each = 60%

Class Participation = 40%

(see below)

Testing: Testing will involve primarily objective style questions. There may be short answer or brief essay questions on some of the tests. Questions will be based on assigned text readings, plus articles placed on reserve in the library. Such reserve material will be announced in class. Also, any issues discussed in class, or presented in video tapes will be possible sources of test questions.
Class Participation: In-Class Discussion

In-class discussion exercises will be an important component of the course. Assessment of participation will focus on the following:

- level of participation during in-class discussions
- level of participation during small group discussions

Writing Requirement

Each student will be required to turn in a weekly written assignment (minimum length one page). The focus of the writing assignment will be on students' reflections about issues raised during class discussions, real world experiences students encounter that may influence their thoughts, or analysis of assigned vignettes that pertain to issues discussed in class. Late assignments will not be accepted.

VI. Grading Scale:

100 - 90 = A
89 - 80 = B
79 - 70 = C
69 - 60 = D
59 & below = F

VII. Attendance Policy:

Regular class attendance is mandatory! Because most of the test questions
come from lecture material not found in the text, absences from class will negatively impact student performance. Participation during in-class discussions is very important not only to a student's letter grade, but also to the student's personal and academic development.

VIII. **Honor Code:**

Giving or receiving assistance on tests or quizzes is considered cheating and will result in the student being referred to the Honor Court for disciplinary purposes.

IX. **Disclaimer:**

Every effort will be made to adhere to the schedules and policies stated above. However, should the unforeseen occur, students will be notified of changes as soon as possible.
Lecture and Activity Outline

Week One

Course introduction.

Syllabus and writing assignment guidelines.

Administration of instruments.

Lecture - History of the criminal justice system. Several open ended discussion questions were included to begin making participants comfortable with class discussion.

Week Two

History of the justice system continued.

Class exercise - create a new justice system (see exercise description section).

Week Three

Sentencing and restitution.

Discussion - restitution (see exercise description section).

Week Four

Corrections.

Measuring and reporting crime.

Discussion - reporting crime (see exercise description section).
Week Five

Theories and bureaucracies.

Deviance

Discussion - deviance (see exercise description section).

Week Six

Procedural law and limitations.

Discussion - procedural law and limitations (see exercise description section).

Week Seven

Police working personality.

Occupational stress.

Film on police suicide.

Class discussion (see exercise description section).

Week Eight

Corruption.

Film on police corruption.

Class discussion (see exercise description section).
**Week Nine**

Styles of policing and violence.

Police discretion and ethical decision making.

Class discussion (see exercise description section).

**Week Ten**

Courts and due process.

Supreme Court.

Capital punishment.

Film on capital punishment.

Class discussion - capital punishment (see exercise description section).

Administer instruments.
Class Discussion Exercises

**Topic - History of the Justice System**

*Small group discussion followed by large class summarization*

Discussion questions included:

- What are the benefits of having a formal justice system?
- What are the shortcomings of a formal justice system?

Class divided into small groups and created their own justice system drawing from the classical and positivist schools.

**Topic - Sentencing and Restitution**

*Large class discussion*

Discussion questions included:

- How do you think the amount of crime would be impacted if courts handed out restitution sentences? Give some examples of restitution sentences.
- Direct monetary restitution may not always be best. Example: someone who is disabled for life because of violent crime. What restitution is best?
- What if the perpetrator has no money? What restitution is best?

**Topic - Reporting of Crime**

*Small group discussion followed by large class summarization*

Mitch

Pinetree Subdivision was a quiet family-oriented neighborhood in a small midwestern
town. Neighbors prided themselves on getting along and assisting one another whenever
the need arose. Life seemed tranquil; most afternoons you could hear children playing in
the neighborhood and neighbors chatting along the sidewalks. In the evenings, neighbors
often enjoyed taking walks, particularly Mr. Smith, a retired school teacher who was
beloved by all of the children. He often organized fun activities for them and also taught
Sunday School at the local church.

All of this changed when Mitch Weber, a surly and intimidating newcomer moved
to Pinetree. Mitch was a loner who frightened the children by his ominous appearance.
He was a tall, bearded man, with long dark hair. Mitch roared through the neighborhood
streets in his pickup truck. He resisted efforts to become part of the neighborhood
"family," yet he did make his presence known in other, less friendly ways.

Mitch began what the neighbors later referred to as a "reign of terror" over the
neighborhood. He threatened children and adults as they walked along the streets by
shaking his fist and saying things like "Mess with me and I'll kill you." He often scared
neighborhood women by tailgating them as they drove; he even ran one woman off the
road. A few days later he engaged a neighborhood man in a game of "chicken" as he
drove home from work. When Mr. Smith took his routine walks, Mitch would follow him
closely and intimidate him with his physical presence and verbal threats such as "You
better not get in my way Sunday School boy or I'll show you what a real man is like."

Mitch's behavior became more and more odd and frightening. He would lurk in
the streets at night and stand outside various homes, inflicting his threatening presence on
the neighborhood. He would call various families and make comments such as "watch
your children closely." As time passed, children stopped playing outside and neighborhood families stayed in their homes to avoid Mitch.

Calls to the police proved futile because Mitch could never be caught in the act. He would receive warnings and then continue his threatening behavior. It seemed that nothing could be done or proven. One evening as Mr. Smith was walking, you notice from a distance that Mitch approaches him and begins to taunt him by hurling verbal insults, threatening Mr. Smith's family, and getting close enough physically to tower over Mr. Smith. It has gotten dark and this occurs along a fairly deserted area in the neighborhood. Mr. Smith who has been routinely harassed by Mitch suddenly lunges toward Mitch and Mitch falls to the ground. Mr. Smith hurries home.

You also return home and discover the following day that Mitch was found dead from a stab wound along the walkway where you observed Mitch with Mr. Smith. Police are questioning all neighbors who, like you, are thrilled to have Mitch out of their lives. You wonder whether you should disclose what you witnessed.

Questions for discussion:

1. What considerations might justify your not discussing what you witnessed with the police?

2. What considerations obligate you to disclose what you witnessed to the police?

3. Whose rights seem more important - the neighborhood families' rights to a peaceful and nonthreatening environment, or Mitch's right to life?

4. How does the fact that Mr. Smith led an exemplary life and that he was a wonderful influence on the children influence your decision?
5. How does your dislike for Mitch and your desire to live peacefully, influence your decision?

6. Does this Mitch’s character justify the “death penalty” he received?

**Topic - Social Deviance**

**Small group discussion followed by large class summarization**

**Earl**

Earl is an elderly eccentric who frequents a local drug store. Earl dresses in odd clothing, never matching, and always looking disheveled, unshaven, and unclean. He has enjoyed eating lunch at the drug store which still maintains an old fashioned lunch counter for the last twenty years. Earl often mutters to himself as he enjoys his tuna sandwich and vegetable soup. When he finishes his lunch, he promptly pays his bill and then browses the store for twenty or thirty minutes before buying some small item or two and leaving.

Recently the store owners retired and sold the store to a new owner. The new owner notices that business in the store drops significantly when Earl is around. He overhears comments as people come in and then quickly leave when they see Earl such as "Oh god, he's here again, let's go to the drug store in the mall instead," or "Let's eat somewhere else, that guy really smells." The new owner considers taking steps to prevent Earl from frequenting the drug store.

Questions for discussion:

1. What issues should be considered justifying the drug store owner’s desire to prevent Earl from frequenting the store?
2. What issues should be considered justifying Earl's desire to frequent the drug store?

3. Should there be formal rules regulating situations such as these? If so, what would some of those rules be? If not, why?

4. What principles should regulate defining "deviant" behavior as unacceptable so that formal sanctions such as laws or ordinances are necessary?

**Topic - Procedural Law and Limitations**

**Large class discussion**

A video about procedural law regarding issues such as search and seizure was shown.

Following the video, a large class discussion covered the following questions:

Questions for discussion:

1. Are our police limited too much by procedural law? Why?
   
   ex: procedural laws may hamper the law enforcement officer's ability to effectively apprehend criminals

2. What should be some exceptions to procedural laws? Why?
   
   ex: issue of using criminal "profiles" to stop individuals who meet that profile for only that reason. Don't individuals have the right to lead a certain lifestyle without fear of being stopped by the police because they meet a certain profile?

3. If someone has a felony record, should they be afforded the same rights of search and seizure as ordinary citizens? Why?
   
   ex: a child molester who has done his time - if a neighborhood child is molested, is the child molester protected by the procedural laws?
4. At what point do individual rights take precedence over societal protection?

ex: we have these procedural laws that protect **all** members of society (even the fringe element) to ensure that all citizens are protected. At what point should individual rights prevail or can individuals be "sacrificed" for the greater good of being able to apprehend criminals more effectively?

**Topic - Occupational Stress**

**Large class discussion**

Video on police suicide was shown. Following video, open class discussion occurred about occupational stress, the effects of stress, coping strategies for law enforcement officers, etc.

**Topic - Corruption**

**Large class discussion**

Video on police corruption. Following video, open class discussion about police corruption, the causes, and effective deterrence.

**Topic - Police Discretion and Ethical Decision Making**

**Small group discussion followed by large class summarization**

The Drunken Captain

The city had just suffered through what was believed to be the worst winter storm of the century. Over three feet of snow had fallen in two days and the streets were lined
with five- and six-foot-high walls of snow placed there by the plows. Joe Hernandez, a police officer for the past five years, felt that he and the two other patrol cars in his district were probably the only ones in the city out on this cold night.

He made his usual full stop at an intersection in a south side residential neighborhood, although he thought it wasn't necessary because the streets were deserted. Just as he began to pull into the intersection, he narrowly missed being struck by a late-model sedan traveling south at a high rate of speed and without its lights on. He immediately gave chase. He couldn't believe his eyes! The sedan was weaving down the road and bouncing off the snowbanks. He thought to himself, "This guy is either nuts or loaded."

He pulled his cruiser in behind the speeding sedan and activated his overhead lights. Fortunately, he gave himself plenty of room as the driver of the sedan made a sudden stop.

Officer Hernandez had hardly exited his cruiser when he detected "a strong odor of an alcoholic beverage." The driver of the sedan, a white male about 35, staggered from the car, supporting himself on the door frame. "I had to drive, officer," he chuckled, "I was too drunk to walk."

This is going to be a good one, Officer Hernandez thought, as he observed the driver's bloodshot eyes, disheveled clothing, staggering walk, and disorientation. "May I see your driver's license?" Hernandez asked. When the driver opened his wallet, Hernandez' flashlight fell on the unmistakable badge of a captain in his department.

Questions for discussion:
1. How should officer Hernandez handle this situation? Why?

2. If officer Hernandez chooses to let the captain go, is this action considered participating in "corruption?" Why?

3. What are the personal implications of any decision officer Hernandez might make in this situation?


**Topic - Capital Punishment**

**Large class discussion**

Video on capital punishment. Following video, open class discussion about both sides of the capital punishment debate.
Writing Assignments

Writing Requirement Guidelines

Each week you will be required to turn in a writing assignment (minimum length - one page typed or two pages handwritten). The assignment is to be turned in every Tuesday at the beginning of class. The writing assignments will give the student the opportunity to reflect on experiences in and outside of the classroom. The student will receive written feedback from the instructors that may assist the student in conceptualizing and making meaning of important issues in his/her academic life or real world experience.

These assignments are not graded in the traditional sense. The student will receive full credit for turning in the assignment which will count as 20% of the class participation grade. Therefore, turning in all assignments that meet the described expectations will result in an "A" for 20% of the student's grade. Because this is such a large component of the student's grade, however, written work that does not reflect an adequate level of reflection or attempt at integrating and analyzing academic/real world experiences will be returned to the student for revision. Late assignments will not be accepted.

Some weeks, the assignment will be specific. For example, the student will be asked to respond to questions about a vignette that concerns issues within the field of criminal justice or other scenarios that will require analytic thinking. Other weeks, the assignment will be "open," i.e., the student will write about any issues or experiences (either academic or personal) that were particularly relevant to him/her, including the student's perceptions of these issues, an analysis of their possible meaning, and an attempt at integrating these experiences in a way that makes sense to the student.
**Writing Assignment #1**

Please reflect upon the following:

Your impressions about any issues that were discussed during the first week of class and how your opinions about these issues have either been confirmed, influenced, or enlightened.

Minimum length one page typed, two pages handwritten.

**Writing Assignment #2**

Please reflect upon the following:

Any pertinent experiences currently occurring in your life that may be causing you to reevaluate issues or perhaps think about them for the first time. For example: new jobs that require you to take on responsibilities that you did not have before; new relationships that require negotiation; academic challenges; etc.

Minimum length one page typed, two pages handwritten.

**Writing Assignment #3**

Discuss a recent media event that has aroused your concern or caused you to reevaluate your beliefs about society.

- What was it about the event that caught your attention?
- What issues were of particular concern to you?
- How do these issues impact society as a whole?

Minimum length one page typed, two pages handwritten.
Writing Assignment #4

The Doctor’s Dilemma

A woman was dying of cancer which could not be cured and she had only about six months to live. She was in terrible pain, but she was so weak that a good dose of pain-killer like morphine would make her die sooner. She was delirious and almost crazy with pain, and in her calm periods, she would ask the doctor to give her enough morphine to kill her. She said she couldn’t stand the pain and that she was going to die in a few months anyway (Rest, 1986b, p. 5).

Instructions:

For this vignette, DO NOT respond by stating whether you think the doctor should give his patient enough pain killer to cause her early death.

Analyze this vignette only by discussing the issues that the doctor should consider in making a decision. Please name and discuss at least three issues that would be important in making this decision.

DO NOT make a decision for the doctor.

Minimum length one page typed or two pages handwritten.

Writing Assignment #5

Mike

Mike, an experienced and talented detective, was the chief investigating officer on a case that involved a series of rapes, kidnappings, and robberies that were all committed by the same person. In each of the cases, the rapist knocked on the front door of the
home, talked or forced his way in, and upon finding that the woman was alone or only small children were present, took her to a bedroom and raped her. In all, the rapist victimized five women in this way.

The third rape was, however, different from the others in that as he was raping his victim, someone came to the front door and rang the bell. This frightened the rapist and he fled through a rear window, leaving behind him a shoe. Normally, the shoe would have been placed with the other physical evidence from the scene in a police evidence room, but Mike took possession of the shoe himself so that it might be used to give the rapist's scent to some specially trained tracking dogs who would follow it from the victim's home. The dogs followed the scent through city streets for some two miles before they lost it at the door of a popular after-hours club.

Instead of returning the shoe to the evidence room, Mike placed it in the back of one of the bottom drawers in his desk, a desk that is never locked. It sat in the desk drawer for weeks until Mike brought it out to compare it with a shoe that had been recovered in a search of the rapist's lodgings. It was a perfect mate to the shoe from Mike's desk. What Mike realized after he had made the match was that by keeping it in his unlocked drawer, he had compromised and possibly destroyed the chain of continuity that would have to be established to introduce the shoe from the victim's home into evidence in court. What he did was forge an evidence receipt with the cooperation of the officer in charge of the evidence room to establish that the shoe had been there all the time (Klockars, 1984, pp. 539-540).

Please answer the following questions:
What considerations justify Mike's actions?

What considerations do not justify Mike's actions?

What motives make Mike's action of returning the shoe to the evidence room honorable?

What motives make Mike's action of returning the shoe to the evidence room dishonorable?

What other courses of action might Mike have taken in this scenario?

Minimum length one page typed or two pages handwritten.

Writing Assignment #6

Good Friends are Hard to Find

When I first joined the police department, I was told by a childhood friend, who was on the same department, "You will only have 'cop' friends, because nobody else understands us." My wife and I found this disquieting. As a result of that statement, we made an effort to cultivate friends outside of law enforcement, many of them being teachers, my wife's profession.

Making friends wasn't easy. It seemed that many people, upon discovering I was a police officer, took it upon themselves to blame me for all the troubles of the world and any violations that they had received from other officers. My wife and I became making a policy of not telling new acquaintances what I did. We just said I worked in "public relations" for the city. After they would get to know us and realize that I was not a monster, we would tell them what I really did. It seemed to work and we began to cultivate a circle of close friends.
It was amazing to us how these friends bent their schedules to accommodate my shift work. Whenever a party was planned, we were the first ones contacted to make sure I was not working or could get the night off. Also, while I suspected that some of these friends were recreational drug users, they were always respectful of my sensitive position and practiced those activities when we were not around.

Two of these friends, Jim and Sandy, invited us to dinner one Friday night at their home. Jim put on some music while my wife went to help Sandy in the kitchen. Jim and I sat in the living room. I needed something for my drink so that I would not leave rings on the coffee table. There was a wooden box on the table that I assumed contained coasters. When I opened the box, I didn't see coasters. What I did see were several joints. When I put the lid back on the box, I looked up and saw the fear in Jim's eyes.

Questions:
- What would you do if you were in this situation?
- Explain the rationale for your answer.
- Speculate on why police officers tend to associate only with other police officers (Close & Meier, 1995, p. 171).

Writing Assignment #7

The Police Working Personality

- Discuss the elements of the police working personality that are beneficial to law enforcement officers as they perform their various duties and why.

- Discuss the elements of the police working personality that are detrimental to law enforcement officers.
enforcement officers in effectively performing various duties and why.

- With which aspects of the police working personality do you identify? Do you believe these aspects will be helpful or pose a challenge in the effective performance of your job either in law enforcement, as a student, or in any other job.

Writing Assignment #8

Course Evaluation

Please reflect upon your experience in this class over the last several weeks. Specific feedback about the structure of the class, suggestions for improvements, and your opinion about exercises and discussions is greatly appreciated. Your candid comments are important. Please do not put your name on this assignment.
References


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