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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE USE OF FORMAL EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND AND OTHER FACTORS IN PREDICTING THE PERFORMANCE OF PROBATIONARY POLICE OFFICERS IN A STATE POLICE ORGANIZATION

By

Thomas G. Nicholson

The principal purpose of this study was to identify significant relationships between selected elements of the formal educational backgrounds of new state policemen in the Michigan State Police, vis a vis measures of their achievement of departmental training objectives and on-the-job performance during their year of probationary service. In addition, the study was designed to concurrently identify significant relationships between the pre-employment independent variables of age, civil service examination scores, height, weight, active military service, and level of family responsibility, vis a vis dependent variable measures of achievement of departmental training objectives and on-the-job performance.

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The study also includes a historical sketch of the evolution of police education and training in the United States and reviews the development of linkages between law enforcement education and training and the university. The study provides a review of past attempts to relate pre-employment information to police duty performance. The changing attitudes of police practitioners and others toward the proper educational background for law enforcement officers are also considered.

Methods, Techniques, and Data Used

The study is primarily correlational, with an aim of working toward prediction. It provides information which should be useful in making predictions of police training achievement and duty performance.

The sample for the study was drawn from a group of 244 men who commenced recruit training with the Michigan State Police in 1971 and 1972.

The measures used were quantifiable or categorical data which is normally available in existing police personnel and civil service files.

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Eight separate hypotheses were formulated and tested in the study. An unlimited least squares multiple regression computer program and t test and chi-square techniques were employed to test the hypotheses.

The computer program used for the multiple regressions also generated additional information beyond that required for hypothesis testing and is presented in tabular and descriptive form in the study.

Findings and Conclusions

Tests of the eight hypotheses yielded the following results at the .05 level of significance:

H-1: There is a significant linear relationship between the following predictor and performance variables:

High school percentile standing vs. recruit training achievement, correspondence study achievement, and advanced trooper achievement.

College quarter-hours vs. recruit training achievement, correspondence study achievement, and advanced trooper achievement.

Age vs. correspondence study achievement.

Height vs. recruit training achievement (negative correlation).

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Civil service written score vs. recruit training achievement, correspondence study achievement, and final recruit evaluation.

Civil service oral review score vs. recruit training achievement (negative correlation).

Active military service vs. advanced trooper achievement (negative correlation).

Level of family responsibility vs. probationary trooper performance rating.

H-2: There is a significant linear relationship between the following performance and predictor variables:

Achievement of civil service status vs. college quarter-hours completed, civil service oral review board scores, and level of family responsibility.

H-3: The difference between public/private high school graduates in achieving civil service status was not significant.

H-4: The difference between GED certificate holders and regular high school graduates in achieving civil service status was not significant.

H-5: The difference in recruit training achievement between men with high/low criminal justice content college programs was not significant.

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H-6: The difference in probationary trooper ratings between men with high/low criminal justice course content college programs was significant.

H-7: The differences in achievement of civil service status between men with high/low criminal justice course content in college programs was not significant.

H-8: A significant difference in achievement of civil service status was found when men with above/below 84.5 college quarter-hours were compared.

Background characteristics, and more specifically components of educational experience, should be useful in predicting training achievement and duty performance in the Michigan State Police. Of the predictors considered in the study "college quarter-hours" appears to be the best predictor of the measures of training achievement, based on partial correlations within the regression equations. Using the combined nine predictors it is possible to predict with relative accuracy the training achievement measures which were considered in this study. The on-the-job performance measure used in this study is not predicted by this combination of independent variables.

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The partial correlations of college quarter-hours, level of family responsibility, and civil service oral review scores are significant at the .05 level of significance when employed with the other six predictors in a regression equation to predict achievement of civil service status. Age is also significant at the .05 level of significance in such an equation, but the correlation is negative.

A multiple correlation at the .05 level of significance was found between the nine combined predictor variables and scores on the following performance measures: 1) recruit training achievement, 2) correspondence study achievement, 3) advanced trooper achievement, and 4) achievement of civil service status. This indicates that this combination of independent variables would be useful in predicting these dependent variable measures.

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A STUDY OF THE USE OF FORMAL EDUCATIONAL
BACKGROUND AND OTHER FACTORS IN
PREDICTING THE PERFORMANCE OF
PROBATIONARY POLICE OFFICERS IN
A STATE POLICE ORGANIZATION

By
Thomas G. Nicholson

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Administration and Higher Education

1973

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THOMAS G. NICHOLSON

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DEDICATION

To my mother and father who did not enjoy the benefits of higher education, but had the intelligence and insight to recognize the important roles of the family, home, and proper example, in personal and educational development. They clearly understood the need for guidance, encouragement, support, and concern in the developmental years; but also had the foresight to recognize the need for young people to gain confidence, self-reliance, and prepare for life by allowing adequate freedom and independence to make mistakes and thus learn valuable lessons about life through living.

To my wife, Nancy, and my daughters, Sherry, Niki, and Cindy, who have exhibited great patience and understanding over the past two years as I performed the rites of doctoral study.

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The writer is appreciative of the interest and support provided by Dr. Floyd G. Parker in his roles of friend, counselor, and major advisor for this thesis.

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The researcher is indebted to Colonel John R. Plants, Director of the Michigan State Police, for granting permission for the study, and for the considerable support provided by that organization.

A listing of the numerous individual members of the state police who materially assisted in this study is not feasible but the writer is particularly indebted to Captain Robert Earhart, Sergeant George Gedda, and Sergeant Richie Davis, for their advice and assistance in completion of this project.

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Appreciation is also expressed to the Department of Defense and the United States Army, which permitted this study, and to the American people who in the end supported this undertaking.

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CHAPTER I
THE PROBLEM

Introduction

A 1968 national opinion poll ranked crime as the number one domestic problem in the United States. It was well above education, transportation, pollution, over-population, and taxes.¹

The critical need for improvement of the criminal justice system, of which law enforcement is an important component, was also clearly and succinctly identified by Chief Justice Burger in posing the following rhetorical question:

If we do not solve what you call the problem of criminal justice, will anything else matter very much?²

¹News item in the New York Times, February 28, 1968, p. 1.

²News item in the Wall Street Journal, September 29, 1969, p. 18.

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The continuing high level of concern by Americans regarding the "crime problem" is reflected in a speech by President Nixon in March, 1973. In this address the President called upon Congress for the restoration of the death penalty for criminal offenses involving assassination, treason, kidnapping, air highjacking, and the murder of law enforcement officials. He also called for life sentences without parole for second convictions of drug dealers.³

In addition, he indicated an intention to increase federal aid to local law enforcement from one billion a year to \$1.2 billion in 1974. He noted that in 1968 the amount of such expenditure was only one hundred million dollars. The President conceded, however, that crime was still increasing, but pointed out that the growth rate had been slowed.⁴

Police service is the most labor-intensive of all government operations; with eighty-five to ninety percent of local police budgets expended for salaries and other

³News item in the New York Times, March 11, 1973, pp. 1, 55.

⁴Ibid.

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personnel costs.⁵ It is obvious that individuals, rather than equipment or machines, must achieve the principal law enforcement goals such as the control and reduction of crime.

During the past six years three presidential commissions have concluded that the upgrading of American law enforcement personnel is one of several actions necessary to mitigate the increasing crime problem.⁶

There is general agreement within the emerging law enforcement profession that the improvement of police personnel is a desirable goal. The explicit selection standards and procedures that should be adopted to achieve this goal are, however, a matter of active dispute. There are many law enforcement practitioners that view any change in past standards for selection as a lowering of standards.

⁵The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1967), p. 11.

⁶The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society: A Report on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1967), pp. 109-111. Report on the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (New York: Bantam Books, 1968), Chapter II. To Establish Justice, to Insure Tranquility: Final Report on the Causes and Prevention of Violence (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1969), Chapter 3, paragraph 76, and Appendix 1, paragraph 275.

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The most obvious question that one might raise about police personnel selection procedures is whether the standards now employed actually serve to separate the potentially successful candidate from those that will not likely perform well on-the-job. Another closely related question is whether or not changes in selection criteria can raise the predictive validity of the selection process.⁷

A recent problem faced by police administrators at all levels is the requirement to validate selection procedures due to court decisions rendered in response to civil rights cases which charge that police selection standards and procedures tend to discriminate against certain minority groups. Police administrators have thus been forced to look carefully at selection criteria and their relationships to performance measures. Police agencies have in fact been threatened with loss of federal support if unvalidated selection criteria are used which could be discriminatory to minority groups.⁸

⁷ Bernard Cohen and Jan M. Chaiken, Police Background Characteristics and Performance (New York: The Rand Institute, 1972), p. 2.

⁸ News release by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Washington, D.C., March 9, 1973.

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There have been several studies which have attempted to relate selection criteria to on-the-job performance, but many questions are still unanswered. Some of the reasons given for this situation are: 1) A suitable method of objectively measuring police performance has not been developed. The available measures tend to reflect internal agency standards rather than the extent to which the agency serves community needs. 2) Within most police agencies there is great diversity in the tasks that must be performed and the selection process must have adequate flexibility to provide men who will perform each of the required tasks well. 3) A logically necessary prerequisite to changes in selection standards is a prediction of the resultant performance levels. Due to the rigidity of police selection standards it is generally not possible to study the performance of men who failed to meet existing standards. 4) The findings have frequently been inconclusive, ambiguous, and contradictory; which hardly provides an acceptable base of knowledge for development of a meaningful theory for personnel selection.⁹

⁹Cohen, op. cit., pp. 3-5.

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A review of past studies of police selection practices reveals that most researchers have attempted to validate the predictive ability of aptitude, personality, psychological, or mental tests. These were generally pencil-and-paper tests, and the results of such studies have often been negative and/or inconsistent from one police agency to another. The most powerful and reliable predictors have been based on elements of the individual's personal history, i.e. education, employment record, and level of early responsibility. For this reason it appears that more attention should be given to research which employs background characteristics as predictors of future police performance.¹⁰

The findings of many studies have failed to provide information of great utility in improving police selection standards and procedures. As an example, a 1950 study by Kates, which involved only twenty-five New York City policemen, would have one believe that successful policemen tend to have low aspirations and are socially

¹⁰Ibid., p. v.

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maladjusted.¹¹ This is hardly the type information to include in recruiting posters or specify as selection criteria.

There has been, however, some progress in establishing relationships between background characteristics or other pre-employment data and later duty performance. Such studies should be helpful in refining the selection process.

A frequently used performance criterion has been failure to terminate employment. In several studies this has been the only performance criterion used. Such studies apparently assume that officers who terminate are less suited for police work, or that the selection process should serve to reduce costs by eliminating men who will not become permanent employees.¹² These studies evidently fail to recognize the possibility that many potentially outstanding police officers may have resigned for reasons not related to their capacity as policemen.

¹¹ Solis L. Kates, "Rorschach Responses, Strong Blank Scales, and Job Satisfaction Among Policemen," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, pp. 34:249-254, 1950.

¹² Cohen, op. cit., p. 6.

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In Upgrading The American Police Charles Saunders
 commented upon the general lack of research in the field
 of law enforcement:

Achievement of more meaningful research concerning police matters is handicapped by the relatively small number of college graduates serving in the police ranks.¹³

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Until the last decade the police service has had little capacity for or interest in, the compilation of basic data about operations and performance. Within the field, leaders who have sought higher standards and personnel reforms have based their case on personal experience rather than on systematic collection of supporting evidence.¹⁴

Saunders also deals specifically with the need for
 research to support or refute the proposition that a significant relationship exists between formal educational attainment and on-the-job duty performance as a police officer:

The reasons advanced for college education for police are essentially the same as those used to justify higher education as preparation for any other career. They rest more on faith than fact . . . and . . . research is unable to determine how much knowledge college

¹³ Charles B. Saunders, Upgrading the American Police: Education and Training For Better Law Enforcement (Washington: The Brookings Institution, 1970), p. 87.

¹⁴ Ibid., p. 25.

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graduates retain from their studies or even whether their personalities and values are significantly altered in the process.¹⁵

Saunders continues by declaring that:

To debate the value of higher education for police, then, is irrelevant. In other occupations involving lesser demands, a general liberal arts education is expected as a background for specialized training. The real question is not "Do police need a college degree?" but "Where are persons with the necessary qualifications to be found?"¹⁶

Saunders then proceeds to answer his own rhetorical questions:

More and more the search leads directly to the college or university campus. As for in-service officers, the question is not whether those without higher education are unqualified but whether advanced study would make them better policemen.¹⁷

In considering the attitudes of some police administrators who accept the notion that educational attainment is the panacea for the ills of American law enforcement, Tenney speculated that one reason for the selection of education for such an important role in criminal

¹⁵ Ibid., pp. 81-82.

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 92.

¹⁷ Ibid.

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justice reform might be the "go to college lockstep phenomenon that has seized the country."¹⁸ Tenney also pointed out that law enforcement had nothing to lose by casting its lot with higher education and subscribing to the myth that:

. . . somewhere in the bowels of the university library or buried atop the professor's cluttered worktable there lies the answers to all our problems had the professors the time to dig them out. Educationalists are most reluctant to admit that while education may set the tone for the activity, it does not provide the answers for its problems. Educators characteristically are more interested in being correct than in being useful.¹⁹

The contrasting views of contemporary writers such as Saunders and Tenney epitomize the conflict within law enforcement concerning the ideal level of formal education appropriate for police officers. Both Saunders and Tenney appear to agree that there is a need for research to provide guidance for the education of police and are critical of the "jury" or "hunch" technique for making police personnel decisions--but, neither offers a more reliable basis for decision-making in this vital area.

¹⁸ Charles Tenney, Higher Education Programs in Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1971), p. 91.

¹⁹ Ibid., p. 93.

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For over a hundred years, both police administrators and scholars have debated the issue of the proper educational background for police. The level of education being considered, however, has risen over the years, from the necessity for a grammar school education to the need for a college degree as a minimum standard. This reflects, no doubt, the rising educational level of the population in general.

Many prominent police administrators over the past fifty years have assumed that schooling past the high school level serves to develop within a man certain qualities, beliefs, characteristics, and attitudes which will cause him to perform duties as a law enforcement officer in a more effective and efficient manner. This assumption apparently served as the basis for monetary assistance to active police officers and those preparing for the police profession to undertake advanced classroom study as provided for in the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968. Under this Act, grants are made available to active law enforcement officers to defray tuition expenses for study at the college level. In addition, funds are available for prospective police officers in the form

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of loans which become grants if the individual works in law enforcement for four years after completion of formal schooling.²⁰

Another provision of the Omnibus Crime Control Act offered incentives to colleges and universities to establish programs of instruction with a law enforcement orientation.²¹ This provision of the act has resulted in a massive expansion of such programs with the end result that thousands of law enforcement officers are taking part in college level instruction.

In addition, police agencies have supported this increased concern for educational improvement with offers of increased pay for men who attend college. Some departments raise an officer's pay one dollar per month for each hour of college credit earned without regard to the type courses completed. Others pay \$500 to \$1000 extra per year for college graduates. Numerous systems have been devised to give pay and promotional incentives to men with college backgrounds, and some departments require that men

²⁰ Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, Public Law 90-351, 90th Congress.

²¹ Ibid.

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have a college degree as a prerequisite to initial employment. Such practices appear to be based on the unverified assumption that men who have attended college will be of more value to the department due to this advanced schooling.

Early in this century there were many men in the police service that agreed with Leonhard Fuld who stated: "It is not necessary, and some even maintain that it is not desirable, that police patrolmen be of large intellectual ability," and "the most important asset of the ideal policeman is unquestionably his physical constitution and condition."²²

In 1920 Raymond Fosdick, a prominent police administrator, made a different assessment of the intellectual ability desired in police officers:

. . . only as training of the policeman is deliberate and thorough, with emphasis on the social implications and human aspects of this task, can real success in police work be achieved.²³

²² Leonhard Felix Fuld, Police Administration (New York: G. P. Putnam Sons, 1909), pp. 90-91.

²³ Raymond Fosdick, American Police Systems (New York: The Century Company, 1920), p. 306.

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In 1909 August Vollmer, the famous Chief of Police of Berkeley, California, started a unique police school in his department by using members of the University of California faculty as guest lecturers. This was the first known application of the university extension concept to law enforcement education. The two areas of immediate concern at that time were: 1) instruction in sanitation, due to the bubonic plague threat in Berkeley, and 2) law instruction to assist in gathering and presenting evidence in court. It is interesting to note that the University of California Extension Division ". . . got underway in Berkeley in 1912," three years after Vollmer had employed this model to meet law enforcement needs.²⁴

In 1917 Chief Vollmer again set an important precedent in law enforcement education by hiring university students to work as policemen on a part-time basis. This appears to be the first application of the concept of cooperative higher education in law enforcement.²⁵

²⁴ Alfred E. Parker, Crime Fighter: August Vollmer (New York: Macmillan Company, 1961), p. 83.

²⁵ Ibid., pp. 97-100.

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In this period Vollmer evidently stood alone among police administrators in his conviction that university training was important, if not mandatory, for police officers. He later established a college or university degree as a basic entry requirement for his policemen and spent his life as the country's leading advocate of higher educational standards for law enforcement officers. In 1916 he played a key role in founding the first American school of criminology at the University of California.

The belief that college training is desirable for police officers has not been unanimous, however. A publication of the International City Managers' Association in 1954 declared that hiring men of high intelligence was:

. . . inviting trouble. A relatively small percentage of policemen will receive promotions and the rest must be content to remain policemen. The higher the I.Q., generally speaking, the more ambitious, and therefore the more frustrated and disaffected²⁶

In the 1969 edition of this publication, however, it was agreed that a college level educational background was desirable and "when the labor market will permit,

²⁶ Municipal Police Administration (Washington: International City Managers Association, 1954), p. 146.

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educational requirements should be increased to at least two years of college."²⁷

The belief that college level schooling is desirable for police has thus developed historically and is now gaining general acceptance both within and outside the law enforcement profession.

The use of the title "College Education for the Patrolman--Necessity or Irrelevance?" for an article that appeared in a professional law enforcement publication in 1971 emphasizes the lingering doubt concerning the desirability of college experience for police officers. In this article Jagiello makes a strong case for higher educational levels for police through the use of intuitive judgment, opinion, reason, and logic, but this fervent supporting argument fails to cite a single scientific study to support his position.²⁸

The recent difficulty encountered in introducing a law enforcement degree program at the University of Maryland exhibits the continuing resistance by some

²⁷ Ibid. (1969 edition), p. 92.

²⁸ Robert J. Jagiello, "College Education for the Patrolman--Necessity or Irrelevance?," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, 33:114-121, 1971.

academicians to such programs. The responsibility for "selling" this program was given to Professor Peter Lejins. He cited several examples of hostility expressed by some faculty members toward police officers and even toward the function of law enforcement. Some of the statements which Lejins said were frequently voiced by faculty members were:

I don't want to see our undergraduate students mingle with policemen on campus, or have police sergeants function as professors I simply don't want to see a law enforcement unit on our campus. Everyone knows what a policeman is like. It is ridiculous to call his work a profession; there are no scientific aspects to law enforcement at all; hence law enforcement does not have any place in an institution of higher learning.²⁹

This attitude appears to be a complete rejection of the "service" philosophy of land grant universities as well as a closed-minded view of the nature of the law enforcement officer's work.

It seems ironic that most law enforcement officials have accepted the need for higher education, and now

²⁹ Peter J. Lejins, Introducing a Law Enforcement Curriculum at a State University, United States Department of Justice (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1970), pp. 11-12.

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encounter resistance from the academic community. Research which could demonstrate a relationship between higher education and better law enforcement should certainly assist in resolving this dispute.

In spite of resistance, the program for raising the educational level of police officers, fueled by federal funds available under the Safe Streets Act, moves forward at an increasingly hectic pace. In 1960 there were twenty-six colleges and universities with full-time law enforcement programs--over half of these were in California. By 1968 there were 233 separate institutions with law enforcement programs, and by July, 1969, 519 institutions had applied to the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration for scholarship and loan funds under the Safe Streets Act.³⁰

Police personnel practices in practically every police department of the country are significantly influenced by formal educational requirements, and millions of dollars are spent annually for upgrading police education at the college/university level. There is an obvious need

³⁰Tenney, op. cit., p. 1.

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for research to begin to establish an empirically developed theoretical base to replace hunch and speculation in making critical law enforcement personnel decisions.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify significant relationships between selected elements of the formal educational background of new state policemen in the Michigan State Police and: 1) their achievement of police departmental training objectives, and 2) their on-the-job performance measures during their initial year of probationary service. Stated in another form, the problem considered is to determine the efficacy of selected elements of formal educational background characteristics in predicting training goal achievement and duty performance during the probationary year of service. Since this is an exploratory study it was considered desirable to concurrently evaluate the efficacy of other factors in predicting success, such as: age, state civil service examination scores, height, weight, active military service, and level of family responsibility.

The principal focus of the study is upon the first year of service during which the troopers serve in a probationary status. During this year each incoming trooper is subjected to a rigorous socialization, evaluation, and accept/reject process. Since previous investigations have not been conducted in this area it seems appropriate to examine the first year of service as a basis for later investigation.

During this initial year of service with the Michigan State Police, six key events take place in the life of the incoming trooper or "cub":

1. The trooper participates in a thirteen-week recruit training program.
2. He is dispatched to one of the sixty-one state police posts for duty upon completion of the recruit training program.
3. He completes a series of correspondence lessons and returns them to the state police headquarters for evaluation. He takes a final examination covering the entire course when he returns for advanced trooper training.
4. At the assigned post he performs police duty with senior troopers in an instructor/student relationship, and his performance is evaluated by these senior partners.
5. The trooper is returned to state police headquarters where he undergoes three or four weeks of advanced trooper training.

6. At the end of the year the organization makes a decision to accept or reject the candidate based on his overall achievement of training objectives and performance of duty on-the-job. Up to this point the officer does not have civil service status and this acceptance awards this status to the trooper.

Significance of the Study

A review of empirically based studies of police selection procedures which have used various samples of police officers, reveals that most of them have focused primarily upon the validation of mental, psychological, and/or aptitude tests. Such studies have frequently yielded negative results and/or tended to vary from one police agency to the next. The best predictors have not been based on written tests but rather on components of prior personal history such as education, occupational mobility, and early family responsibility.³¹

Under the Omnibus Crime Control Act of 1968 the federal government has invested, and continues to invest,

³¹ Bernard Cohen and Jan M. Chaiken, Police Background Characteristics and Performance: Summary (New York: The Rand Institute, 1972), p. 1.

millions of dollars in programs to upgrade the educational level of prospective and active law enforcement officers. In addition, police agencies have established minimum educational standards ranging from high school completion to college graduation. Many departments are providing monetary, and other incentives, to attract college graduates and to encourage men already in police service to raise their educational level. This is apparently based on an intuitive judgment that there is a causal relationship between educational achievement and effective police performance.

One author has recently pointed out that the belief that there is a significant relationship between educational level and on-the-job performance as a police officer is based "more on faith than on fact."³² This study is an attempt to provide additional "facts" for use in making critical police personnel management decisions.

This study should assist in selection of men who are likely to perform effectively as police officers, and to reject men who are likely to perform unsatisfactorily.

³² Saunders, op. cit., pp. 81-82.

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The study should also serve to identify attributes which are currently thought to be negative or positive performance indicators, which in fact are not related to subsequent poor or good performance.

In an emerging profession such as law enforcement it should not be surprising that the number and quality of reported empirical studies related to personnel practices is not high. The available research fails to answer many questions and leaves one to the mercy of intuitive judgment in making crucial personnel management decisions.

This study should provide additional information which might be used in upgrading law enforcement personnel through improved selection standards and procedures--a general goal, which is not disputed by those within and outside law enforcement, who are concerned about the serious crime problem in the United States.

The Study Setting

The purpose for this section is to present additional information about the Michigan State Police in order to better understand the nature of this

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investigation. This section will include: 1) A brief history of the Michigan State Police, 2) information about the selection process, 3) a description of recruit, correspondence, and advanced trooper training, 4) the on-the-job training procedure, and 5) the overall organizational setting for departmental training and a description of the training staff.

A Brief History

In 1917 the United States Congress passed an act establishing the War Preparedness Board. Funds from this Act made it possible for the governor of Michigan to create the Michigan State Troops to replace the National Guard which had been called to active federal service. The state troops were to be prepared to handle emergencies that arose while the regular military units were away.³³

After completion of initial training the troops provided security for critical areas in the state such as the mines of the Upper Peninsula, locks at Sault Ste.

³³Oscar G. Olander, "Michigan State Police," Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, March-April, 1933, pp. 23:718-722.

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Marie, railroad centers, chemical plants, stockyards, etc.³⁴

Following the war, the state legislature passed Act Number 26 which created the Michigan State Police and the new agency took over the personnel and equipment of the Michigan State Troops. The principal function of the new organization was to assist local law enforcement agencies in the state.³⁵

The new state police organization was approved only after a bitter legislative fight. After the bill was passed by the legislature and sent to Governor Sleeper for signature, an attempt was made to amend the state constitution to prohibit the allocation of funds for a state police agency. The drive to submit the proposed constitutional amendment to the voters to "put the force out of business" did not materialize and the bill was signed by the governor on March 27, 1919. The state police was officially established as a permanent police force.³⁶

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ Ibid.

³⁶ News item in the State Journal, Lansing, Michigan, March 28, 1917, p. 1.

The principal opponents to the state police were unionists who apparently opposed the state police because it had been used to maintain order in the Upper Peninsula in July, 1917, during the disorders in the copper region.³⁷ In addition, state police forces in Pennsylvania and other states had been used during labor disputes and union men strongly objected to this intervention.³⁸

Training methods used by most state police agencies today reflect the influence of former military men who were initially appointed to organize them.³⁹ This was also true in Michigan--the department was first headed by Colonel Roy C. Vandercoor, who was a Spanish-American War veteran and the former adjutant general of the National Guard. He held the rank of major and commanded Michigan's field artillery in 1917, when he was assigned to organize and command the Michigan State Troops.⁴⁰

³⁷ News item in the State Journal, Lansing, Michigan, July 28, 1917, p. 1.

³⁸ Bruce Smith, Rural Crime Control (New York: Institute of Public Administration, 1935), pp. 144-145.

³⁹ August Vollmer and Alfred E. Parker, Crime and the State Police (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1935), p. 144.

⁴⁰ Michigan State Police Fiftieth Anniversary Year-book, 1967, p. 23.

During the first two years of existence the Michigan State Police did not have a specialized training staff so it was necessary for several selected, experienced men to instruct recruits.⁴¹ In other words, a system of on-the-job or apprenticeship training was employed. By 1919 a more formal training program was implemented. This involved:

. . . instruction in horsemanship, and care of animals, law and court procedures in criminal cases, drill mounted and unmounted, target practice, care of the health and administering first aid, Michigan geography and history, and other subjects pertaining to the work of the organization.⁴²

In 1925 the state legislature passed a bill which authorized the state police to provide training for other police agencies, but the department was never able to implement this plan fully because funds were not approved for the project. The state police did allow and encourage municipalities to send some recruits through the state police training school. The state police also sent some

⁴¹Annual Report, Michigan State Police, 1919-1920.

⁴²Ibid.

instructors from their academy to support local training programs.⁴³

The state police training school quickly gained a national reputation for excellence, and a Minnesota Research Committee stated in 1930 that the school was "probably one of the most elaborate schools of its kind in the country."⁴⁴

In July of 1965 Governor Romney approved Act Number 203 which created the Michigan Law Enforcement Training Council. The ultimate purpose of the act was to make provision for training all law enforcement officers in the state and to establish minimum training standards for these officers. The training was to include pre-service, in-service, and special training in all jurisdictions of the state.⁴⁵

⁴³A. F. Brandstatter, "Michigan's Answer to Its Law Enforcement Training Needs and Problems," Police Yearbook (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1958), p. 33.

⁴⁴G. H. Brereton, "Police Training: Its Needs and Problems," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 1935, pp. 26:252.

⁴⁵From official State Police correspondence signed by Captain George L. Halverson, while serving as Training Division Commander, dated August 30, 1971.

On August 6, 1970, Governor Milliken approved Act Number 187, which amended some sections of Act Number 203 of 1965. The principal changes caused by the amendments were to prescribe a minimum basic training course of at least 240 instructional hours and to require completion of such a course by all officers employed after January 1, 1971 as members of police agencies with a full-time force of three or more men. This training was to be completed before an individual was empowered to exercise "all the authority of a peace officer."⁴⁶

The general objectives of the prescribed basic course of instruction was to prepare the new law enforcement officer to properly perform his duties and to serve as a foundation for more advanced training. Stated in more precise terms, the objective of the 240 hour course was to "provide the information, skills, techniques, and procedures fundamental to service in law enforcement."⁴⁷

Under the original law enforcement training act a 130 hour voluntary course had been prescribed; but the

⁴⁶Ibid.

⁴⁷Ibid.

later legislation served to update and expand this program and required a minimum level of training.⁴⁸

In order to meet its training responsibilities the Michigan Law Enforcement Training Council has established several approved regional training centers located in strategic geographical locations around the state to serve police agencies.⁴⁹ The training programs are coordinated with community colleges in the local areas. At the present time all law enforcement agencies except Detroit and the state police are sending their new officers to these regional training centers. These two agencies continue to conduct their own basic recruit training schools which have been approved by the Law Enforcement Training Council.

The minimum basic police training curriculum established by the Training Council consists of 256 hours of instruction which covers the following general subject areas:⁵⁰

⁴⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁹ Ibid.

⁵⁰ Ibid.

	HOURS
Administrative Subjects	10
Legal Subjects.	54
Investigative Subjects.	30
General Police Subjects	113
Traffic Subjects.	28
Special Subjects.	16
External Relations.	<u>5</u>
TOTAL	256

In addition to establishing minimum entry training standards the Training Council is charged with the responsibility of preparing and publishing minimum employment standards for police recruitment, selection, and appointment for all police agencies in the state. The Council also issues a Police Certificate to individuals who successfully complete training in a council-approved school.⁵¹

The Michigan Department of State Police has been actively involved in training police officers of other agencies for many years and continues such activities in a consultant role and by providing numerous instructors to assist other departments.⁵² The state police concurrently conducts recruit and other training for its own personnel.

⁵¹Ibid.

⁵²Ibid.

The Selection Process

The first step in the selection process occurs when an announcement is made by the Department of Civil Service that applications for examination for the position of State Police Trooper 07 are being accepted. Interested individuals may then file an application for examination by submitting an application form with required documentation to the Department of Civil Service or the nearest state police post. Prior to making formal application the interested individual is advised of the following minimum qualifications:⁵³

CITIZENSHIP: Must be a citizen of the United States.

RESIDENCE: Must have resided in Michigan for one year immediately prior to submitting the application.

AGE: Not less than twenty-one nor more than thirty years at the time of submitting the application.

HEIGHT AND WEIGHT: Height not under 5'9" in stocking feet. Weight not under 150 nor over 250 pounds stripped.

VISION: Must have 20/40 vision in each eye without glasses to be corrected to 20/20 with glasses prior to appointment to a training school. Must have adequate color and depth perception and visual field of

⁵³ State of Michigan, Announcement of Competitive Examination for State Trooper 07, dated August 30, 1971.

no less than 140 degrees in the horizontal meridian with both eyes. In addition, the vertical imbalance must be below ten diopters, exophoria (outward deviation of eyes) and four prism diopters, esophoria (turning in of eyes).

PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS: Physical condition must be adequate for performance of the work as determined by an examining physician. Must have good posture and well-developed and proportioned physique. Height and weight must be in relation to each other and to age as indicated by accepted medical standards. Must have normal hearing in both ears and be free from any chronic diseases, organic or functional conditions, or physical defects which may tend to impair efficient performance of a trooper's duties.

PERSONAL AND OTHER ATTRIBUTES: Intelligence quotient equal to the high school average; willingness to accept command responsibilities in emergency situations; willingness to remain available for duty 24 hours a day and live and work anywhere in the state; favorable work records; freedom from associations which may embarrass the department; personal fitness for the positions; must not have been dishonorably discharged from the armed forces of the United States or state military services; must be willing to work 40 hours per week, overtime as directed, and on holidays; must meet the following requirements regarding arrest and/or traffic violation records:

Must Not Have:

1. Been convicted of a violation of criminal law. (Criminal law generally includes all offenses except traffic law, conservation law and liquor law. In general, conviction for a violation of criminal law is automatically disqualifying.)
2. Been convicted of driving while under the influence of alcohol or drugs.

3. Been convicted of six or more moving violations in the five years previous to application.
4. Been convicted of three moving violations in the 24 months previous to application.
5. Accumulated eight points on your driving record in the 24 months previous to application.
6. Been convicted two or more times of reckless driving or once of reckless driving accompanied by aggravating circumstances.
7. A record of three traffic accidents, each indicating a traffic violation or hazardous action.
8. A record of two traffic accidents, in the 24 months previous to application, each indicating a traffic violation or hazardous action.
9. Lost driving privilege through suspension or revocation of any driving license due to an accumulation of twelve or more points in any 24 month period.
10. A record of two convictions of any law involving the use or possession of intoxicants.
11. Failed to comply with the Financial Responsibility Act.
12. Any conviction or convictions for moving traffic violations, accidents, non-moving traffic violations, or violation of other laws which indicate a poor driving attitude or habits, or lack of respect for law and order.

A preliminary vision test is given and physical measurements taken to determine if the applicant meets the

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height and weight standards at the post where the applicant made the first contact. If the applicant appears to meet the preliminary requirements he is given a written civil service examination. If the applicant passes this test a detailed field background investigation is completed by state police investigators and fingerprints are taken and submitted for Federal Bureau of Investigation file check. The applicant is personally interviewed by the investigator to verify or clarify items in the applicant's personal history statement. The investigator also talks to the applicant's wife, if he is married, and contacts his parents and others who have personal knowledge of his past background, conduct, and character.

If the applicant meets all established criteria up to this point he will be notified to appear before an oral appraisal board at a specified place and time. This board is composed of three members: a representative of the Michigan Civil Service Commission, a representative of the state police, and a third member selected by the Civil Service Commission. The written test which was taken earlier and the score achieved before the oral appraisal board are given equal weight and if the applicant is accepted he will be given a position on the civil service

roster based on these two combined scores. The oral board has access to the completed background investigation with information about past employment, financial situation, family background, school records, military experience, marital situation, arrest or misconduct problems, etc.

As state police vacancies occur and recruit schools are scheduled, the prospective trooper will receive a letter telling him the date and time to report for physical examination and training. When the man reports to the headquarters in East Lansing, he is expected to have a short military haircut and be clean shaven, i.e. no mustache, beard, or long sideburns. Generally the recruits report for their physical examination on Friday and the first day of training begins on Monday of the following week.

It is obvious from the brief study of the selection process that the men that pass through this screening process are a rather homogenous group and quite different from a random sample that one might draw from the adult male population. Based on a study of over two hundred men entering three recruit classes, it was found that the average height was almost six feet, the average weight

180 pounds, and the average age was twenty-four years of age. The average educational level for this group was one to two years of college (48 quarter hours); with roughly ten percent college graduates, sixty percent with some college work, and roughly thirty percent with only a high school education.

For an average recruit class of 90-100 men it is estimated that approximately 1,800 men officially enter into the selection process. This figure does not include a large number of men that check with the local police recruiter and eliminate themselves because they obviously do not meet the minimum education, height, vision, or other standards. Based on recent past experience it is reasonable to expect that approximately 50-60 percent of the ninety to one hundred men that meet all the prerequisites and begin training will successfully complete the initial thirteen-week basic recruit phase of training.⁵⁴

⁵⁴Information provided by Sergeant Richie Davis of the Personnel Division, Michigan State Police.

Training Objectives
and Curriculum⁵⁵

Minimum training objectives for all Michigan police officers are established by the Michigan Law Enforcement Training Council under the authority of Michigan Act Number 203 of 1965; as amended by Michigan Act Number 220, Public Acts, 1968; and Act Number 187, Public Acts, 1970.

All Michigan law enforcement officers are required to successfully complete a basic recruit training program of 256 hours in a Training Council approved school and to meet the specific training objectives developed and published by the Council.

It should be noted that these are minimum instructional hours and training objectives. The basic recruit training of the Michigan State Police exceeds these established minimums.

The overall objectives of the state police recruit training program are: to provide basic entry training by formal instruction and practical application which covers the theory and practice of police

⁵⁵Halverson, loc. cit.

administration, the duties of a state trooper, departmental rules and regulations, and Michigan criminal and traffic laws. This training is designed to enable the new recruit to perform as a probationary state policeman under the supervision of an experienced trooper during his approximately nine month probationary training period which follows the basic recruit training course, and to perform his duties independently after the one-year probationary period.

Recruit Training⁵⁶

During the initial thirteen-week training period, the trainees are required to live in quarters similar to those found in military basic training units. Most of the men live in a gymnasium that is used for sleeping as well as a classroom. They enjoy little privacy and must learn to cope with group living, which is a new experience for many of the recruits.

⁵⁶Information based on discussions with the Commanding Officer of the Training Division, several other members of the department, and personal observations.

The recruit training, except for driver training, takes place in East Lansing, Michigan, within the state police compound on Harrison Road, opposite the Michigan State University campus. The facilities for water safety and weapons firing instruction are both conveniently located within the East Lansing compound. Driver training takes place at Fort Custer, near Battle Creek, Michigan.

The principal classroom area is located at one end of the gymnasium that is used as a barracks and must be rearranged for use as a boxing and defensive tactics training area.

During the training period the trainees must remain within the state police compound during the week but may be allowed to leave during the weekend if they return by ten p.m. on Sunday evening. During the week the recruits may also receive visitors during a one-hour visitation period each evening.

Each recruit is assigned a counselor, who is a member of the Training Division staff, to advise and assist the recruit with special problems he might encounter during the course of instruction.

The first day of training begins at eight a.m. and is devoted principally to orientation, welcoming, and issue of equipment. The second day and each subsequent day of the training period will start at six in the morning. The first item on the daily training schedule is physical training or callisthenics, consisting of push-ups, squat-thrusts, shoulder rolls, and running. The physical activity is increased during the thirteen-week period, and at the end of this phase of training the recruits will be doing fifty push-ups, twenty squat-thrusts, six minutes of shoulder rolls, and running two and one half miles without a break. After the physical training period the recruit returns to his quarters to prepare for breakfast which is served at six-fifty a.m. in the state police cafeteria.

At seven-forty each morning the school staff inspects each man and his living area, and demerits are awarded for deficiencies discovered during this inspection. Demerits may also be awarded during training for failure to meet prescribed performance standards, or for misconduct. Demerits are removed from the individual's

record by running one-quarter of a mile per demerit in the evening after regular class hours.

Formal classroom instruction begins at eight each morning and terminates each afternoon at four-fifty. At midday, one hour is allowed for lunch, which is also taken in the police cafeteria. After the evening meal there is a supervised study period if the individual is not required to attend remedial classes such as: typing classes for non-typists, swimming for poor swimmers, etc. The recruit day ends at ten each evening with "lights out."

Military bearing, demeanor, and discipline are stressed during recruit training. All movements within the training compound are made in a military manner, i.e., the recruits make "square" corners and look straight ahead while moving about, and conversation with the school staff is military and formal.

Recruits must maintain a seventy-five percent average on tests during the training and a failure to do this may result in dismissal from the school. Upon successful completion of the thirteen-week course the recruit may be assigned to any of the sixty-one state police posts in the state to gain practical experience. When he

arrives at the assigned post the probationary trooper or "cub" will perform duties with an experienced trooper that is chosen for the tutorial role by the post commander. An attempt is made to assign the new men with well-motivated and experienced troopers who have a positive attitude and good performance records. The "cub" works with an instructor/partner on a regular basis and is given a monthly performance rating by the senior partner. The new trooper normally works with two or more partners during this probationary period.

Correspondence Study Program⁵⁷

After the probationary trooper has worked at his assigned post for approximately one month he begins a correspondence study program. This delay allows the new trooper to become oriented to his work before he begins the task of completing the program. This program is designed for completion in seven months. During this time, it is estimated that the probationary trooper will spend a minimum of one hundred hours studying for and taking the

⁵⁷Ibid.

required examinations. During recruit school each recruit is given a one hour briefing on the correspondence study program. At that time he is also given all the assignments and materials he will need to complete the program, with the exception of the actual examinations. The curriculum of the correspondence study program consists of the following subjects:

1. Criminal Law and Procedure
2. Criminal Investigation
3. Introduction to Law Enforcement
4. Traffic Accident Investigation
5. Departmental Official Orders.

Each subject is divided into seven lessons, except the official order segment (which has four), for a total of thirty-two lessons. Subjects were selected after a careful evaluation and study of the departmental training needs. All tests and assigned readings are based on six specified publications and texts which are available in the library of each state police post.

Each month the State Police Training Division forwards the necessary tests to the student's post commander. When the tests have been completed, they are returned to the Training Division for grading. The post commander is then advised of the test results, which

can be used for counseling and to gauge the new trooper's progress.

The examinations were developed within the Training Division and utilize multiple choice and true/false questions. The evaluations, other than the final examination, are administered as "open book" examinations.

Grade records are maintained on all students and recorded in each probationary trooper's permanent file. Achievement of a score of at least eighty percent is required before performance is considered satisfactory. Achievement in the correspondence study is considered in the overall evaluation of each probationary trooper.

The correspondence study program provides an interim educational experience for probationary troopers. The structure of the program stimulates interest in his work, requires the student to develop proper study habits, and motivates him to strive for self-improvement.

Advanced Trooper Training⁵⁸

During the eleventh or twelfth month of probationary service, each trooper is recalled to the training

⁵⁸Ibid.

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academy to attend a three- or four-week Advanced Trooper School. The Advanced Trooper School allows more time for discussion and practical application. It also reinforces the fundamental principles which were dealt with in the basic recruit school, and during the correspondence study program. During this school the probationary trooper must successfully complete a "closed book" final examination of the entire correspondence study program curriculum.

Only upon satisfactory completion of all requirements of the entire training program is the probationary trooper confirmed as a member of the Michigan State Police. This occurs one year after the date the recruit commenced basic recruit training.

The Organizational Structure
and Training Staff⁵⁹

Immediately subordinate to the Departmental Director in the state police organizational structure are two bureaus: the Bureau of Field Services and the Bureau of Staff Services. The Bureau of Field Services has direct responsibility for achieving the primary law

⁵⁹Ibid.

enforcement goals of the department. The three divisions subordinate to this bureau are: the Administrative Division, the Detective Division, and the Uniform Division. The Bureau of Staff Services is the smaller of the two bureaus in terms of the number of assigned officers and has nine functional divisions. One of these divisions is the Training Division which has primary responsibility for training activities within the department. (See Appendices A and B, pages 290-291.)

The Commanding Officer of the Training Division is a state police captain who is selected from men who have "come up through the ranks" within the department. This insures that the commander has many years of diverse experience at several levels of responsibility.

Within the Training Division there is a permanently assigned lieutenant with primary responsibility for supervision of recruit training; seven other permanently assigned troopers; and two secretaries who support departmental training activities. In addition, there are three or four other troopers that are assigned on a temporary basis to augment the training staff during recruit training sessions.

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The troopers used as instructors have several years of practical experience "on the road," have been selected for their ability as instructors, and have successfully completed the department's Instructor Training Course before they are allowed to teach. In addition, most of them have several years of instructional experience and all of them are well-qualified and effective.

Research Hypotheses

The following is a statement of the research hypotheses used in this study expressed in broad research terms.

H-1: There is a significant linear relationship between each of the probationary trooper criterion or performance measures and: 1) percentile standing in high school graduating class, 2) number of college quarter-hours successfully completed, 3) written and oral test scores on pre-employment civil service tests, 4) age at start of recruit training, 5) height, 6) body weight at commencement of recruit training,

7) level of family responsibility, and 8) active military service.

H-2: There is a significant linear relationship between successful achievement of civil service status and: 1) percentile standing in high school graduating class, 2) number of college quarter-hours successfully completed, 3) written and oral test scores on pre-employment civil service tests, 4) age at commencement of recruit training, 7) level of family responsibility, and 8) active military service.

H-3: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who graduate from publicly operated high schools are compared with men who graduate from privately operated high schools.

H-4: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who complete high school through regular graduation are compared with men who graduate through evening school or obtain educational equivalency through GED or similar programs.

H-5: Men who participate in college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other related courses attain significantly different recruit training achievement scores than men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such experiences.

H-6: Men who participate in college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other related courses attain significantly different probationary trooper ratings than men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such experiences.

H-7: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who participate in college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other directly related courses are compared with men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such experiences.

H-8: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who successfully

complete at least 85 college quarter-hours are compared with men with a lower level of formal education.

Definition of Terms

This section is divided into three parts: 1) predictor or independent variable definitions, 2) performance or criterion variable definitions, and 3) general definitions. The first two groups are used in the analysis which employs the multiple regression technique. The last group contains terms which are used in other analyses which use other statistical techniques, plus other terms of interest.

Predictor or Independent Variable Definitions

Active Military Service. This variable was scored as "1" if the individual had served in active military service for at least one year, or as "0" otherwise.

Age. The subject's age, to the nearest month, at the commencement of recruit training.

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Civil Service Oral Review Board Score. This score is based on personal appearance of each applicant before a three-man evaluation board composed of a representative of State Civil Service, a state police representative, and one other member. The maximum possible score for this measure is fifty points which is equal in weight to the civil service written examination score in determining acceptance for employment and the relative position of the applicant on the applicant on the civil service roster.

Civil Service Written Examination Score. This measure is based on a competitive mental ability test which must be taken for appointment as a Michigan State Police Trooper. The maximum possible score on this test is fifty points.

Height. The individual's height, to the nearest half-inch at commencement of recruit training.

High School Standing. This score is based on the percentile standing of each individual within his high school graduating class.

Level of Family Responsibility. This variable was scored as "0" if the individual was not married, "1" if married but without children, "2" if married with one child, "3" if married with two children, etc.

Number of College Quarter-Hours. This measure is based on the total number of college or university quarter-hours (or equivalent semester-hours) which had been successfully completed with a grade of 1.00 or above in an accredited institution, at the commencement of recruit training.

Weight. The individual's weight in pounds at the commencement of recruit training.

Performance or Criterion
Variable Definitions

Achievement of Civil Service Status. During the probationary year of service with the state police each man is considered a temporary employee and is not afforded the protections provided by civil service. At the end of the first year the individual is evaluated based on his overall performance. If he is

accepted he is given civil service status which entitles him to all the benefits provided by law

Acceptability as a Patrol Partner. This rating is included on the Final Recruit Evaluation Form, in a separate section. A training staff panel records their attitude about "working with this man [the recruit] as a partner." Each man is rated using a Likert-type scale with the following four levels of evaluation:

- 1) prefer him to most,
- 2) be pleased to have him,
- 3) be satisfied to have him, and
- 4) would accept him.

The rating on this evaluation was scored as 3, 2, 1, and 0, respectively. (See Appendix C, page 292.)

Advanced Trooper Achievement Score. A composite final score based on weighted scores on examinations taken during the three or four-week Advanced Trooper School.

Correspondence Training Achievement Score. A composite final score for correspondence study based on weighted scores on written evaluations completed during the correspondence study program.

Final Recruit Evaluation. A one-time evaluation completed at the end of the recruit school by a panel of training staff members. Recruits are rated on a Final Recruit Evaluation Form using a Likert-type scale for the following seventeen factors: 1) voice quality and control, 2) bearing and appearance, 3) composure and control, 4) physical endurance, 5) friendliness, 6) alertness and understanding, 7) verbal expression, 8) judgment, 9) cooperation, 10) interest, 11) attitude, 12) initiative, 13) dependability, 14) leadership, 15) knowledge, 16) performance (quantity), and 17) performance (quality). The ratings of outstanding, good, average, fair, and poor which appeared on the scale were scored as 4, 3, 2, 1, and 0, respectively, on each of the seventeen factors and were summed to provide a cumulative individual score. (See Appendix C, page 292.)

Probationary Trooper Performance Ratings. This score is based on the evaluation of on-the-job performance as a probationary state trooper. Nine evaluations are made on a monthly basis by patrol partner/supervisors

using a form with the following ten factors: 1) appearance, 2) public contacts, 3) attitude toward job, 4) personal habits, 5) work quantity, 6) dependability, 7) judgment, 8) working relationship with other officers, 9) knowledge of police work, and 10) work quality. A Likert-type scale was used with the following levels for each factor: excellent, satisfactory, and unsatisfactory. A cumulative score was obtained for each officer by scoring the levels as 2, 1, and 0, respectively, and summing across the totals on each of the nine monthly evaluations. (See Appendix D, page 294.)

Recruit Training Achievement Score. A composite final score received upon graduation from recruit training. It is based on weighted scores on written evaluations completed during the thirteen-week recruit training period.

General Definitions

Beta Weight. By standardizing each variable in a regression analysis it is possible to obtain adjusted

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slopes comparable from one variable to the next. It is then possible to measure changes in the dependent variable in terms of standard deviation units for each of the other variables. This assures the same variability in each of the variables. The resultant standardized slopes are called beta weights--they may also be called beta coefficients.⁶⁰

Formal Education. In order to define this term it seems necessary to first differentiate between "education" and "training." For the purpose of this investigation, "education" refers to all purposeful, intentional teaching and learning with the intention to prepare persons to be individuals in a society. Training is that dimension of education that is intended to prepare individuals to perform specific task-oriented roles in business and industry, public service, the armed forces, within professions, or elsewhere. In this study, "formal education" refers to educational activities which take place within accredited high schools, colleges, and universities.

⁶⁰ Hubert M. Blalock, Jr., Social Statistics (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1972), p. 453.

GED or Evening Adult Class Graduates. Used to describe men who did not graduate from high school in the traditional way but who received high school equivalency through the General Educational Development testing program, or through evening classes designed primarily for adults who left school before graduation.

High Content of Criminal Justice, Police Administration, and Other Directly Related Courses. Used to identify troopers that had completed college programs which contained twenty or more quarter-hours (or equivalent) in these subject areas. This number was selected because twenty-three total hours is the minimum requirement for receipt of federal assistance loans by full-time students under the Safe Streets Act of 1968. Since the sample was drawn from men with 130 or more total quarter-hours it was reasoned that at least twenty hours should have been completed at this point of a four-year program.

Least Squares. In terms of linear regression this involves fitting the data measurements with a

best-fitting straight line in such a way that the sum of the squares of the deviations from the actual Y or dependent variable values from this line is minimal.⁶¹

Multiple Correlation Coefficient or R. The zero-order correlation between the actual values obtained for a dependent variable and those values predicted from the least-squares equation. By squaring the multiple correlation coefficient we obtain a quantity (R^2) which is equal to the percentage of the variation of the dependent variable explained by all of the independent variables taken together.⁶²

Multiple Regression. A statistical technique which attempts to predict a single dependent variable from any number of independent variables.⁶³

Publicly Operated Schools. High schools that receive most of their financial support from public sources, e.g. tax revenue from local, state, and federal agencies.

⁶¹Ibid., p. 371.

⁶²Ibid., p. 454.

⁶³Ibid., p. 429.

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Privately Operated Schools. High schools that receive most of their financial support from private or non-public sources, e.g. tuition paid by individuals or through church support. In almost all cases these were parochial church-related high schools.

Regular High School Graduates. Used to describe men who have graduated from high school in the traditional way from accredited high schools and received regular diplomas.

Safe Streets Act. A Federal Act passed by Congress in 1968 which was officially called the "Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968," and was designed to provide federal assistance to: 1) reduce crime in the streets; and 2) improve the criminal justice system. It also created a new office in the Department of Justice entitled the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration as the implementing agency for the Act.⁶⁴

Zero Order or Simple Correlation. In order to understand this concept one must first understand partial

⁶⁴ Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, Public Law 90-351, 90th Congress.

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correlation. In partial correlation, relationships or the degree of correlation between a dependent variable Y and any of several independent variables is measured while controlling for one or more independent variables. In extension of this terminology, a correlation with no controls is called a zero-order correlation. Such a relationship may also be called a total correlation.⁶⁵

Study Overview

This thesis has been organized into six chapters:

Chapter I, The Problem, discusses the purpose and significance of the study, the study setting, research hypotheses, and definition of terms.

Chapter II, Development of the Law Enforcement and University Linkage, is a brief historical sketch of the role of the university in the development of police training and education in the United States. The involvement of several major universities is described in

⁶⁵Blalock, op. cit., pp. 433 and 437.

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greater detail, legislation which had significant impact upon law enforcement training and education is also discussed.

Chapter III, Review of the Literature, encompasses a review of empirically based studies which related pre-employment testing and background characteristics to on-the-job police performance. Literature which reports opinions and judgments of knowledgeable individuals concerning the formal educational component of police background characteristics as predictors of police training achievement and on-the-job performance is also reported.

Chapter IV, Design and Methodology, provides an explanation of the type study, restatement of hypotheses, sample description, population description and extent of generalization, data collection and coding, and analyses employed in the study.

Chapter V, Analysis of the Data, is a statement of the null hypotheses and the results of statistical tests and an analysis of the multiple regression output beyond that needed for hypothesis testing.

Chapter VI, Summary and Conclusions. In this portion of the study previous chapters are summarized,

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principal conclusions are listed, discussion of research is presented and implications for future research and practice are stated.

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CHAPTER II
THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY AND
LAW ENFORCEMENT LINKAGE

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the role that the university, particularly the extension and evening college services, has played in the development of programs for the training and education of police officers in the United States. The chapter provides a broader historical dimension to the earlier consideration of the study setting and should provide some insight into the vicissitudinous nature of the relationship between law enforcement education and training and higher education.

In order to accomplish this, it is necessary to present first a brief historical sketch of the development of American law enforcement to provide some understanding of the milieu in which law enforcement education and training developed at the beginning of the twentieth century.

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This historical sketch will be followed by a description of the involvement of several universities and law enforcement agencies from an initial limited contact of "short course" involvement to full-blown degree and graduate programs in criminal justice.

The federal legislation that has had the greatest impact on law enforcement training and education development from the Smith-Hughes Act to the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 will also be briefly reviewed in this chapter.

A Brief History

Thomas Jefferson, who was to have a great influence upon the development of American state supported colleges and universities, attempted in 1779 to aid in establishing professional American police forces by recommending a professorship of law and police at William and Mary College. The proposal was rejected, however, along with his other plans to make higher education more practical and closely related to the needs of the general

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populace.¹ It was not until more than seventy-five years had passed, and the formidable barrier of the famous Yale Report of 1828 breeched, that this philosophy of public service and practical education was seriously applied.

During the colonial period and until the first third of the nineteenth century American cities were policed by watchmen who patrolled the streets carrying a lantern and watching for fires and robbers. The duty was generally performed by citizens on a rotating basis, but difficulty was encountered under this system when citizens began hiring others to perform their "turn" of duty. Men who were thus hired generally did this as a second job and were frequently inclined to sleep on duty or otherwise provide unsatisfactory service.²

The result of the presidential election of 1828 had a significant impact upon the development of law enforcement in this country, but in this case it was generally negative. In that year Andrew Jackson was elected

¹Fredrick Rudolph, The American College and University (New York: Random House, 1962), pp. 41, 130.

²Raymond Fosdick, American Police Systems (New York: The Century Company, 1920), pp. 61-62.

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president and brought with him the doctrine of "to the victor belongs the spoils."³

In a speech delivered before the 1932 convention of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, Mr. O. E. Carr, the city manager of Oakland, California, stated that the cost of the spoils system to the nation "cannot be estimated" and that "for forty-two years this unsatisfactory system was fastened upon this country."⁴

President Jackson held that in a democracy any man is capable of holding office and that the necessary loyalty and cooperation could be attained by simply eliminating political enemies. Carr described this period following Jackson's election as the "dark ages" of the cities, and the police of that day certainly reflected all that was bad in the general governmental structure.⁵

Due to these conditions, police agencies provided an excellent medium for development of political corruption. Chiefs of police and other policemen were appointed

³O. E. Carr, A speech delivered at the 1932 convention of the International Association of Chiefs of Police and published in the IACP Police Yearbook, 1932, p. 121.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

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for their ability to get votes and provide favors rather than their competence on the job. It was soon discovered that police officers could be taught to be blind, deaf, and indifferent, and that such "disabilities" could be extremely profitable.⁶ It seems rather obvious that improved training and education of police officers could not take place in such an unhealthy environment.

Carr also attacked with equal vigor the Civil Service System which was introduced in 1883 to mitigate some of the political ills caused by the spoils system. Rutherford Hayes had run for the presidency upon the platform of ". . . no dismissal except for cause--no promotion except for merit." In referring to civil service Carr stated that ". . . for fifty-two years we have been trying to remove this cancer upon the body politic, and today June 15, 1932 we are still trying."⁷

As a need for better police service developed in the rapidly expanding urban areas it became obvious that the night watch by citizens or hired watchmen was inadequate. In 1838 Boston devised a plan to establish a

⁶Ibid.

⁷Ibid.

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separate watch or police force for day duty. New York also adopted this plan under which the day force had no connection with the nightwatch. In other words, there were two completely independent police forces in each of the cities.⁸

It was soon discovered that the two separate police forces created an impossible situation. Beginning in 1835 a series of mob riots swept the country. A fight in Boston between two fire companies and the Irish broke out which involved 15,000 people, and required drastic action by the militia to bring it under control. In Philadelphia the Negro riots of 1838 led to the burning of Philadelphia Hall and the death of numerous citizens. Riots broke out again in 1842 and Negro churches and meeting places were burned. In 1844 the native American riots lasted for three months. Many people were killed and a great deal of property was destroyed. In New York, violence due to racial and political differences frequently required the use of improperly trained and poorly disciplined militia, due to the ineffectiveness of police forces to maintain order.⁹

⁸Fosdick, op. cit., p. 63.

⁹Ibid., pp. 65-66.

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A basis for modern American police forces was created in New York City in 1844 when a combined day and night police force was authorized by the state legislature. This and other newly organized police departments were soon dominated by politics due to the spoils system. It was reported that in 1844 policemen and their leaders were appointed for one year based on the nominations of aldermen of the wards in which they were located.¹⁰

The New York Police Department reports of 1856 indicated a condition of utter lawlessness on the part of the police themselves as well as the community at large. The undisciplined condition and attitude of the police of the time was reflected in their refusal to wear uniforms. By 1855 some city police forces had hats of regulation shape but no departments had adopted a complete uniform for its force. Opponents to uniformed police labeled them as "unamerican," "undemocratic," "militaristic," "imitation of royalty," etc. Badges were not displayed except when making an arrest and/or restoring order, so it was not possible to identify the officers easily.¹¹ This

¹⁰ Ibid., pp. 65-68.

¹¹ Ibid., pp. 69, 70.

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situation would of course allow the police officer to be "blind" at the proper time without calling attention to the fact.

In New York in 1857 a movement was begun to introduce some of Sir Robert Peel's methods of police control, which had been adopted in the metropolitan district of London in 1829. The New York state legislature passed the Metropolitan Police Bill, using the London metropolitan model, which consolidated the police districts of the cities of New York and Brooklyn, and the counties of Kings, Westchester, and Richmond under a board of five commissioners appointed by the governor.¹²

There was a major difference, however, in the spirit in which the London and New York acts were conceived. The London Act of 1829 was a non-partisan attempt to remedy an inefficient system. The New York Act, on the other hand, ". . . represented the maneuvering of a Republican legislature to obtain control over the affairs, and particularly the patronage, of a Democratic city."¹³ The bill was apparently accepted with reluctance as a

¹² Ibid., p. 82.

¹³ Ibid., p. 84.

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desperate attempt to counter the sharply rising crime rate in New York City.

There was strong resistance to the introduction of state control of the police forces, and this led to riots and bloodshed, but the metropolitan police force was nevertheless organized. Some improvements were made under this system, but the political implications of the move were a continual source of friction and conflict. In 1859 a special committee selected by the state senate reported that the police force was organized ". . . less with regard to its public duties than to its efficiency as a political machine." In spite of its shortcomings, however, the method of state control by commissioners resulted in some betterment in police operations in New York City. This form of control in New York was abolished in 1870, but it had established a precedent that is still followed in at least two major American cities.¹⁴

During the latter part of the nineteenth century police departments in the United States went through a long series of systems of organization and control but apparently gave little or no attention to the character

¹⁴Ibid., pp. 87, 88, 90-91.

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and integrity of the men that were its crucial component. It was evidently not realized that forms of organization would not protect against corruption and inefficiency if corrupt and/or inefficient men were allowed to operate the system. For this reason, there was a great deal of variance in the efficiency and organizational schemes in various cities and under different administrators. The principal motives for changes in organization of police departments was ". . . the struggle for party dominance, the desire of jobs for the faithful, and the determination to control the machinery of elections."¹⁵

In the final decade of the nineteenth century the New York City Police Department adopted the civil service system and this was quickly followed by a similar move in Chicago. In spite of the shortcomings of civil service that later became apparent, it served to limit political control of police and provided some stability to police departments.¹⁶ Graper indicated in 1921 that the fact that civil service had raised the standard of efficiency in police service was not open to question.¹⁷

¹⁵ Ibid., pp. 115, 271.

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ Elmer Graper, American Police Administration (New York: MacMillan Company, 1921), p. 69.

Prior to civil service the upset of a political machine in elections was followed by sweeping changes in personnel in the department. Police departments were frequently known as "Democratic" or "Republican" police forces, and remaining on the job required that one support the right (winning) party. In some cities the changes in police personnel "for the good of the service" ran as high as eighty-five percent after elections.¹⁸

The basic purpose of including this historical sketch of American law enforcement in this investigation was to develop the matrix upon which a program for police training and education was built in the beginning of the twentieth century. It is rather obvious that as long as the principal qualifications for police service were political loyalty and flexible ethics and morals, there was little necessity or desire for formal police training either before or after employment. Police service at the turn of the century was certainly not a profession and was generally not considered to be a career.

As the civil service system, with its physical and mental standards, was adopted by more American cities, the

¹⁸Fosdick, op. cit., p. 274.

stage was set for establishment of minimum training and educational standards. One of the first steps was a rather revolutionary requirement that policemen should be able to read and write. This was soon followed by an acknowledgement that formal schooling of police officers was necessary and desirable to replace or augment the time-honored method of on-the-job training.

The state of education and training of police officers at the turn of the century is not terribly shocking, however, when one considers the fact that the apprenticeship or on-the-job system of training was not limited to police. It was also commonly used in medicine, law, and education until fairly recent years. As late as the 1920's, it was possible in this country for a young man to "read the law in the office of a local attorney." After an extended period of study in the law office, he was given an examination which legalized the practice of law.¹⁹

In discussing the "school of experience" Wiltberger pointed out as late as 1937 that it

¹⁹ Robert L. Craig and Lester Bittel (eds.), Training and Development Handbook (New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1967), p. 2.

. . . must not be overlooked or treated lightly, because it must be remembered that the majority of our successful police officials and thief catchers are still today, for the most part, graduates of this important school.²⁰

One can quite logically argue that formal training for police, except for the apprenticeship variety, did not exist in this country prior to 1906. In that year a training school was established by the newly organized Pennsylvania State Police. Detroit established a training school for its recruits in 1911 and the New York Police Academy was established in 1917 by the New York City Police Department.²¹

These training developments were significant and soon spread across the country in various forms. On the other end of the American continent, there were concurrent developments also taking place which are especially relevant to the present study. These developments will be considered in detail in the following section.

²⁰ William Wiltberger, "A Program for Police Training in a College" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of California, Berkeley, 1937), p. 19.

²¹ George H. Brerton, "The Importance of Training and Education in the Professionalization of Law Enforcement," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 52:112, May-June, 1961.

school. This was University Involvement can application

In 1905 August Vollmer was elected to the office of Chief of Police of Berkeley, California. Shortly after taking office the department investigated a suicide involving use of poison. Vollmer was suspicious and requested assistance from Doctor Jacques Loeb, a famous professor at the University of California in Berkeley. This involvement convinced him that knowledge of chemistry, physics, psychology, sociology, and biology, were necessary for effective police performance. Although Vollmer's formal education consisted of grammar school and a two-year business school stenography course, he began an intensive program of self-education by borrowing books on criminology and related subjects from the University of California library and individual professors.²²

In 1909 August Vollmer started a police school in the Berkeley police department. This school differed from those that were developing elsewhere because he asked for assistance from members of the faculty at the University of California to act as guest lecturers in his off-duty

²² Albert Deutsch, "America's Greatest Cop," Collier's, 127:26-27, February 3, 1951.

school. This was perhaps the first American application of the university extension concept to police services.²³

It is interesting to note that the University of California Extension Division "got under way in Berkeley in 1912,"²⁴ three years after Vollmer had employed this concept in police education. A direct connection could not be established but it certainly indicates that Vollmer was truly an extension and evening college pioneer.

In the beginning the deputy marshals attended off-duty classes and seemed to enjoy the instruction they received. They soon found that a great deal of the "book" knowledge gained through the instruction could be promptly applied in daily work situations.²⁵

In 1916 Chief Vollmer read an article in a medical journal by Doctor Albert Schneider, a University of California professor, describing procedures for gathering physical evidence at crime scenes for analysis in solving

²³ Alfred E. Parker, Crime Fighter: August Vollmer (New York: MacMillan Company, 1961), p. 83.

²⁴ Glen Burch, Challenge to the University: An Inquiry into the University's Responsibility for Adult Education (Chicago: Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, 1961), p. 58.

²⁵ Parker, op. cit., p. 84.

crimes. He asked Doctor Schneider to give lectures to men in the department as part of the training program and was so impressed with the methods he employed that he later hired him to establish a crime laboratory in the department and provide instruction to men in the department on a permanent basis. This appears to be the first police crime laboratory established in the United States.²⁶

In 1917 Chief Vollmer became unhappy with the quality of men he was getting for the department and struck upon the idea of recruiting police officers from among university students. He placed the following ad in the Daily Californian, a student publication:

College men wanted for police force. Interesting experience. Learn a new profession. Serve on the Berkeley police force while you go to college. Contact August Vollmer, Chief of Police.²⁷

There were many that doubted that college men would be interested in police work and, even if they were, questioned their effectiveness. The first of these doubts disappeared when over one hundred men applied to fill the

²⁶ Deutsch, op. cit., p. 84.

²⁷ Parker, op. cit., pp. 97-100.

less than twenty open positions.²⁸ This was probably the first application of what is now called "cooperative" higher education, whereby individuals attend school part-time and work in a related field to gain practical experience.

In 1916 a "summer session" for police officers was implemented at the University of California which operated from June to August. Six units of credit was allowed for this session. Both pre-service and in-service personnel attended the session. An indication that continuing education had to "pay its way" even in this early period was the fact that the twenty-five dollar fee was paid by the students in classes of up to one hundred students.²⁹

At the urging of Chief Vollmer a police training school was established at the University of California in 1917, the first time such a program had been conducted on a college or university campus. This was a natural development from the earlier "extension" and "cooperative" programs of the police department and the university. Vollmer indicated that the benefits of the earlier rather

²⁸ Ibid., pp. 102-103.

²⁹ Wiltberger, op. cit., p. 45.

fragmentary courses were obvious, but he desired a "more definite course of instruction." Even at that later stage of development, the police school at the University of California was still considered an "evening college" or "extension" operation since it operated three nights a week and lasted for two years. The curriculum contained a wide range of subjects in the natural and social sciences.³⁰

The police school was initially operated through the cooperation of the law school and there was some discussion of combining police instruction with the schools of social work, which were being absorbed by the colleges and universities at the time. This was strongly resisted by police administrators.³¹

It appears that the evening classes that were initially offered to the policemen were non-credit courses; but, in 1923, by special committee action, the University of California granted a Bachelor of Arts degree with a major in economics and a minor in criminology to a Berkeley

³⁰August Vollmer and Albert Schneider, "The School for Police as Planned at Berkeley," Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, 7:879, 1917.

³¹Wiltberger, op. cit., p. 49.

police officer who had participated in the university police training program. This is thought to be the first time that technical police courses were officially recognized by the university.³²

In 1931 Vollmer was appointed Professor of Police Administration in the Political Science Department at the University of California at Berkeley, while still holding his job as chief of police in the city of Berkeley. A criminologist/psychiatrist was also added to the medical staff and designated as chairman of an "unofficial" criminology group to work out a degree program.³³ Law enforcement was started down the long road to gaining academic "respectability."

In 1933 a curriculum was developed by Chief Vollmer in coordination with other law enforcement officials and it was approved by the university. The curriculum was divided into three parts: technical, legal, and social;

³² Ibid., p. 50.

³³ Allen Z. Gammage, Police Training in the United States (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1963), p. 67.

³⁵ George H. Brereton, "Police Training in College and University," American Journal of Police Science, 3:65-86, January-February, 1932.

with police administration subjects in the social category.³⁴

In 1929 President Hutchins requested that Vollmer assume duties as Professor of Police Administration in the Political Sciences Department at the University of Chicago. The curriculum established by Vollmer at the University of Chicago was broken down into two parts. In the Autumn quarter, a course in police administration was presented; and the instruction for the Winter term dealt with police procedures which included lectures on identification, criminal investigation, etc. A seminar was also conducted for two hours each week and students worked on individual research projects as a part of the program. The courses were presented three times each week in one-hour lectures and both full-time students and active police officers from the local area were allowed to attend.³⁵ This was the first time that technical courses in law enforcement were made a part of the "regular" curriculum of "day" students. This new program unfortunately folded when Chief Vollmer's

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ George H. Brereton, "Police Training in College and University," American Journal of Police Science, 3:65-66, January-February, 1932.

two-year leave of absence ended, and he returned to Berkeley in 1931.³⁶

In 1930 Dr. T. W. MacQuarrie, a former army major and president of San Jose Teachers' College, established a pre-service police training school at San Jose--the first of its kind in the United States. The program operated under the San Jose District Junior College, or San Jose Teachers' College. MacQuarrie reasoned that there was a similarity between police training and teacher training since they were both social services, and the techniques used by one might be appropriate for the other. The graduates of the police training program were issued an Associate of Arts degree in Police Training.³⁷

In 1935 San Jose Teachers' College became a state college and this allowed a four-year college program in police training leading to a Bachelor of Arts degree.³⁸

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ T. W. MacQuarrie, "San Jose College Police School," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 26:225, July, 1935.

³⁸ Department of Administration of Justice, San Jose College, "The Department of Administration of Justice, 1971-1972" (undated mimeographed document containing history of the department), pp. 1-2.

Apparently two of the academic "black sheep," teachers and policemen, had sneaked into the academic fold through an unattended back gate.

At about the same time the Department of Police Administration was created at Michigan State within the School of Science and Arts, which provided for granting a Bachelor of Science degree in Police Administration. The original course consisted of four years of academic work followed by one year of field service training which was administered by the Michigan State Police.³⁹

Until 1947 law enforcement was the only specialized area of emphasis in the Michigan State program; but in that year Police Science, Prevention and Control of Delinquency, Highway Traffic Administration, Correctional Administration, and Industrial Security Administration were added as specialized areas. In 1956 a graduate study division was added to the school.⁴⁰

³⁹ A. F. Brandstatter, "The School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, p. 565.

⁴⁰ Ibid.

Michigan State also became involved in a number of extension programs over the years. Perhaps the largest was the Michigan Police Academy which was established in 1950 at the request of the Michigan Association of Chiefs of Police.⁴¹

Through coordination with the Michigan Association of Chiefs of Police, the Michigan Sheriffs' Association, the State Department of Public Instruction, and the Michigan State Police, several "short courses" for recruit and command personnel were developed and offered. These courses were:

Four-week basic police course given three times each year.

One-week command officers course given twice each year.

One-week basic traffic course given twice each year.

One-week command officers traffic course given twice each year.

One-week juvenile police training course given each year.

One-week instructors course.⁴²

⁴¹A. F. Brandstatter, "Michigan's Answer to Its Law Enforcement Training Needs," Police Yearbook (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1951), p. 33.

⁴²Ibid., pp. 33-34.

The instruction was given at Michigan State University and the instructional staff was drawn from the School of Police Administration, municipal police departments, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, and other law enforcement agencies. During the period 1951 to 1958 over 1200 police officers from more than a hundred different departments participated in this program. These training sessions at Michigan State were terminated in 1965 and were eventually replaced by a system of regional training centers which operate across the state through coordination with community colleges and the Michigan Law Enforcement Training Council.⁴³

Development of meaningful linkages between law enforcement agencies and the colleges and universities, similar to those described at the University of California, University of Chicago, San Jose State, and Michigan State University, were also taking place in several other institutions of higher education across the country. These four were cited because their development is well known and documented. Almost without exception there was an initial contact by police agencies due to an interest in

⁴³Ibid., pp. 34-35.

limited extension or evening college courses (with or without credit) for active police officers. These eventually developed into full-blown degree programs, to include study at the graduate level. The universities involved then tended to shift away from the more "vocational" or "how to" aspects of law enforcement toward emphasis on "degree seeking" students with primary interests in pre-employment broad educational preparation. Active police officers were also encouraged to participate in college or university level courses on a part-time basis.

7

Another change that has occurred in most well established schools of police administration or criminal justice is a greater emphasis upon research and writing to develop a criminal justice "body of knowledge." Such schools have also been active in arranging for conferences and seminars involving higher level police administrators. The role of providing lower level "how to" courses or instruction to police officers has generally been assumed by community colleges or provided through "in-house" training by individual police agencies.

During the period 1952 to 1965 the School of Police Administration at Michigan State University offered 142

different courses of the extension variety to 3100 students. This was accomplished in cooperation with the Michigan State University Continuing Education Service in what was called the Law Enforcement Training Program. These were the same variety of "short course" in-service training series mentioned earlier, for administrators and practitioners of criminal justice, primarily from Michigan law enforcement agencies.⁴⁴

Another development in extension education took place in 1964 when the School of Police Administration sponsored a correspondence course in police administration through the cooperation of the International City Managers Association of Chicago. This was developed at Michigan State University because the University of Chicago terminated its Home-Study Department which had offered a police administration course for many years.⁴⁵

The School of Criminal Justice, as it is now called, has also sponsored the annual National Police and

⁴⁴Frank D. Day, "Administration of Criminal Justice: An Educational Design in Higher Education," The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 56: 542, November-December, 1965.

⁴⁵Ibid.

Community Relations Institute. This is a one-week conference which is held each May at the Kellogg Center for Continuing Education.⁴⁶

Armed with this authorization, the Trade and Industrial Section of the Office of Education, then part of the Interior Department, began working with representatives of local, state, and national agencies to encourage In 1917 the stage was set for a national program of police training below the college level with the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act. This Act provided federal funds on a fifty-fifty matching basis to pay the salaries of teachers of agriculture, trades and industries, and home economics, and for training teachers in those fields.⁴⁷

The act did not, however, provide assistance for training law enforcement personnel. In 1936 this basic Vocational Education Act was supplemented by the George-Deen Act which authorized a large increase in funds for vocational education. Of more importance to law enforcement was the fact that the act authorized a large increase in funds for law enforcement personnel. In 1936 this basic Vocational Education Act was supplemented by the George-Deen Act which authorized a large increase in funds for vocational education. Of more importance to law enforcement was the fact that the act authorized a large increase in funds for law enforcement personnel.

⁴⁶ Ibid.

⁴⁷ C. F. Klinefelter, "Use of Federal and State Funds for Police Training," *Police Yearbook* (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1937-1938), p. 21.

⁵⁰ Myren, *op. cit.*

enforcement was the inclusion of the statement that the act could be used for training in ". . . trade and industrial subjects, including public and other service occupations" Armed with this authorization, the Trade and Industrial Section of the Office of Education, then part of the Interior Department, started working with representatives of local, state, and national agencies to encourage states to make provisions for public service training in their trade and industrial education plans.⁴⁸ The statement of Wiltberger in 1937 that "we are witnessing the launching of the greatest vocational in-service training program in the history of this country," is indicative of the optimism of law enforcement officers at the time.⁴⁹

Under this Act federal funds were matched by state or local funds as was the case with the original Act. With official encouragement from the U.S. Department of Education, a wide range of police training was offered under the acts for several years.⁵⁰

⁴⁸ Richard A. Myren, "Police Training as Vocational Education," Law and Order, April, 1963, p. 76.

⁴⁹ Wiltberger, op. cit., p. 38.

⁵⁰ Myren, op. cit.

In 1946 the George-Deen Act was repealed by the George-Barden amendments to the Smith-Hughes Act. Under the new Act police training only came under the trade and industrial education provisions. This required a concentration on the technical and mechanical aspects of police operations as opposed to the legal, psychological, and sociological aspects. Examples of this training would be automotive maintenance, photography, communications, firearms, first aid, etc. Such training under the Act continued to expand and many programs made use of college and university facilities. By 1963 federal vocational education funds available under the George-Barden amendments to the Smith-Hughes Act were used extensively in one-third of the states.⁵¹

During the period 1965-1968 the United States Congress passed two acts that provided unprecedented support for improvement of American law enforcement: The Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965 and the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968.

The Act of 1965 was a relatively small research and development grant program which was funded at the rate

⁵¹Ibid., pp. 77-78.

of \$7.3 million per year for three years--1966 through 1968. Under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965, approximately \$4.4 million was spent to provide support for police training and this included grants to establish standards and training commissions in twenty-two states.⁵²

President Johnson also appointed the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, with an assignment to begin a careful examination of the criminal justice system in the United States and to prepare recommendations for its improvement.⁵³

The establishment of this commission was extremely important because it identified the poor conditions of the criminal justice system and recommended immediate and comprehensive changes. This report prompted the introduction of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act.⁵⁴

The original Safe Streets Act was introduced in early 1967 and eventually enacted as Public Law 90-351 in

⁵² Donald G. Alexander, "New Resources for Crime Control: Experience Under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968," American Criminal Law Review, 10:205, July, 1971.

⁵³ Ibid.

⁵⁴ Ibid.

June, 1968. Section 406 of the act contained important provisions for upgrading the formal educational level of police officers. One author has speculated that this may be the greatest contribution of the act. During the first three years of operation of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, the action agency for the act awarded over fifty grants to assist in establishing college degree programs in law enforcement. This program resulted in a dramatic expansion of these programs during that period, and this trend has continued.⁵⁵

The Act also provides incentives for raising the educational level of the individual prospective or active police officer. Loans of up to \$1800 a year are available for persons enrolled in approved full-time undergraduate or graduate degree programs. Priority for these loans is to police personnel of state and local agencies. The loans are forgivable at the rate of 25 percent for each year of later service in a law enforcement agency.⁵⁶

⁵⁵ Charles B. Saunders, Upgrading the American Police: Education and Training for Better Law Enforcement (Washington: The Brookings Institute, 1970), p. 99.

⁵⁶ Ibid.

In addition to the loan provisions, the act authorizes grants up to \$200 per academic quarter or \$300 per semester for in-service officers enrolled on a full- or part-time basis in approved undergraduate or graduate programs. Individuals receiving these grants must agree to remain in law enforcement for two years after the completion of their studies.⁵⁷

The Safe Streets Act thus gave colleges and universities a monetary incentive to develop law enforcement programs and also gave prospective and active police officers financial support to take part in a higher educational experience. The funds appropriated by Congress actually became available to colleges and universities in early 1969, with 6.5 million dollars going to 485 colleges and 20,602 students in all parts of the United States. In 1970 the Law Enforcement Educational Program, or LEEP, received 18 million dollars which provided financial assistance to approximately 80,000 students in over 725 schools who were active or potential members of the law enforcement profession.⁵⁸

⁵⁷ Ibid.

⁵⁸ Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, LEEP--An Opportunity to Move Ahead, Informational brochure

An official of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration reported to the International Association of Chiefs of Police at a recent convention that:

The total expenditure [for LEEP] to the end of August, 1971, has been about 45.5 million dollars. The distribution of this assistance was 85 percent to in-service personnel and 15 percent to pre-service persons.⁵⁹

In March, 1971, President Nixon and Attorney General Mitchell reported an authorization of twenty-one million dollars for the next school year and that over 900 colleges and universities were taking part in the program.⁶⁰

Summary

In the nineteenth century there was little concern for securing proper education and training for police officers. It would have been rather futile, in fact, given

developed to explain the Law Enforcement Educational Program (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1970).

⁵⁹Carl W. Hamm, "Remarks on Law Enforcement Education," Police Yearbook (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1972), p. 65.

⁶⁰President Nixon and Attorney General Mitchell, Joint Address to Congress on March 2, 1971. (From copy of press release distributed to interested agencies.)

the personnel turbulence generated by the political influence over police agencies, which tended to insure inexperience and ineptness within police ranks.

As the twentieth century began there were a few men such as August Vollmer and Leonhard Fuld who recognized the tremendous responsibilities of police officers and looked to colleges and universities for assistance in improving the caliber of police personnel. There was only limited response from institutions of higher education until the problem of crime in the United States became intolerable and massive federal monies were made available to prod them into action. This new mission was not accepted with enthusiasm, however, and the preparation of law enforcement officers has still not been accepted fully by many academicians who have failed to perceive the chilling truth contained in Chief Justice Burger's thought-provoking rhetorical question cited earlier:

If we do not solve what you call the problem of criminal justice, will anything else matter very much?⁶¹

⁶¹News item in the Wall Street Journal, September 29, 1969, p. 18.

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CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The number and quality of reported empirical studies dealing with law enforcement personnel practices is limited. This researcher was unable to locate any studies in a state police setting which focused upon the educational component of police background characteristics as predictors of training achievement and on-the-job performance.

Available literature seems to divide itself into two principal categories: 1) studies which attempt in a scientific or systematic manner to examine the relationships between various predictors and actual duty performance, and 2) opinions or intuitive judgments expressed by individuals with experience and/or knowledge in criminal justice or related fields. The literature in the first category is quite limited, as indicated, while that in the latter category is, in relative terms, quite extensive.

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This review will be divided in a similar fashion. Emphasis will of course be given to the literature dealing directly with the issue of formal education of police officers. In the past fifty years this has generally involved the question of whether or not higher education is desirable for policemen, since the necessity for high school minimum educational level was accepted several years ago and is a matter of fact and law in most police agencies.

Literature Reporting Scientific and Empirical Studies

This section of the review will consider studies which have attempted in a scientific or systematic manner to examine the relationships between various pre- and early-employment predictors and actual police performance.

One of the earliest studies which dealt with the selection of police officers in a systematic way was completed in 1950 by DuBois and Watson. In this study two classes of 129 recruits were given a battery of psychological tests. Upon completion of the eight-week police academy training program the predictors generated from the

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tests were related to four performance criteria: 1) police academy grades, 2) score on an achievement test, 3) marksmanship, and 4) supervisory ratings. The best predictors of marksmanship were the non-verbal tests; a combination of three tests of this type yielded a significant multiple correlation of .33. None of the individual predictor tests were significantly correlated with the supervisory rating performance criterion. A combination of the three non-verbal tests and the Rosenzweig Test produced a significant multiple correlation coefficient of .29 with supervisory ratings. Cross validation with a third class of recruits resulted in a significant multiple correlation of .62 with final academic grades. In essence DuBois and Watson found that certain tests could be used to predict subsequent academic performance.¹

A 1964 study by Blum was unique for that time due to the length of the follow-up period (seven years), and the use of performance measures normally found in police personnel folders; but not including a subjective overall supervisory rating. The study involved a rather small

¹Philip H. DuBois and Robert I. Watson, "The Selection of Patrolmen," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 34, 1950, pp. 90-94.

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sample (eighty-seven subjects) and the setting was only identified as a "major metropolitan police force." The study reported that personality tests were given to officers soon after their appointment in the 1956-1957 period, and a performance prediction was made at that time. Performance information was collected in 1963. Each performance measure was used to determine the zero-order correlation with each test score. The highest correlations, which were above .40, were between certain MMPI tests and subsequent evidence of especially serious misconduct which involved only four subjects.²

Blum observed that if one had a goal of weeding out the four "bad" men using their test scores, while minimizing the number of "good" men rejected on the same basis, "cut points" could have been used at 32 on the MMPI Schizophrenia subscale, and at 28 for Pt (obsessive-compulsive) score. This would have served to also exclude ten "good" men from appointment, in addition to the four "bad" men, and five of that ten were later charged with less serious disciplinary violations.³

²Richard M. Blum (ed.), Police Selection (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1964), pp. 123-124.

³Ibid.

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Blum also found correlations of test scores with performance measures other than misconduct were less than .30 in magnitude. He summarized "those of interest" as follows:

Receiving commendations and praise is related to vocational interests, attitudes and orientation, and intelligence. It is not related to personality measures. Being subject to accidents, injury or time-off for illness is related to vocational interest, intelligence, personality, and attitudes and orientation.⁴

No correlations larger than .22 were found between test scores and termination of employment, and none larger than .14 were found for assignment progression, which was a subjective measure of the merit of a subject's assignment history provided by a police official who may not have been familiar with the evaluated individual.⁵

A study of the St. Louis, Missouri Police Department was conducted in 1964 which rated men quantitatively on routine tasks such as number of parking tickets issued, vehicles stopped, pedestrians questioned, etc. A qualitative evaluation was not made and the study did not measure performance of the preventive functions which consume a

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

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great deal of police time. Critical factors such as individual judgment, and the capacity of the police officer to deal with unexpected situations was not evaluated. On the basis of these more or less mechanical duties it was found that men with thirteen years of education stood highest in the composite ranking reflecting the quantitative performance of these tasks.⁶

In 1964 Colarelli and Siegel administered the California Test of Mental Maturity, the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory to Kansas State Highway Patrol applicants. From these test results a description of the "average patrolman" was developed. Eight performance variables were used: 1) moving hazardous arrests, 2) moving hazardous warnings, 3) other arrests, 4) services rendered, 5) light correction, 6) miles per contact with and without radar, and 8) hours per arrest. These were summarized for each

⁶Thomas J. McGreevy, "A Field Study of Relationships Between the Formal Educational Levels of 556 Police Officers in Saint Louis, Missouri and Their Patrol Duty Performance Records" (unpublished master's thesis, School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University, 1964), p. 61.

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patrolman in terms of an "opportunity measure" which was intended to control for differences in the populations of communities where the officers served. Correlations between test scores and criterion measures were used to make predictions of success or failure for sixty new recruits who took the same battery of tests. All but one of the predicted failures were rated poor officer material, while all predicted successes were rated above average to excellent. No specific correlations or tests of significance were reported and relative numbers of successes and failures were not given. Validation of the eight job performance measures against predictors were also not reported.⁷

In 1967 McConnell found a significant correlation of .44 between total score on a biographical information form and classification of success or failure based on supervisors' performance ratings for Colorado State Patrolmen. Those with higher scores on the weighted

⁷Nick J. Colarelli and Saul M. Siegel, "A Method of Police Personnel Selection," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 55, 1964, pp. 287-289.

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personal history form were rated higher than those with lower scores.⁸

In 1967 Levy found that biographical data from personnel files significantly differentiated between successful candidates (i.e. those remaining on the job) and those who left police work. Retained officers had the greatest amount of tenure on previous jobs and the least education, were oldest at time of appointment, and were most likely to have been exposed to police courses. Non-failure terminations were most likely to be younger at the time of appointment and had the highest level of education. Failures had the most vehicle code violations, were most likely to have been fired from previous jobs, and had the greatest number of marriages among married men.⁹

Smith, Locke, and Walker conducted a study in 1967 which dealt with differences in authoritarianism between

⁸William A. McConnell, "The Relationship of Personal History to Success as a Police Patrolman" (unpublished master's thesis, Colorado State University, 1967), pp. 39-40.

⁹Ruth Levy, "Predicting Police Failures," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 58, 1967, pp. 265-276.

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groups of men who attended college and those that did not. This study found that "highly significant" differences existed between these groups: ". . . police who are attracted to college are significantly less authoritarian than police who are not impelled to attend college."

These authors felt that this implied

that there are certain personality characteristics that make it more likely that they will be able to function more effectively with respect to problems stemming from civil rights demonstrations, and more in accordance with respect to arrests and search and seizure.¹⁰

Saunders reported a study involving a national sample of 4,672 policemen which revealed

differences between college and non-college officers in the perception of their role, and in approaches to the concepts of justice and law. For example, the lower the educational level, the greater the tendency to view the law as fixed and flexible. The author wrote that such findings are not conclusive, but they suggest that large scale recruitment of college graduates would significantly affect police performance.¹¹

¹⁰ Alexander B. Smith, Bernard Locke, and William Walker, "Authoritarianism in College and Non-College Oriented Police," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, Vol. 59, March, 1968, p. 132.

¹¹ Charles Saunders, Upgrading American Police: Education and Training for Better Law Enforcement (Washington: The Brookings Institution, 1970), pp. 89-91.

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A study reported by Richard Hankey in 1968 involved 801 police officers in the Los Angeles Police Department that were appointed during the 1955-1959 period. The background information and personality test scores for the men in the sample were recorded prior to, or shortly after, their appointment. The data used for performance measures were gathered in 1962. The performance of subjects was therefore measured for different periods of time within a three to eight year range.¹²

The principal focus of the Hankey study was to determine the predictive power of ten trait scores provided by the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (GZTS). A multiple regression analysis was employed using these ten scores as predictors against a weighted average of supervisory evaluations which produced a multiple correlation which was significant at the .05 level. A discriminate function analysis was also used in which subjects were separated into success/non-success categories based on scores on each of the following variables taken separately: 1) recruit training score, 2) average supervisory

¹²Richard O. Hankey, "Personality Correlates in a Role of Authority: The Police" (unpublished D.P.A. dissertation, University of Southern California, 1968).

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evaluation, 3) score on sergeant's promotional oral examination, and 4) punitive days off.¹³

Use of predictor variables other than the GZTS scores produced only one significant relationship between measures of mental ability and performance scores in the recruit academy.¹⁴

Based on his research Hankey concluded that: "no evidence was found to support the hypothesis that successful policemen have a different syndrome of personality traits and other variables as compared with non-successful policemen," and "it does not appear that additional refinement [in selection procedures] would result in an increase in effective and a decrease in ineffective or problem employees."¹⁵

In 1969 Abbatiello reported part of a large study using civil service examinations as the predictor and a multiple criterion consisting of failure to qualify on the background investigation, and subsequent achievement in the police academy based on instructor ratings and grades.

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Ibid.

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A significant correlation of $-.17$ was found between the civil service examination scores and failure to qualify on the background investigation. Significant correlations of $.35$ and $.25$ were found between civil service examination scores and academy grades and instructor ratings respectively. A significant correlation of $.62$ was also reported between the civil service examination and the Otis Test of mental ability. Abbatiello concluded that the civil service examination had predicted scholastic performance in the police academy.¹⁶

In 1970 McAllister compared performance evaluations of New York City recruits during the first eighteen months of service with the initial judgment of background investigators. Performance evaluations were based on seven criteria: 1) total time lost, 2) time lost for injuries, 3) completion of training standards, 4) formal recognition of outstanding service, 5) absence of formal disciplinary charges, 6) completion of the probationary period, and

¹⁶A. A. Abbatiello, "A Study of Police Candidate Selection," A Paper presented at the Seventy-seventh annual convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., 1969. Reviewed by Deborah A. Kent and Terry Eisenberg in "The Selection and Promotion of Police Officers: A Selected Review of Recent Literature," Police Chief, February, 1972, pp. 24-25.

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7) evaluation of supervisors. He concluded that the background investigation was not highly valid since those judged to be of better character did not achieve higher performance than those of poor character evaluation. The latter group had been certified eligible as a result of the total selection process.¹⁷

A 1968 study by Baehr was described by one author as "perhaps one of the finest validation studies which has been conducted." The research was a study of the Chicago Police Department with the goals of: 1) developing effective procedures and establishing general standards for patrolman selection, and 2) the identification of distinctive patrolman types defined on the basis of field performance, which would not be adequately described by the concept of average policeman.¹⁸

This study involved the validation of a battery of commercially available psychological tests as instruments

¹⁷ John A. McAllister, "A Study of the Prediction and Measurement of Police Performance," Police, Vol. 14, 1970, pp. 58-64.

¹⁸ Deborah A. Kent and Terry E. Eisenberg, "The Selection and Promotion of Police Officers: A Selected Review of Recent Literature," Police Chief, February, 1972, pp. 24-29.

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for selecting patrolmen. In order to reach the second goal an attempt was made to demonstrate that there are a variety of successful and unsuccessful patterns of police field performance.¹⁹

The researchers attempted to show a significant relationship between selected psychological tests (predictor variables) and measures of job performance (criterion variables). They hypothesized that this would identify some of the personal attributes which are essential for successful police performance. The psychological tests used by Baehr included three areas: 1) motivational measures, 2) intellectual measures, and 3) behavioral measures.²⁰

Both subjective and objective measures were used as performance criteria and included: 1) departmental performance ratings, 2) special performance ratings developed by the researchers, 3) tenure information, 4) departmental awards, 5) complaints against patrolmen,

¹⁹ Melany E. Baehr, John E. Furcon, and Ernest C. Froemel, Psychological Assessment of Patrolman Qualifications in Relation to Field Performance (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1968, pp. 224-225.

²⁰ Ibid.

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6) disciplinary actions, 7) attendance, and 8) the number of arrests made. The first two performance measures (subjective) were considered most important by the researchers.²¹

This study concluded that "there was an acceptably high and statistically significant relationship between the test battery scores and independent measures of performance." Another finding of this study was that the best prediction of performance was obtained when weights based on a specific racial group were applied to members of the same group. This was particularly true of the Negro group in both instances.²²

In considering the implications for future research and application Baehr pointed out that the most obvious area likely to be productive in construction of specialized predictor instruments is that of background experience, which was highly predictive in the study. Baehr indicated that such an instrument could have general application and be very valuable in departments which do not conduct intensive and systematic background screening aimed

²¹Ibid

²²Ibid., p. 229.

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at elimination of candidates of unstable background or sociopathic tendencies.²³

The Baehr study was evaluated by another author in the following manner:

unfortunately, results in terms of validity were not encouraging. First of all, concurrent validation was employed rather than predictive, and it has previously been pointed out that evidence supporting the former does not constitute evidence of the latter.²⁴

A follow-up of the Baehr study has been conducted but the results have not been published. This more recent longitudinal study will report significant predictive multiple correlations. These correlations were obtained by assessing the relationships between 1966 police officer test battery performance as much as three years later, measured by seven of the eight performance criteria used in the earlier study.²⁵

A study by Spencer and Nichols was also conducted in the Chicago Police Department. A projective design was used and test scores and background data were obtained at

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Kent, op. cit., p. 25.

²⁵ Ibid.

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the time of application of subjects in 1964. The sample consisted of 427 applicants who successfully passed through the selection procedure up to the point of background investigation. Of this group 109 of the men were disqualified based on the results of this examination. Performance measures were obtained after four years from the 268 men who remained with the department. These researchers found that only one performance criterion was found to be consistently related to predictor information. This was the average score on the departmental semi-annual performance rating, which had a multiple correlation of .272 with variables of: 1) a personality rating based on Personal History and sentence completion forms, 2) civil service examination score, and 3) level of education. The predictive weights of these variables were in the order listed. The directions of the relationships were as one might expect; departmental performance ratings increased with the personality rating, civil service score, and educational level.²⁶

²⁶Gilmore Spencer and Robert Nichols, "A Study of Chicago Police Recruits: Validation of Selection Procedures," Police Chief, Vol. 38, No. 6, June, 1971, pp. 50-55.

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Comparisons Between Empirical Studies

The 1968 study conducted by Hankey in Los Angeles, which was reviewed earlier, used predictor variables similar to those used by Spencer and Nichols, and Baehr, in the two previously reviewed Chicago studies, but he drew conflicting conclusions. This might indicate that predictor variables validated for one agency or area of the country may not be valid in other agencies or locations.

Other conflicting studies seem to indicate that the validity of predictors may change with the passage of time. This is demonstrated by two studies in the Los Angeles area which employed the Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale as a predictor. In a 1940 study by Humm and Humm, performance was judged as "bad" if the officer was dismissed, and judged as "above average" if he eventually rose to an administrative or executive position. This study revealed a very strong relationship between Humm-Wadsworth scores and the performance criterion. In a 1965 study, Collins compared Humm-Wadsworth scores with the single criterion of personal conduct as reflected by disciplinary records, and found no significant

relationship.^{27,28} The use of different performance criteria of course casts some doubt on the validity of directly comparing the two studies but suggests that there might be a temporally induced nuisance variable.

The Humm and Humm study has drawn considerable attention due to the high correlations yielded, plus the fact that officers who failed to meet normal civil service criteria were appointed due to war-related manpower shortages. The research methodology employed in this study is also questionable in several respects. One subgroup in the sample was appointed and tested during the 1943-1944 period, with a later check in 1945 to determine which subjects had been terminated or released. Another subgroup contained men dismissed or terminated between 1946 and 1949 but the study is not explicit in stating whether this subgroup also contained men in the earlier sub-sample. A

²⁷ Doncaster G. Humm and Kathryn A. Humm, "Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale Appraisals Compared with Criteria of Job Success in the Los Angeles Police Department," Journal of Psychology, Vol. 30, 1950, pp. 63-75.

²⁸ Jack G. Collins, "A Study of the Use of the Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale by the Los Angeles Police Department" (unpublished master's thesis, School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, 1965).

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third subsample contained men in executive or administrative positions that were apparently tested several years after joining the force.²⁹

The findings of the Humm and Humm study revealed that 84.9 percent of the men who were eventually dismissed had low Humm-Wadsworth appraisals, while only 32.2 percent of the staff (success criterion) had low ratings. A Chi-square statistical analysis technique was used in the study, and produced a level of significance less than .001.³⁰ Blum later reworked their data in an attempt to determine predictive validity and concluded that 42 percent of the men predicted to do badly did well, and of the men expected to do good or fair work, 66 percent did well.³¹

In commenting upon this study Blum pointed out that:

it appears that among a total of 669 men tested, 79 resigned, 223 were fired, and 357 remained with the department. The ratio of men fired to men resigned is most unusual

²⁹ Humm and Humm, loc. cit.

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ Blum, op. cit., pp. 106-107.

and suggests a very special situation in the department during that period.³²

In a 1966 New York City study, Eilbert drew conclusions similar to those of Hankey and Collins. He used a sample of "approximately" 1,000 recruits in his study who were tested in 1962 and 1963 and who were evaluated in 1964. The predictors for this study were drawn from a battery of tests prepared by the researcher and his colleagues based on their task analysis of police work which provided what they believed to be the essential requirements for effective police performance. In addition to tests of verbal and visual abilities, and personality traits, the study included tests for knowledge of sports, first-aid and safety, "handyman" techniques, city social agencies, modus operandi of criminals, points of interest in New York City, the law and underworld "lingo." The performance criterion was generated from a supervisory evaluation form that required the evaluator to rank the subjects known to him in terms of their estimated performance in twenty critical problem situations and in terms of

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overall performance. Subjects were labeled either high or low in performance on the basis of these ratings.³³

Predictive validity in this study was measured by biserial correlation coefficients. The specially developed tests were generally unreliable or failed to provide a significant difference between high- and low-ranked performances. Two exceptions were a vocabulary test (which was very similar to the type of pre-employment test already in use), and knowledge of foreign terms and police "lingo."³⁴

A 1962 study by Marsh used predictors similar to those of Blum, plus other personal and biographical data and civil service examination scores. The sample included 591 deputy sheriffs in Los Angeles County who were appointed in the 1947-1950 period. The tests were administered while the men were in recruit training. Performance was evaluated in 1957, which provided for a seven- to ten-year time lapse. The performance criteria included a supervisory rating in which subjects were sorted into five

³³Leo R. Eilbert, "Research on the Selection of Police Recruits," unpublished report of the American Institute for Research, 1966. Reviewed by Cohen, op. cit., p. 15.

³⁴Ibid.

categories of overall performance by individual supervisors. The joint evaluations were ranked "high" or "low."³⁵

The analysis compared predictors for "high" versus "low" individuals versus discharged persons. The findings are not directly comparable to those of Blum, but it appears that one might logically conclude that common patterns were not identified in the two studies. Marsh found that the civil service examination score distinguished between good performers, and those discharged, and successful performance was predicted by low scores on MMPI Hypomanic and Hypochondriasis Scales and the General Activity "C" scale of the Guilford-Martin Temperament Inventory. Vocational interests, as measured by the Kuder-Preference Record, were not significantly related to the performance categories used, but a prior history of experience as a fireman or policeman was an indicator of a low rating as a deputy sheriff. The study found that men with high civil service scores tended to have shorter tenure

³⁵ Stewart H. Marsh, "Validating the Selection of Deputy Sheriffs," Public Personnel Review, Vol. 23, 1962, pp. 41-44.

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which seems to confirm that termination of employment may frequently reflect the opportunities open in other occupations, as opposed to unsatisfactory performance.³⁶

A 1972 study by Cohen and Chaiken dealt directly with the issue of relating background characteristics with subsequent performance as New York City police officers. The study involved a sample of 1,915 officers who were appointed to the force in 1957 and evaluated their performance through 1968. The study used "only quantifiable measures of background and performance, of a type commonly maintained in personnel files by police departments."³⁷

The researchers used a total of thirty-three predictors under the general headings of: 1) race and age, 2) mental examinations, 3) family descriptions, 4) occupational history, 5) military history, 6) personal history, 7) incidents involving police and courts, 8) early performance, and 9) later experience.³⁸

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Cohen, op. cit., p. v.

³⁸ Bernard Cohen and Jan M. Chaiken, Police Background Characteristics and Performance: Summary (New York: The New York City Rand Institute, 1972), pp. 4-6.

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They used thirteen performance measures grouped under four general headings: 1) career advancement, 2) disciplinary actions, 3) absenteeism, and 4) other.³⁹

In their statistical analysis the researchers used simple correlations, factor analysis, and multiple regression techniques.⁴⁰

The study revealed that the following background characteristics were not related "in important ways" to the performance measures used:

civil service exam scores; I.Q.; arrest for a petty crime; military service; military commendations; father's occupation; number of residences; aspects of early family responsibility, including marital status, number of children, and debts; reported history of psychological disorder; place of residence; and number of summonses.⁴¹

The study revealed that the strongest predictors of later performance were derived from quantative measures reflecting the subject's primary behavior and experience over a period of time. These included:

³⁹Ibid., pp. 7-8.

⁴⁰Ibid., pp. 9-10.

⁴¹Ibid., pp. 27-28.

employment, military disciplinary actions, repeated appearances in civil court, education, and performance in the recruit academy and during the probationary period. Measures which are derived from single incidents or written examinations, such as arrest for petty crime or low I.Q. score, are not indicative of major patterns of bad performance.⁴²

With regard to education the report concluded that:

As a group, the men with at least one year of college education who remained on the force were found to be very good performers. They advanced through civil service promotion, but not disproportionately through the detective route of advancement, and they had fewer civilian complaints than average. The men who obtained college degrees, either before or after appointment to the force, exhibited even better on-the-job performance. They advanced through preferential assignments and civil service promotions, they had low incidents of all types of misconduct except harassment, on which they were average, they had low sick time, and none of them had their firearms removed for cause.

A typical example of the differences in patterns between the college graduate and non-graduate was in the number of civilian complaints incurred over an eleven-year period. Our data revealed that 369 men, or 24 percent of the non-college graduates, had a civilian complaint, compared to only four college graduates, or eight percent. Generally speaking, the older, more educated officer received fewer civilian complaints than the younger, less educated officer.⁴³

⁴² Ibid.

⁴³ Ibid., pp. 20-21.

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Comments and Opinions Concerning
Formal Education for Police

The basic purpose of this section of the review is to bring together the opinions of individuals with experience and/or knowledge in criminal justice, or related fields, who have taken a position on the necessity or desirability of formal educational backgrounds for law enforcement officers.

In recent years literature dealing with this subject has tended to respond to the question posed by Robert Jagiello: "College Education for the Patrolman--Necessity or Irrelevance?"⁴⁴

At the outset it is necessary to recognize the forces that may tend to bias the literature reflecting opinions based on such unscientific and subjective, albeit authoritative, judgments. The first such force is the American reverence for education and the blind reliance upon it by some as the solution to all worldly problems. It is difficult to find an American with a critical word for

⁴⁴Robert J. Jagiello, "College Education for the Patrolman--Necessity or Irrelevance," The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 62:114, March, 1971.

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higher education. Anyone with such views would likely be looked upon as having strong atavistic tendencies.

Another possible root of bias is due to the sources used to gather the opinions here presented. In spite of an active search for other sources, most opinions about educational requirements for police were found in professional periodicals and books which were quite naturally written by police educators and practitioners who in most cases possess relatively high academic credentials. One would therefore expect this group to look to education as an effective tool for improving police service.

Another possible bias, closely related to that of source and contributor, is the fact that there is a common tendency for one in a profession to "oversell" the qualifications required for that profession. Such "ego-building" could also lead to considerable distortion.

Such biases, however, are inherent in any subjective study and if one keeps them in mind, the information can prove valuable, in spite of these limitations. One certainly cannot reasonably reject such intuitive judgments arbitrarily, since it is frequently the only basis for day-to-day decisions.

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The coverage given to this section is more comprehensive and detailed than one might expect in an investigation of this type. The opinions and views about educational standards used for police selection which are presented were drawn from speeches and publications over many years and should be helpful from a descriptive or historical point of view in tracing the trends of changing attitudes toward educational requirements for police. Such coverage seems appropriate when one considers the state of development of research in criminal justice. The body of knowledge for most professions has been categorized, indexed, and made readily available through various information retrieval systems. Law enforcement unfortunately has not reached this level of development. The information is therefore presented in the hope that it may aid future investigators.

In 1909 Leonhard F. Fuld, an expert in personnel administration and public health, published one of the first law enforcement textbooks, Police Administration. This text was the first attempt by an American to logically present the principles of police administration and

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it had a significant influence on the development of law enforcement.⁴⁵

Saunders quotes Fuld as having written that "it is not necessary, and some even maintain it is not desirable that police patrolmen be of large intellectual ability" and "the most important asset of the ideal policeman is unquestionably his physical constitution and condition."⁴⁶

This is an accurate quote but in looking at the original source one finds that in the same text Fuld also wrote:

It is certainly true that the police officer must possess physical powers rather than intellectual powers, that he must act rather than think, but a moments reflection will convince anyone that he must think as well as act.⁴⁷

Fuld also reflected a concern for the selection process and a need for improvement of the quality of police personnel. This was rather novel for that period. He recognized the connection between the great authority given

⁴⁵Leonhard F. Fuld, Police Administration (Montclair, New Jersey: Peterson Publishing Company, 1971) (Introduction to reprint of 1909 edition).

⁴⁶Saunders, op. cit., p. 16.

⁴⁷Leonhard F. Fuld, Police Administration (New York: P. P. Putnam's Sons, 1909), p. 152.

to police through the exercise of discretionary authority, and was concerned with the intellectual and psychological preparation of police officers to enable them to make just decisions concerning arrest and application of criminal sanctions.⁴⁸ He wrote:

It is the element of individual discretion which distinguishes the police officer from the soldier The policemen . . . does not always nor even generally act under the immediate supervision of his superior officer and, accordingly, he must himself determine by the exercise of a sound discretion whether he shall act or not, and if he decides to act, what he shall do and how he shall do it.⁴⁹

Leonhard Fuld and August Vollmer were the first Americans to identify the need for a linkage between law enforcement and higher education. Fuld favored a broadly-based university education and supported the offering of incentives to encourage educated men to enter into law enforcement as a career.⁵⁰ He wrote:

To fit him for the performance of this important function the ideal police officer ought to receive a professional training similar in some respects to that now required for applicants for position of probationary officer

⁴⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁹ Ibid.

⁵⁰ Ibid.

. . . a good secondary education followed by a special course of study in sociology and the special problems of police duty. It is probably impractical to demand of policemen such an education at the present time as a condition precedent to appointment, but, bearing this ideal in mind, we can improve the present unsatisfactory intellectual ability of the police officer in two respects . . . by supplying to the police officers during their probationary period suitable instruction by competent teachers in place of the old-fashioned catechetical instruction, and by offering inducements to men of good general education, high school graduates and college-bred men, to enter the higher ranks of the uniformed force and make the police business their lifework.⁵¹

After careful study of Fuld's entire book it becomes obvious that it would be unfair to depict him as an opponent to improved education and training for police. He was, in fact, a strong advocate, but recognized the practical "real life" futility of securing large numbers of college trained police officers at that point in history.

It is impossible in a review of this nature to give proper treatment to the many writings of August Vollmer, Chief of Police of Berkeley, California, and professor of Police Administration at the University of Chicago and the University of California. Vollmer authored

⁵¹Ibid., pp. 152-153.

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or co-authored four books and played a prominent role in the development and writing of the volume on police for the famous Wickersham Report. In addition, he wrote numerous articles which appeared in nationally prominent professional periodicals. He addressed himself to many topics in these writings but one common thread that ran through each of them was his advocacy of better education and training for police officers. A few of the articles which are most representative of his views on this subject will be considered in this review.

In The Police and Modern Society, Vollmer pointed out that if the legal, engineering, or medical profession recruited its members at random, without requirements for prior training or education, as was the case with police, that "disaster would be the inevitable consequences of such stupidity." It had been recognized, according to Vollmer, that the policeman required training equivalent to that of the most skilled professional. Vollmer felt strongly that specialized or vocational training was important but it should follow a "broad preliminary training."⁵²

⁵²August Vollmer, The Police and Modern Society (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1936), pp. 230-232.

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He suggested the possibility of drawing upon the faculty of the state university or college to offer special courses such as psychology, and other social, biological, and natural sciences which were organized to ". . . meet the practical needs of the police service."⁵³

He stated that training for police should take place before their employment, thus following the lead of other professions. He proposed that a policeman should not be allowed to "practice" his profession until he had attended an accredited police institute and had at least one year "intern" experience in a police department. In the closing portion of this book Vollmer pointed out that ". . . society must also require, and make provision for, professionally trained police personnel, fit not only in body, but also in character, education, and ideals of service."⁵⁴

In Crime and the State Police, Vollmer and Parker posited that police officers

should be men of superior education, intelligence, character, and physique. Their education, moreover, should be made a continual

⁵³ Ibid.

⁵⁴ Ibid.

process by the establishment of a state school for police and an institute for police research.⁵⁵

In the chapter entitled "Personnel Selection" of Volume 14 of the Wickersham Report, which was prepared under Vollmer's supervision, he identified low educational level as a major problem in law enforcement and pointed out that more than sixty percent of the policemen in the United States had never entered high school. He felt the ultimate goal of a properly trained and educated policeman was only possible by two means: ". . . state supported and controlled schools for police only; secondly, university cooperation." In the closing portion of this volume of the Wickersham Commission Report Vollmer stated that necessity demanded the application of science to law enforcement problems. He thought this necessity had been recognized by institutions of higher education and foresaw a "great chain of instruction throughout the country which would allow every policeman to secure a proper education."⁵⁶

⁵⁵ August Vollmer and Alfred E. Parker, Crime and the State Police (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1935), p. 209.

⁵⁶ National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Report on the Police Wickersham Commission, Volume 14 (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1931), pp. 58, 79, 85.

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In The Criminal, Vollmer's final book, he advocated establishment of schools of criminology in state supported colleges, awarding special grants for research projects, and a curriculum suited for professional preparation of individuals that plan to enter any of the branches of law enforcement. He also recommended that criminology schools of institutions which offered academic or professional degrees, set up graduate curricula in the various fields of study, and that a Ph.D. should be awarded to qualified students who made a ". . . significant contribution to the advancement of criminology and criminalistics." He favored research and teaching fellowships for students that had a strong interest and ability in the field of criminal justice.⁵⁷

Other advantages cited by Vollmer for increased pre-employment education were that it would ". . . fortify the students when they later contact life in the raw state, and will also help them to resist the temptations that beset law enforcement officials."⁵⁸

⁵⁷ August Vollmer, The Criminal (Brooklyn: The Foundation Press, 1959), pp. 435-436.

⁵⁸ Ibid., pp. 440-442.

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Such an educational background, according to Vollmer, would provide an understanding of the weaker members of society and would discourage the warped characters and morals that had resulted in the past from association with disgruntled or dishonest fellow officers. Such professional training would also teach students to adapt themselves to changing social, economic, and political conditions. Through such training potential police officers would come to appreciate the contributions of professionals in the physical, biological, and social sciences so they might know who to call upon for assistance.⁵⁹

Vollmer's plan for a school of criminology included mid-term and final examinations and observations by the faculty to assist in ". . . eliminating weaklings and occupational misfits before they reach the senior year."⁶⁰

As a final argument in The Criminal, Vollmer stated that a professionalized and socialized law enforcement service would have important prestige value which would produce stronger citizen support of police.⁶¹

⁵⁹ Ibid., p. 444.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

⁶¹ Ibid., p. 448.

In an article describing his proposed school for police at Berkeley, Vollmer wrote that a school for the special training of police was a "requirement of the times." He explained that this school for active police officers was a part of the Berkeley Police Department and that several professors from the University of California served on the police school faculty and presented lectures in their specialities to students in the school.⁶²

In a very short and optimistic article published in 1931 Vollmer stated that ". . . the air is changing with police education." He reviewed the encouraging developments at several of the universities and wrote that

Now we are commencing to accept the educated policeman as a matter fact There can be little question that within a few years schools for police will be established in practically every college and university in the land.⁶³

In another optimistic periodical article published the following year Vollmer posited that

⁶²August Vollmer, "The School for Police as Planned at Berkeley," Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, 7:879, 1917.

⁶³August Vollmer, "Police Education," Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, 22:7-8, May, 1931.

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Every other line of human endeavor is simple when placed alongside the problem which is presented in police departments . . . universities should vie with each other in turning out from their institutions men adequately trained to serve their country as efficient police leaders.⁶⁴

According to Raymond Fosdick, an early expert on both European and American police systems, the New York Police School was the first in the United States to be established as an independent unit of the police department.

Fosdick wrote the following about the training of police:

Only as the training of policemen is deliberate and thorough, with emphasis on social implications and human aspects of his task, can real success in police work be achieved.⁶⁵

Fosdick favored establishment of a profession or career of public administration, which would include police administrators, so that "the talent of the universities might be attracted to police service."⁶⁶ Fosdick

⁶⁴August Vollmer, "Abstract of the Wickersham Report," Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, 22:716, January, 1932.

⁶⁵Raymond Fosdick, American Police System (New York: The Century Company, 1920), pp. 225, 298-306.

⁶⁶Ibid.

did not take a formal position on the desirability of higher education for the rank and file policeman and apparently felt it futile at that time to require more than basic literacy, which was the common standard of the "better" police departments of that period.

In describing the educational standards established by the Massachusetts Civil Service Commission for police officers in that state, Leonard Harrison stated in 1934 that it was not until 1926 that the minimum educational level for appointment was raised to completion of grammar school. It was later necessary to revoke this requirement due to difficulty in recruiting men in the smaller cities.⁶⁷

Harrison recommended that high school graduation or college entrance be required for appointment to police service in Boston. He posited that:

The good effect which a high school education standard would have in raising public estimation of the service would more than counterbalance the loss of a few men who might make good policemen.⁶⁸

⁶⁷ Leonard V. Harrison, Police Administration in Boston (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1934), pp. 42-43.

⁶⁸ Ibid.

In 1937 at the convention of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, O. W. Wilson stated that: "The training of men who expect to enter the police profession is a responsibility of our colleges and universities." He pointed out, however, that few of the colleges and universities recognized that responsibility. At the time there were only five universities that provided professional pre-entry law enforcement instruction.⁶⁹

In discussing the role of the university in law enforcement education and training William Hall stated that:

The future role of the university in public service of this type is difficult to define. Many universities feel that, once they have demonstrated training possibilities by organizing a police school, the planning of future schools should be left to the officers themselves. Other universities have felt that the organizing and conducting of pre-service and retraining courses for public officials is one of the functions of the university, and that adequate facilities should be made available for this purpose.⁷⁰

⁶⁹O. W. Wilson, "Report of Committee on Police Training," Police Yearbook (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1937), pp. 76-78.

⁷⁰William O. Hall, "A Short Course for Police Officers," Commonwealth Review, 22:231, November, 1939.

Doctor Read Bain, of Miami University, wrote in 1939 that "Police work must become a profession of high social status and decent economic security." He also felt that a policeman should be ". . . a college man of superior mental and physical endowment." According to Bain the prospective police officer should take ". . . a general course in professional police work and upon graduation be eligible for a position on any state or municipal police force in the United States." As a means of reaching this goal Bain suggested that state and municipal police departments might select promising high school graduates and pay a portion of their expenses at a top college or university with the understanding that they would intern in the police department and serve at least three years after completion of their education.⁷¹

Bain wrote that

A new day is dawning in the whole area of crime control. In the future we shall pay more for our police services, but we shall get vastly more for our money.⁷²

⁷¹Read Bain, "The Policeman on the Beat," Scientific Monthly, 48:455, 1939.

⁷²Ibid.

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He anticipated that police systems would be manned by truly professional officers, and especially by socially intelligent, professional policemen on the beat . . .⁷³

The evolution of thought concerning the intelligence and educational levels of police recruits over the past thirty years is reflected in the various editions of Municipal Police Administration, a publication of the International City Managers Association.

In the 1943 edition the recommended intelligence and educational requirements for police recruits were: ". . . of a superior intelligence . . . and . . . at least high school graduation . . ." Based on a random survey of police departments in all parts of the United States during that period it was found that all departments had some educational requirements but they varied from ". . . ability to read and write to high school graduation."⁷⁴

The position taken in that edition (1943) concerning high school graduation was that:

Present requirements of police service are such that the social outlook and attitudes toward

⁷³ Ibid.

⁷⁴ Municipal Police Administration (Washington: International City Managers Association, 1943), p. 31.

the community which are developed in modern high school are an essential qualification for patrolmen.⁷⁵

The 1943 edition also indicated that:

It is undoubtedly true that a university course has a real contribution to make to police work, and we look forward to the day when police work has a wider appeal to college men. Until that time, however, the requirement of education must be pitched at a lower level.⁷⁶

In the 1954 edition of the same publication it was recommended that the police recruit have an IQ of "approximately" 110 and posited that:

to require much more is inviting trouble . . . a relatively small percentage of policemen will receive promotions . . . the higher the IQ, generally speaking, the more ambitious, and therefore the more frustrated and disaffected . . . they will become.⁷⁷

In the same edition (1954) it was held that:

an educational requirement is not essential. The municipal jurisdiction can administer, as a part of its examination, an academic achievement test which will indicate more accurately than a high school diploma the actual academic achievement of the candidates.⁷⁸

⁷⁵ Ibid.

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Municipal Police Administration (Washington: International City Managers Association, 1943), p. 31.

⁷⁸ Ibid.

Another part of the book seems to contradict this lack of educational standard by stating that:

Police work today is approaching the status of a profession. While it may be years before this objective is reached the educational preparation and on-the-job training of police officers will materially contribute to it.⁷⁹

In the 1961 edition of Municipal Police Administration the recommended intelligence requirement was "above average intelligence" and the book indicated approval of the developing trend toward higher minimum educational requirements.⁸⁰

In the 1969 edition of this book it was pointed out that above average intelligence is necessary to develop the insight and ability to adapt "to widely different circumstances." This edition also contained a recommendation that the educational level be increased to at least two years of college "when the labor market would permit." The reasons given for this higher

⁷⁹ Ibid., p. 187.

⁸⁰ Municipal Police Administration (Washington: International City Managers Association, 1961), p. 131.

educational level was "the growth of sociological problems and the complexity of police work."⁸¹

In an article appearing in the Encyclopedia of Criminology V. A. Leonard wrote that:

Higher intellectual, moral, physical and training standards are essential prerequisites for successful performance of all duties associated with police administration.⁸²

He further posited that all phases of law enforcement are "as technical as medicine and engineering" and that "the same training disciplines are required in the preparation of men and women for this strategic field." He wrote that:

The superb training resources of major universities and colleges of the United States can be applied with telling effect to the professional training requirements of police service.⁸³

An appropriate curriculum for such a professional educational program according to Leonard would consist of

⁸¹Municipal Police Administration (Washington: International City Managers Association, 1969), pp. 176-177.

⁸²V. A. Leonard, "University Training for the Police Profession," Encyclopedia of Criminology (New York: The Philosophical Library, 1949), p. 501.

⁸³Ibid., p. 502.

approximately ninety percent of "regular" course offerings such as sociology, psychology, economics, etc., which would be combined with "the necessary technical police subjects in precisely the same manner as we have been doing for years in law, engineering, medicine, and other professions."⁸⁴

Leonard also cited the critical need for research and publication of law enforcement texts which could be performed by universities offering law enforcement programs. He listed several specific subjects that "beg for research efforts."⁸⁵

Leonard expressed the hope that administrators of institutions of higher education would recognize their responsibilities to the public service and make available their "magnificent resources" for training and instruction of law enforcement personnel.⁸⁶

In considering the importance of formal education for police O. W. Wilson pointed out in 1950 that:

⁸⁴ Ibid.

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ Ibid.

While university training will not make a competent person of one with an inferior intellect or who is otherwise deficient, when all other factors are equal the university trained man is better qualified than one who lacks this broadening experience.⁸⁷

He felt that an educational standard of high school graduation was justified since everyone had the opportunity for high school attendance and there was an adequate number of persons who had completed high school. He also thought that the increasing number who were receiving university training should justify two years of college as a preliminary requirement for candidates with provision for lowering the standard when candidates excel in other qualities. He felt that such a standard would not prevent the procurement of a suitable number of candidates in most parts of the country.⁸⁸

In the 1963 edition of this text Wilson stated that university and college training has become commonplace in the United States and that curricula for law enforcement and police administration were offered in more than one hundred institutions within the country. The

⁸⁷O. W. Wilson, Police Administration (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1950), p. 338.

⁸⁸Ibid.

courses offered included all aspects of law enforcement, penology, criminalistics, crime prevention, and traffic control. Some of these institutions offered graduate degrees while others restrict their courses to two-year or four-year programs. Wilson wrote that, in addition to students who received this specialized and relevant training there were many other capable young men in colleges and universities who were potentially good candidates but who were not attracted to a service in which low educational requirements prevail.⁸⁹

In expanding upon his earlier argument supporting higher education for police Wilson stated that:

A university man has had a broader experience with people and new situations; his adaptability has been tested; he has had the opportunity to meet students of many different nationalities, cultural backgrounds, racial characteristics, and consequently should have lost much of any previous bias or prejudice he may have held. His studies will have given him a new perspective on the problems and aspirations common to all men, and he will have learned to some degree to withhold judgment and to restrain his actions and impulses in favor of calm consideration and analysis. In short, he will already have begun to prepare for the future position of leadership

⁸⁹ O. W. Wilson, Police Administration (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963), p. 139.

which it is hoped each new recruit will strive to attain. Such men will contribute a great deal to the true professionalism of police service.⁹⁰

MacNamara wrote in 1950 that "perhaps college graduation is too high an educational qualification to set for all police officers, in spite of the fact that for some of the responsibilities he routinely exercises even a college education might seem inadequate." He continued by stating that a major effort should be made to raise the overall educational level of police. He pointed out that in spite of some elevation of the educational level of police in the past fifty years the education of the general population had risen faster.⁹¹

MacNamara posited that:

In a nation in which it is difficult to avoid getting a high school diploma and in which college education is a prerequisite for thousands of relatively unimportant jobs, there is no reason for self-congratulation in the fact that most, not all, police recruits have a high school education or its equivalent.⁹²

⁹⁰ Ibid.

⁹¹ Donal E. J. MacNamara, "American Police Administration at Mid-Century," Public Administration Review, 10:187, Summer, 1950.

⁹² Ibid.

In a speech delivered at Michigan State University in 1955, Chief William Parker of Los Angeles stated that the broad base of theoretical knowledge of human relations could not be provided by police departments in their training programs. He indicated that the advantages of a college education requirement for police applicants was readily apparent.⁹³

In 1954 Sloan stated that

professions all require a minimum of four years of college . . . the minimum requirements in the police field today vary from "graduation from high school" to as low as "ability to read and write the English language."⁹⁴

Sloan pointed out that in spite of the complexity of law enforcement the assumption that the task cannot be performed by men with a minimum of high school education is ". . . to say the least fallacious." He posited that with careful selection and training police work can be performed by such men in a commendable manner. On the other hand, he considered the actions by some colleges and

⁹³O. W. Wilson, Parker on Police (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1957), pp. 154-155.

⁹⁴Charles Sloan, "Police Professionalism," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 45:77-78, May-June, 1954.

universities to develop courses in public and police administration as a ". . . shining light in the education of men interested in entering the police field." He expressed hope that this movement would spread to at least one college or university in each state since that type of education for police was "sorely needed."⁹⁵

Germann indicated in 1957 that the drive for elevation of educational standards for police was gaining support by stating that:

Slowly but with increasing emphasis and momentum, the movement is growing to elevate educational requirements for the law enforcement vocation.⁹⁶

In discussing the unique requirement for improved education for police Germann posited that:

A four-year technical education is not necessary for a young men who wishes a law enforcement career at the patrolman level, and who wishes to pursue it according to traditional fashion, but the broad education of the police officer is important as long as police leadership comes "up from the ranks."⁹⁷

⁹⁵ Ibid., p. 79.

⁹⁶ A. C. Germann, "Law Enforcement Education and Training in the United States," Police Chief, October, 1957, pp. 22-24.

⁹⁷ Ibid.

Germann also noted that:

Some twenty professional groups, including law, medicine, engineering, architecture, teaching, veterinary medicine, pharmacy, etc. . . . which have set minimum academic requirements . . . to improve the quality and economic status of their practitioners in order to protect the public, and in order to enhance their professional status . . . the police service well deserves the dignity and status that such accredited programs give. It is interesting to note . . . that in the state of Michigan the profession of pharmacy has progressed in thirty years from no educational requirements to a six-year training requirement.⁹⁸

Thomas Frost wrote in 1959 that he would like to see

America's finest young men selected to become the world's best educated police officers.

In another part of the book, however, Frost stated "that the amount of education necessary for law enforcement work is still a moot question."⁹⁹

In describing the educational requirements for policemen Frost posited that:

A police officer must be able to write an intelligent report, express himself clearly and commandingly . . . and possess sufficient

⁹⁸ Ibid.

⁹⁹ Thomas Frost, A Forward Look in Police Education (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1959), pp. 168-170.

mental ability to make spontaneous rational decisions . . . except for certain specialized positions . . . a college education is not essential.¹⁰⁰

Gourley stated that education "raises the quality" of police service, and it would appear logical that municipalities should encourage police participation in higher education through incentive programs.¹⁰¹

Gourley's article also included an interesting quote by a chief of police:

Our city council recently established a policy discouraging the employment of college students by the police department. This was a result of several of our past personnel receiving a college degree, with a major other than police science, and resigning upon graduation to accept employment at considerably higher pay than our present schedule. The council has in fact tabled any action on the present standards and training program in an attempt to discourage our recruits from accepting employment with cities paying higher salaries and benefits in the police service.¹⁰²

In describing his conception of preparatory university training for law enforcement officers, Borkenstein wrote in 1961 that:

¹⁰⁰ Ibid.

¹⁰¹ Douglas G. Gourley, "Police Educational Incentive Programs," Police Chief, December, 1961, pp. 14-18.

¹⁰² Ibid.

Graduates of the police administration programs in various universities should not be considered "finished" police officers . . . but rather people who are inclined toward policing and who have a broad background that will increase their scope of knowledge and vision to take better advantage of the opportunities provided by various police organizations.¹⁰³

Borkenstein posited that the university level training was not

absolutely necessary for a police officer. There are people who can do just as well without university training. But I do believe that the person who has this training is more likely to succeed.¹⁰⁴

In considering the professionalization of law enforcement George Brereton wrote that

One of the most important steps we must take . . . is the establishment of educational standards and training which are comparable to those which are found in many other professions.¹⁰⁵

¹⁰³ Robert Borkenstein, "Workshop: Progress in Police Training," Police Yearbook (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1961), p. 184.

¹⁰⁴ Ibid.

¹⁰⁵ George H. Brereton, "The Importance of Training and Education in the Professionalization of Law Enforcement," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, May-June, 1961, p. 111.

Bernard Garmire posited that:

All police personnel from the newest recruit to the most seasoned administrator is faced with the necessity of being a leader.¹⁰⁶

Garmire considered the college graduate as a possible source of such "leaders" and pointed out that:

Although academic achievement in itself is not panacea, those who have progressed through a college program have demonstrated a competitive ability far superior to those who come to us with a general education development certificate.¹⁰⁷

Mears stated that law enforcement officers must subscribe to the concept of continuing professional education and avail themselves ". . . of the opportunities that are presented by our universities and colleges."¹⁰⁸

William Hewitt posited that it was not a proper role for higher education to teach "how-to" procedures but rather to provide a liberal education for the individual who plans a career in law enforcement. He also stated

¹⁰⁶ Bernard Garmire, "Personal Leadership Development," Police Yearbook (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1964), pp. 332-333.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ Millard Mears, "How the Universities Can Help," Police Yearbook (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1964), p. 339.

that the liberal education would contribute more to a policeman's success than specialized knowledge of procedures. The liberal education, according to Hewitt, provides unlimited "transferable capacities," that will facilitate making more reasonable judgments.¹⁰⁹

Hewitt wrote that:

a college degree is not a "union card" to intelligence, nor does it guarantee a "royal road" to success; but it is an indication that the student has learned discrimination, critical independence, and moral responsibility.¹¹⁰

He proposed that another vital role for the college or university is to "create a standard of knowledge" through a joint effort of active law enforcement personnel assisted by the "academic world." In closing, he stated that

The role of the college or university is to contribute to the natural growth process of the modern police service.¹¹¹

In an editorial message in the Police Chief, Quinn Tamm took the following position on higher education for police:

¹⁰⁹William H. Hewitt, "The Objectives of a Formal Police Education," Police, November-December, 1964, p. 26.

¹¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹¹Ibid., p. 27.

Higher education is not a panacea for all our ills. It offers, however, the most appropriate and adequate setting and resources for engaging in the search for better ways. Beyond the capability for conducting meaningful research and for enhancing our ability to objectively understand what is happening around us, the campus must be looked to for the police officers of the future. It is nonsense to state or assume that the enforcement of the law is so simple a task that it can be done best by those unencumbered by an inquiring mind nurtured by the study of the liberal arts. The man who goes into our streets in hopes of regulating, directing or controlling human behavior must be armed with more than a gun and the ability to perform mechanical movements in response to a situation. Such men as these engage in the difficult, complex and important business of human behavior. Their intellectual armament--so long restricted to the minimum--must be no less than their physical prowess and protection.¹¹²

Frank Day cited the problem of "selling" criminal justice programs to university administrators and their reluctance to give the academic "seal of approval" because it appears to be too vocational and not of "university level."¹¹³

¹¹²Quinn Tamm, "Editorial Message," Police Chief, May, 1965, p. 5.

¹¹³Frank Day, "Administration of Criminal Justice: An Educational Design in Higher Education," The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, 56:540, 165.

Day supported higher education for police on the basis that today's police officer must be a social scientist and have broad general education which must include professional courses that meet the test of academic respectability.¹¹⁴

In concluding, Day pointed out that

If it is true that civilization is a race between education and catastrophe, and education fails to make man understand more about his duties under the law, the race will be lost . . . in short, the proper selection and training of young people for careers in fields like law enforcement . . . will determine, very largely, the amount of individual freedom the people of the United States will enjoy.¹¹⁵

Commissioner Purdy of the Pennsylvania State Police pointed out that there is no rationale which will support the lack of higher educational requirement for municipal police service, where duties are extremely complicated and technical, and of far greater significance to the American way of life, vis a vis, the requirement for a college degree for a federal agency which performs less complicated and crucial tasks.¹¹⁶

¹¹⁴ Ibid.

¹¹⁵ Ibid.

¹¹⁶ Wilson E. Purdy, "Administrative Action to Implement Selection and Training for Professionalism," Police Chief, 32:16, May, 1965.

Purdy posited that a police officer needs to look at the "big picture" and one way to assist in doing this is through

education and training, particularly at the supervisory and administrative level . . . it is more important that we teach a man to think than it is to teach him techniques and mechanics. Develop the professional mind and indoctrinate it with the proper philosophy, and the skills and performance will naturally follow.¹¹⁷

In discussing the problems of attracting and retaining college trained law enforcement officers Norman Pomrenke sees the primary purpose of education as the creation of

an atmosphere in order that the individual may develop intellectually, emotionally, and socially . . . to develop within the individual a logical and/or analytical method of reasoning.¹¹⁸

He pointed out that "there is no doubt that education is the primary consideration toward police professionalization." He cautioned, however, that one must resist the philosophy that

¹¹⁷ Ibid.

¹¹⁸ Norman E. Pomerence, "Attracting and Retaining the College Trained Officer in Law Enforcement," Police Yearbook (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1966), pp. 99-109.

education is the panacea for the future of law enforcement. Education per se is a relative term The properly selected individual with the proper education, coupled with the application of such education to the police service, affords law enforcement a fine officer. . . . The opposite is also true--a poorly selected officer with the advantages of an education can and usually is a detriment to the police service. Education must be equated with the individual and vice versa.¹¹⁹

Pomerenke stated that the relatively recent intrusion of law enforcement programs onto university and college campuses had caused consternation. He cited the following questions which are raised:

are they proper [police programs] in the groves of academe? Where will they be placed among the various disciplines? Will they be purely academic or more nearly functional "nuts-and-bolts" programs? What will they be called? Criminology? Law Enforcement? Police Science? Police Administration?¹²⁰

Paul Whitesenand wrote in 1966 that the upgrading of educational requirements for police manpower was ". . . a key ingredient to the better police department." He took the position that "the value of college educated officers is in many instances, unquestioned," but he also pointed out that one must consider the possible personnel

¹¹⁹ Ibid.

¹²⁰ Ibid.

problems that may arise due to hiring college trained men. One problem which he cited was that as educational standards are raised for police the police departments are forced to move into a new manpower market in which there is a greater degree of competition for educated human resources. This creates a problem because

the vast majority of police departments are inexperienced in recruiting and holding college trained people. If law enforcement plans to go this route it is necessary to make plans which will deal with these problems.¹²¹

In a talk delivered at the 1966 convention of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, Franklin Kreml, the Vice President of Northwestern University, stated that there had been some progress in establishing law enforcement programs on college and university campuses but ". . . some of the greatest of these institutions avoid even discussion of police education."¹²²

¹²¹Paul Whitesenand, "The Upgrading of Educational Requirements for Police Officers: Unplanned for Personnel Problems," Police Chief, August, 1966, pp. 39-42.

¹²²Franklin Kreml, "The Role of Colleges and Universities in Police Management," Police Yearbook (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1966), pp. 34-40.

He pointed out that some scholars have a condescending attitude towards adult or in-service education in general, because it is not "in," it is a thing of dubious academic respectability, and participation in such an activity will seldom lead to top professional rewards. On the other hand, some police administrators who have always been scornful and/or suspicious of the intellectual process, are now asking for academic assistance with their problems. Such attitudes on the part of both parties have made it difficult to do business.¹²³

Kreml cautions against ". . . negotiating a police program with a third-rate school which will staff the program with third-rate teaching talent." He pointed out that it is a difficult task to arrange a program with a top institution, because they have standards and value their reputation. He stated that one will often see a brandishing about of course credits, or certificates of completion, or degrees of various sorts. He considers this as "flashy gun handling" vis a vis, the real "marksmanship" of an academically sound program. He admonishes

¹²³ Ibid.

police administrators to: "Beware of bogus credentials . . . academia has its mainstream and its backwaters."¹²⁴

Kreml stated that even if a college degree were not actually essential [for policemen], I would still want to see broadly and liberally educated men in the police profession. It strikes me as a personal tragedy to have a man spend his entire career enforcing laws of a society he does not really understand because of his limited schooling.¹²⁵

Stanley Schrotel, the Chief of Police of Cincinnati, Ohio, stated that there was a great need for increased capabilities on the part of persons applying for police service and asked the question:

is an adequate capability insured if the minimum academic standard is established at college level?

He stated in response: "We answer this question with a vigorous affirmative."¹²⁶

Another rather indirect advantage in requiring college training for prospective police officers, which

¹²⁴Ibid.

¹²⁵Ibid.

¹²⁶ Stanley Schrotel, "Attracting and Keeping College Trained Personnel in Law Enforcement," Police Yearbook (Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1966), p. 111.

Schrotel identified, is that it keeps a man off the job market until he becomes old enough for police service.¹²⁷

According to Schrotel, completion of degree requirements provides some measure of:

drive, ambition, and related characteristics so essential for successful performance in the police field. Educational achievement is also a measure of intelligence, acquired skill in judgment, writing, thinking, and expression, and a proof . . . of perseverance. These are the essential prerequisites for those choosing to supervise the behavior of others.¹²⁸

He pointed out that some oppose recruitment of college trained policemen claiming that the unpromoted college graduates will become bored due to the monotonous and routine nature of police work and the non-use of his intellectual skills. Schrotel sees this as a challenge to the administrator to meet this problem rather than avoiding it by not actively recruiting college men.¹²⁹

A method recommended by Schrotel for inducing college men to enter police service and encouraging current employees to seek advanced education is to

¹²⁷ Ibid.

¹²⁸ Ibid.

¹²⁹ Ibid.

offer a premium for educational achievement to those seeking promotion. This can be accomplished by mandating minimal educational requirements, substituting formal educational experience for service in rank, or a combination of both.¹³⁰

A. F. Brandstatter pointed out in a 1966 article that

as social institutions are faced with increasingly complex social problems . . . assistance would be needed in research, training, and education, and that new knowledge and skills necessary to improve police operations would emerge primarily from colleges and universities through meaningful research.¹³¹

Brandstatter expressed concern that if the practice of recruiting from high school graduates was continued by police departments they would be obtaining ". . . the most marginal people coming out of high schools, the lower thirty percent" This would be true because the better qualified individual would go on to college and would not likely be attracted to police service once he had obtained a degree, due to the low educational standard.¹³²

¹³⁰ Ibid.

¹³¹ A. F. Brandstatter, "Education Serves the Police--The Youth--The Community," Police Chief, August, 1966, p. 14.

¹³² Ibid.

Samuel Jameson wrote that policing is not an easy task and the decisions that must be made require

the ability to diagnose and to make quick but accurate judgments. They demand knowledge of how human beings "tick." Such knowledge is not inborn, it is learned.¹³³

He proposed that the "common sense" approach to preparation of law enforcement officers must be changed and a switch must be made from the "how to do well" skills to a "why do it" philosophy.¹³⁴

The task of education, according to Jameson, is:

to encourage a questioning mind, a critical spirit, to challenge the accepted and outworn, and to promote orderly change in the community. Without these law enforcement . . . fails to meet the expanded needs of the community in terms of new services thus becoming an impediment to advancement.¹³⁵

Clark and Chapman quoted a letter from the Police Chief of Hermosa Beach, California, which stated that:

Candidates with a minimum of two years of college are easier to train on the complexities of changes in the rules of evidence, search and seizure, arrest and court

¹³³ Samuel Jameson, "Quest for Quality in Police Work," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 57:211, June, 1966.

¹³⁴ Ibid., p. 212.

¹³⁵ Ibid., pp. 212-215.

techniques. They are more susceptible to training on specialty items, such as internal and external intelligence, public relations, budgeting and auxiliary services, they are more adept at adjusting to situations that require clear thinking and precise action.¹³⁶

Sam Chapman posited that the greatest problem of police was the identification of leaders, and criticized the "fish-laddering" of promoted policemen to top executive positions. He stated that one of the most important considerations for future leaders is proper educational background. He concluded that a continuing education program is especially important for experienced policemen because this is the time that a broad outlook is most needed.¹³⁷

Chapman wrote that a good educational background was essential to overcome the "cop cultural lag" and felt that individual reading of the right material was also important. He pointed out that police leaders must be able to communicate with individuals with strong

¹³⁶ Donald E. Clark and Sam G. Chapman, Forward Step: Educational Backgrounds for Police (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1966), p. 84.

¹³⁷ Sam G. Chapman, "Developing Personnel Leadership," Police Chief, 33:26, March, 1966.

professional and academic backgrounds such as sociologists, psychologists, etc. In addition he thought the ability to make good decisions was important to police and that university or college level courses in evaluation, logic, and reasoning would be helpful.¹³⁸

In a 1967 article Germann pointed out that police service had in previous years used relatively uneducated men to perform simple tasks under careful supervision but now the service is using well educated men independently performing complex tasks and depending heavily on their own judgment. He emphasized that the policeman of the current period (1967) must have an active interest in crime prevention and the protection of personal liberty rather than only crime repression. He stated that the modern policeman had to work as a member of the criminal justice team rather than working independent of other institutions.¹³⁹

According to Germann the increased complexity of the tasks which police perform has a direct influence on

¹³⁸ Ibid., 27, 29, 35.

¹³⁹ A. C. Germann, "Education and Professional Law Enforcement," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 58:604, December, 1967.

the level of education required, i.e. a high level of educational achievement is not required to teach a man the vocational mechanics of law enforcement but a broader educational base is required to understand the "psychological, sociological, anthropological, legal, ethical, and human relations aspects of his work."¹⁴⁰

Germann asserted that:

when we talk about professionalization, we must talk about educational qualification for the work. If we ask the question "what standard of educational attainment should be set for the police service?" we must be prepared to answer the question, what kind of law enforcement do we desire?¹⁴¹

Germann favored a well-balanced liberal education in addition to professional courses such as police organization and management. Such a program, according to Germann, would be built "around the future, not around the past."¹⁴²

In discussing some of the police problems Germann stated that a major cause of many of the problems is the fact that some in the top levels of police service are

¹⁴⁰ Ibid., p. 605.

¹⁴¹ Ibid.

¹⁴² Ibid., pp. 606-609.

"not too bright," and that if law enforcement ". . . is to meet today's challenges it needs a great many first-class brains at policy making levels."¹⁴³

In a recent article, Franklin Ashburn supported higher education and professionalization for police and pointed out that the impetus toward higher education for police has caused an awareness by government and the public of the importance of police in society. He indicated, however, that one possible "problem" of college or university trained policemen is that he will likely "speak out" on social issues.¹⁴⁴

Ashburn criticized the failure of police departments to offer incentives for policemen to raise their educational level. At the time the article was written there were only fifteen departments in the country that had instituted incentive plans to encourage police officers to return to school. He gives two reasons for this: 1) administrators may be threatened by young, well-educated police officers, and 2) once they have raised

¹⁴³ Ibid.

¹⁴⁴ Franklin G. Ashburn, "The Danger of Selective Bias in Law Enforcement and Training," Police, 12:83-85.

their educational level they will be more likely to move to another job outside the department.¹⁴⁵

In Upgrading American Police, Charles Saunders addressed directly the need for improved education and training for police. He took the position that:

to debate the value of higher education for police, then, is largely irrelevant. In other occupations involving lesser demands, a general liberal arts education is expected as a background for specialized training. The real question is not "do police need a college degree?" but, "Where are persons with necessary qualifications to be found?" More and more the search leads directly to the college or university campus. As for inservice officers, the question is not whether those without the higher education are unqualified, but whether advanced study would make them better policemen.¹⁴⁶

Saunders pointed out that there is an obvious lack of research to support or refute the theory that a significant relationship exists between educational level and on-the-job duty performance as a police officer. He stated that:

The reasons for advanced college education for police are essentially the same as those used to justify higher education as

¹⁴⁵ James Q. Wilson, "A Reader's Guide to the Crime Commission Reports," Public Interest, Fall, 1967, p. 81.

¹⁴⁶ Saunders, op. cit., p. 92.

preparation for any other career. They rest more on faith than on fact. Research is unable to determine how much knowledge college graduates retain from their studies or even whether their personalities and values are significantly altered in the process.¹⁴⁷

Saunders stated that there is reason to believe that there is a greater turnover rate among better educated and more intelligent men due to frustration and dissatisfaction. He feels that this is not a valid argument against recruitment or college trained men but rather an argument for reform of the system to provide greater incentives and more opportunities for qualified men.¹⁴⁸

Saunders felt the most compelling argument for raising educational standards for police was the constantly rising educational level of the overall population:

In 1946, only 22 percent of all persons between 18 and 21 were enrolled in institutions of higher education; in 1967 the figure is 46.6 percent. The trend is continuing: 58.7 percent of all males who graduated from high school in the spring of 1966 enrolled in college that fall. The median years of school completed by employed males in the civilian labor force is 16.3 for professional and technical workers and 12.5 for clerical

¹⁴⁷ Ibid., pp. 81-82.

¹⁴⁸ Ibid., pp. 89-91.

workers, as compared with 12.4 for police . . . unless a serious effort is made to raise educational standards it will not be possible to even maintain the status quo, let alone raise educational standards.¹⁴⁹

The report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, was based on a comprehensive study of the overall American criminal justice system. It contained the following statement on higher education for police:

Due to the nature of the police task and its effect on our society, there is need to elevate educational requirements to the level of college degree from an accredited institution for all future personnel selected to perform the functions of police agent.¹⁵⁰

The report pointed out that the duties performed by a regular police officer are not as complex as those anticipated for a police agent but the regular officer should be required "to have completed at least two years of college preparation at an accredited institution."¹⁵¹

¹⁴⁹ Ibid.

¹⁵⁰ President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Criminal Justice, Task Force Report: The Police (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1967), p. 126.

¹⁵¹ Ibid.

Another part of this study, however, identified some problems in establishing these educational standards. The report stated that in spite of the fact that college-trained men might have a ". . . better appreciation of people with different racial, economic, and cultural backgrounds . . ." the more highly educated officers would also have "limited personal experience with the poor" which would require additional training to emphasize the problems of that group.¹⁵²

The report also pointed out that raising educational standards may also

interfere with the concrete and immediate benefit of being able to add an adequate number of officers from minority backgrounds.¹⁵³

The force would therefore not be representative of the general populace. To meet this problem the report recommends that higher educational standards be accomplished by:

financial aid and other methods of providing the educational opportunity which would enable members of minority groups to meet the new standards in adequate numbers.¹⁵⁴

¹⁵²

¹⁵³ Ibid., p. 163.

¹⁵⁴ Ibid., p. 164.

In considering the desirable educational qualifications for top police executives the report recommended that "with few exceptions the completion of four years at college or university is a minimum requirement." The report also recommended a "baccalaureate degree requirement for all future chief administrators." If it is not possible to secure chief executives with the requisite academic qualifications from within the department the report recommended recruiting properly qualified men from outside the department.¹⁵⁵

The proposed educational standards seem rather unrealistic, however, when one considers the fact that many police departments are presently under-strength, using much lower standards, coupled with the fact that the median educational level of police officers only rose from 12.2 in 1960 to 12.4 in 1966.¹⁵⁶

Bressler discussed the importance of higher education for law enforcement in a more general way by pointing out that it serves as:

¹⁵⁵ Ibid., p. 127.

¹⁵⁶ Ibid., p. 10.

a constituent element of all scientific, professional, and management training and as such is presumed directly instrumental in enhancing occupational competencies. In one sense general education is the most efficient form of occupational training. Rapid change is hostile to narrow expertise and a curriculum that emphasizes breadth and flexibility may better equip students to meet unpredictable vocational demands.¹⁵⁷

In the general report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, the Commission made the following recommendations pertaining to educational standards:

1. The ultimate aim of all police departments should be that personnel with general enforcement powers have Baccalaureate degrees. [It is apparently understood that personnel will be allowed to work toward degrees over a period of time--but this is the ultimate goal.]
2. Police departments should take immediate steps to establish a minimum requirement of a baccalaureate degree for all supervisory and executive positions. [But such personnel should continue their studies toward advanced degrees in the field thus resulting in increasing numbers of persons enrolled in masters and doctoral programs.]
3. Police departments and civil service commissions should re-examine and, if

¹⁵⁷ Marvin Bressler, "Sociology and Collegiate Education," The User of Sociology (New York: Wilensky Basic Books, 1967), p. 50.

necessary, modify present recruitment standards on age, height, weight, visual acuity and prior residence. The appointing authority should place primary emphasis on the education, background, character and personality of a candidate for police service.¹⁵⁸

Professor Vern Folley distinguished between police training and police education by pointing out that "training is essentially the 'how' of doing the job, while education is basically the 'why' of doing the job." He admits, however, that there is a great deal of overlap and that they cannot be clearly separated. He took the position that the college cannot effectively provide training while the police academy cannot effectively provide education; and police need both.¹⁵⁹

Folley wrote that it was obvious that:

if police are to keep up with the public educational level they must attend college . . . in fact, if they are to do no more than just maintain the level of law enforcement that was enjoyed twenty years ago, they must have officers with college backgrounds.¹⁶⁰

¹⁵⁸ President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Criminal Justice, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1967), pp. 109-110.

¹⁵⁹ Vern Folley, "The Sphere of Police Education," Law and Order, February, 1967, pp. 16-18.

¹⁶⁰ Ibid.

He posited that the failure of higher education to offer law enforcement curricula had forced some young people to turn to other careers.¹⁶¹

Some of the obstacles to police education that Folley identified were: "the passive public, the unenlightened police chiefs, and uncooperative college administrators." He felt that of this group, the police chief was "the one who has most miserably failed," because he should properly mold the public's attitude, and approach the college administrators.¹⁶²

He reported several statements which he "heard on numerous occasions" from police administrators:

My men don't need no education. I've gotten along for forty years without an education. I see no reason why they can't. The public don't expect cops to be educated, they expect them to arrest criminals. If they know more than me, the mayor may make them chief.¹⁶³

He reported that the most frequently voiced objection to higher education for policemen was: "If I provide an education for my men, they will leave for a better job."

¹⁶¹ Ibid., pp. 21-23.

¹⁶² Ibid.

¹⁶³ Ibid.

Folley admits that such losses are a possibility but discounts the loss by pointing out that these former police officers will be an asset to the department in other jobs in the community by understanding police problems and supporting the department within the community.¹⁶⁴

James Wilson pointed out that there was no question in his mind that "the quality of manpower entering the police field . . . has been going down over the last twenty years."¹⁶⁵

He also stated that:

The objective is not to make every cop a college graduate. Any group faced with a problem tends to recommend that problem solvers be college graduates--which is nonsense, since the supply can never equal the demand unless quality is allowed to deteriorate and since there are not that many occupations for which college offers any meaningful preparation.¹⁶⁶

He concedes that the motive is understandable, however, because

the challenges facing the police are now so difficult that a great strain is being placed

¹⁶⁴ Ibid.

¹⁶⁵ James Q. Wilson, "A Reader's Guide to the Crime Commission Reports," Public Interest, Fall, 1967, p. 81.

¹⁶⁶ Ibid.

on the officer's civility, and one is tempted to reach for any expedient that seems likely to increase the availability of that resource.¹⁶⁷

An article by Newman and Hunter contains a quote from the Congressional Record by the Honorable William R. Anderson of Tennessee concerning higher education for law enforcement officers:

Police and correctional agencies are human institutions in a rapidly evolving society which, like other institutions, must constantly adapt to changing times. The brisk trend of our society is toward higher levels of education; we must not allow the law enforcement professions to fall behind We should not ask that the American law enforcement profession police a society to which it is educationally inferior¹⁶⁸

Paul Chevigny, a lawyer employed by the New York American Civil Liberties Union, wrote that:

There has been much discussion in the last few years about higher standards of academic education, including the possibility of a college degree [for policemen] . . . it is a shotgun approach that fails to deal with

¹⁶⁷ Ibid.

¹⁶⁸ Charles Newman and Dorothy Hunter, "Education for Careers in Law Enforcement: An Analysis of Student Output 1964-1967," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 59:138, March, 1966.

the basic problem . . . education is no guarantee against abuse of power.¹⁶⁹

He also posited that:

A more complex situation is presented by the fact that, for a great many police jobs, a college degree does not seem necessary or appropriate.

He pointed to the fact seniority and results of competitive examinations are generally the basis for promotion, without giving credit for educational achievement in order to support his argument that the police do not seriously consider educational achievement important for top police positions.¹⁷⁰

J. M. Moynahan stated that the "sociocultural world in which we live is becoming increasingly more complicated . . ." and posited that police must change with the culture, and this ability to change can be effectively taught as a part of the educational process. He recommended an interdisciplinary approach or one with a basic program in psychology, political science,

¹⁶⁹ Paul Chevigny, Police Power (New York: Pantheon Books, Random House, 1969), pp. 272-273.

¹⁷⁰ Ibid.

or sociology, if law enforcement programs are not available.¹⁷¹

A survey conducted in 1970 by the International Association of Chiefs of Police revealed that all American state police agencies require at least high school graduation or its equivalent for new state policemen. Two states, Arkansas and the state of Washington, exceed this minimum standard and require two years of college.¹⁷²

Robert Jagiello, a Yale Law School graduate, prepared an article for the stated purpose of challenging Paul Chevigny's previously reviewed article which contended that academic training for policemen was largely irrelevant.¹⁷³ He challenged this assertion by examining the following: 1) the portrait of an ideal policeman, inferred from Chevigny's criticism of police conduct; 2) the nature of police functions; 3) professions engaged

¹⁷¹J. M. Moynahan, "A Social Science Approach to the Education of Law Enforcement Personnel," Police, September-October, 1969, pp. 66-68.

¹⁷²International Association of Chiefs of Police, Police Personnel Selection Survey, 1971.

¹⁷³Robert Jagiello, "College Education for the Patrolman--Necessity or Irrelevance," The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 62:114, 272-273, March, 1971.

in making decisions similar to those made by police;
 4) the conclusions of advocates for police education;
 5) police education in the academy; 6) the values and
 attitudes developed in college and their enduring power,
 and the impact of bureaucratic organizations on such
 values and the probable direction of organizational change
 resulting from an increased level of education among em-
 ployees; and 7) the validity of Chevigny's legally-trained
 officer paradigm.¹⁷⁴

Jagiello reversed Chevigny's criticisms to con-
 clude that an ideal patrolman should be

tolerant of deviance, enjoys broad social vi-
 sion, is schooled in the complexities of the
 political processes in a pluralistic society,
 educated in the law and the competing values
 it serves, dispenses even-handed justice,
 stands secure against the impulses of preju-
 dice and bigotry, and commits himself to the
 preservation of law as an effective arbiter.¹⁷⁵

Jagiello then asks a rhetorical question and re-
 sponds sarcastically: "Where will this ideal man come
 from? Why high school, of course!"¹⁷⁶

¹⁷⁴ Ibid.

¹⁷⁵ Ibid.

¹⁷⁶ Ibid.

Jagiello stated that police are the chief interpreters of the law to the population with which they deal due to ignorance by the citizenry of the criminal law and its processes. The police, therefore, have "effectively captured the clientele of both the court and the prosecutors" since those dealing with the latter have earlier interacted with the police. Upon considering this fact, one can easily understand why police are commonly called "the law," especially by those in the lower socio-economic levels of society.¹⁷⁷

Police also have power due to their ability to effectively nullify the law in the case of many crimes and may also engage in summary "on-the-street punishment ranging from verbal abuse to death." The power to arrest or not to arrest has a serious impact upon the life of a citizen due to the stigma attached to arrest. The police are thus required to make extremely important decisions which are generally not subject to scrutiny--while prosecutors and judges must operate openly and generally require the corroboration of others.¹⁷⁸

¹⁷⁷ Ibid.

¹⁷⁸ Ibid.

Upon consideration of the comparative functions of the police, as compared to those of prosecutors and judges, the writer concludes that:

If form follows function, then the form of a police officer's education should take on the contours of an attorney's and rather than calling for redirection away from college education as a declared value, it seems reasonable to assert that we must redouble our efforts to encourage college education for patrol officers.¹⁷⁹

The writer asserts that:

a Bachelor of Arts degree with a strong emphasis on liberal studies, the behavioral sciences and law should be encouraged as a prerequisite to police employment as a patrol officer.¹⁸⁰

In answering Chevigny's contention that police academies provide adequate technical training, Jagiello argues that there is not enough time available in police training programs to meet the need and that:

Police education must be tough-minded, and extensive if policemen are to meet the demands placed on them. Academy training is not adequate to the task.¹⁸¹

¹⁷⁹ Ibid.

¹⁸⁰ Ibid.

¹⁸¹ Ibid.

In meeting Chevigny's assertion that liberal impulses acquired in colleges are largely inhibited by the nature of the structure in which a police officer must operate, Jagiello quoted a study which clearly showed that belief changes take place in students who persist through two years of college. Such persons are better able to recognize complexity and tolerate ambiguity as college sophomores than as high school graduates. He cites studies to indicate that a regression to previously held beliefs after submersion in the bureaucratic police structure is unlikely and stated that:

there is some evidence and substantial authoritative opinion that a college education is critical for the development of the police as a viable democratic institution.¹⁸²

In closing, Jagiello stated that:

One can only conclude that the police role is one of the most critical and difficult to perform, and every available device which will improve the quality of judgment exercised by a patrolman, including college, should be encouraged and perhaps demanded.¹⁸³

In 1971, Charles Tenney completed a study of higher education programs in law enforcement and criminal

¹⁸² Ibid.

¹⁸³ Ibid.

justice. He traced the development of law enforcement programs from the early efforts at the University of California to the period of the late nineteen-sixties, to the early nineteen-seventies when explosive expansion of these programs began due to the impetus provided by financial support from the federal government under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968.¹⁸⁴

One problem with these programs, according to Tenney, is that clear goals are lacking. There was some question as to whether the primary emphasis should be to improve upon what was already being done or to do something different.¹⁸⁵

Tenney quoted an unnamed "high ranking officer of a metropolitan police department" as stating: "we simply don't see what value there is in all this higher education." He cited a survey of police executives conducted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police which revealed that less than half of the respondents would recommend raising educational requirements to two years

¹⁸⁴ Charles Tenney, Higher Education Programs in Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, 1971), p. 56.

¹⁸⁵ Ibid.

of college, and fifteen percent thought a college degree should be a minimum standard. Tenney posited that "the question of value from college educated police officers is one which needs more study."¹⁸⁶

In 1969, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration convened a task force in Washington, D.C., with a broad representation of police agencies. A survey of this group revealed that if given the choice between ". . . a graduate of a police science program and one with a broad liberal arts background, they would prefer the latter." The group agreed that "education was one important way to improve police performance," and that ". . . decision-making is a valuable skill that should emerge" from such study.¹⁸⁷

Superintendent Giarusso, of the New Orleans Police Department, felt that "the better educated man sees problems more in perspective. He can provide a strong sense of direction for change from within." He also posited that:

¹⁸⁶ Ibid., p. 5.

¹⁸⁷ Ibid., p. 34.

This is not to say, however, that higher education is necessarily all that crucial for every performance level in police work.

It was pointed out that one possible assistance that academics might provide is to ". . . design ways of improving the decision-making capabilities of police at all levels."¹⁸⁸

In 1969 the International Association of Chiefs of Police surveyed 4,000 police officers at all levels. In response to the statement: "The police service needs more college trained career officers," seventy-seven percent of the respondents agreed.¹⁸⁹

One of the first sheriffs in the United States to require a bachelor's degree for all sworn personnel was Sheriff James Holtzman of Multnomah County, Oregon. Tenney reported that Sheriff Holtzman told him in a personal conversation that his experience had been "most disappointing." Sheriff Holtzman felt the requirements of the job are:

emotional stability, intellectual honesty, intelligence, and physical capacity, but a

¹⁸⁸ Ibid., p. 83.

¹⁸⁹ Ibid., p. 88.

college degree is not a guarantee that a college graduate has any of these traits
 . . .¹⁹⁰

Tenney suggested that support for higher education may be for reasons other than suggested by the President's Commission. He pointed out that every group has three purposes: 1) to survive and expand, 2) to gain political power, and 3) to achieve efficiency in the performance of assigned responsibilities. Law enforcement is no exception--the more highly educated the stronger the case for retention of high educational standards, and the more vocal become the spokesmen for adding to their own number. In addition, "education also adds luster, status, and prestige to one's occupation." Tenney stated that the "Superintendent of the London Metropolitan Police is knighted royalty; our royalty are our college graduates."¹⁹¹

Tenney favored more attention to strengthening the recruiting process. He supported a careful look at standards of age, both minimum and maximum, and stringent physical requirements. Retention of such rigid standards can actually cause a drop in IQ within a department. He cited

¹⁹⁰Ibid., pp. 91-92.

¹⁹¹Ibid.

New York as an example; where the IQ dropped from 107.7 in 1957, to 98.2 in 1967, the lowest level in many years, when other standards were raised.¹⁹²

Summary

This review of the literature reveals that attempts to relate pre-employment information to actual on-the-job police performance in an organized way is a fairly recent undertaking. Such efforts have generally involved attempts to validate some sort of written pre-employment test or personality inventory. The results have not been impressive.

Recent court decisions involving civil rights have forced police agencies to look for alternative non-discriminatory selection criteria. Some research has been accomplished and/or is underway in this area.

Police agencies have always given considerable weight to background characteristics in a rather intuitive way--this is reflected in the extensive use of background

¹⁹²Ibid.

investigations as an important component of the selection process. The issue of formal educational requirements is another classic example of rather informally accepting background characteristics as a predictor of police duty performance. As this review has revealed, the literature is filled with intuitive judgments and authoritative opinions about the relationship between formal education and effective police performance. As the review has indicated there is considerable support for higher education for police by practitioners and other knowledgeable persons but there has been limited research to support this position.

There have been, however, some recent attempts to study the relationship of various background characteristics to duty performance in an organized and rational manner.

Although there is disagreement when one compares the research studies here reviewed, there are also several areas in which some level of consensus may be emerging. As an example, the Baehr, Cohen, and Levy studies support the view that properly selected background characteristics which are readily available in most police

agencies can yield useful predictors of future police performance. This is particularly significant when one considers the fact that these studies involved large samples, were conducted over a long period of time, were well supported financially, conducted in a very professional manner, and employed computer technology and sophisticated statistical techniques.^{193,194,195}

These studies involved large metropolitan police departments (Chicago and New York), plus a group of over two thousand officers from fourteen California state, county, and city agencies. These researchers quite properly cautioned against generalizing their findings beyond the departments involved, but as other studies are conducted in police agencies at all levels, a much firmer information base can be established which should lead to formulation of general theories of police personnel selection and personnel management.

When one considers the advances of the past decade some tentative theories may not lie too far in the future.

¹⁹³Baehr, op. cit., p. 23.

¹⁹⁴Cohen, op. cit., pp. 20-28.

¹⁹⁵Levy, loc. cit.

The fact that several studies completed within the past five years have made significant contributions to the law enforcement "body of knowledge" is certainly encouraging.

If one evaluates objectively the scientific "state of the art" in selecting university professors, given the fact that this professional group has existed for over five hundred years, the progress made by the emerging law enforcement profession in refining the selection process is remarkable.

CHAPTER IV

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter contains a description of the type of study, restatement of hypotheses, sample description, population description and extent of generalization, measures employed, data collection and coding, analysis, and summary.

Type of Study

This study is primarily correlational with an aim of working toward prediction. Predictions which are subsequently verified or rejected, based on actual performance, are not a part of this study. The study should, however, provide information which can be helpful in making such predictions. Studies of this type have also been called concurrent validation since relationships between

predictors and performance measures are examined which serves to "validate" the efficacy of the predictors.

It seems appropriate to also point out that no attempt will be made to demonstrate a cause and effect relationship between the "independent" and "dependent" variables, but rather to show that a relationship in fact exists, which should allow one to make predictions about the latter, given information about the former.

In analyzing and interpreting the results of correlational studies there are at least two pitfalls that must be avoided. The first of these pitfalls has just been alluded to, making the unwarranted jump from a significant relationship to causality.

In a study of juvenile delinquency, as an example, one might find a statistically significant and positive relationship between millimeters of shoe heel wear in a sample of young men, and the number of arrests for larceny. In spite of the fact that sampling was proper, measures of wear accomplished with precision, and sophisticated statistical techniques employed, one is not likely to conclude that shoe heel wear causes larceny.

The jump from a statistically significant positive relationship between college quarter-hours successfully completed and exceptional duty performance, to the conclusion that exceptional duty performance is caused by such college experience appears more logical due to societal conditioning but it may be as untenable as the shoe heel example. Police duty performance of men with college experience may be more a function of the traits, characteristics, and abilities that a young man took with him to college, than what happened to him while in attendance. The recent discovery of the overriding importance of prior characteristics, abilities, and traits, such as intelligence, ambition, motivation, tenacity, the ability to establish goals and strategies for achieving them, etc., may be difficult for some to accept, but research seems to support this view.

The other pitfall, which is not limited to correlational studies, is the temptation to make inferences beyond the range of sample data. As an example, if a rigid minimum height standard is established, it is not possible to make reliable inferences about the performance of men below that level since they are systematically excluded from samples drawn from active police officers.

If one keeps these limitations in mind it is possible to effectively use the results of correlational studies in improving the police selection process and may in time lead to a better understanding of causal relationships between predictor and performance variables.

Restatement of Hypotheses

The research hypotheses are restated at this point for the convenience of the reader:

H-1: There is a significant linear relationship between each of the probationary trooper criterion or performance measures and: 1) percentile standing in high school graduating class, 2) number of college quarter-hours successfully completed, 3) written and oral test scores on pre-employment civil service tests, 4) age at start of recruit training, 5) height, 6) body weight at commencement of recruit training, 7) level of family responsibility, and 8) active military service.

H-2: There is a significant linear relationship between successful achievement of civil service status and: 1) percentile standing in high school graduating class, 2) number of college quarter-hours successfully completed, 3) written and oral test scores on pre-employment civil service evaluations, 4) age at commencement of recruit training, 5) height, 6) body weight at commencement of recruit training, 7) level of family responsibility, and 8) active military service.

H-3: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who graduate from publicly operated high schools are compared with men who graduate from privately operated schools.

H-4: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who complete high school through regular graduation are compared with men who graduate through evening school or obtain educational equivalency through GED or similar programs.

H-5: Men who participate in college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other related courses attain significantly different recruit achievement scores than men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such experiences.

H-6: Men who participate in college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other related courses attain significantly different probationary trooper ratings than men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such experiences.

H-7: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who participate in college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other directly related courses are compared with men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such experiences.

H-8: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who successfully

complete at least eighty-five college quarter-hours are compared with men with a lower level of formal education.

The Sample

The sample for this study was drawn from a group of 244 men who commenced recruit training with the Michigan State Police as members of recruit trooper classes numbered seventy-nine, eighty, and eighty-one. These recruit classes started training on August 30, 1971; November 8, 1971; and January 10, 1972, respectively. The classes completed their probationary service one year from the dates the training commenced.

This sample was selected for the following reasons:

- 1) The classes started training and completed their probationary service within a time-frame congruent with the time schedule of this researcher.

- 2) The group was of sufficient size to allow one to draw conclusions about the population with an acceptable degree of accuracy.
- 3) The men in these classes were selected using normal and legally mandated civil service selection criteria so it was possible to conclude that men were adequately representative of the population of past and future recruits.

In developing the basic sample it was necessary to eliminate nineteen men from the total group of 244 men that were initially in the three recruit classes, due to incomplete information such as missing civil service scores, incomplete high school records, etc. This left a total of 225 men in what will be called the "basic sample" used for this study.

In testing hypothesis Ho-1 it was necessary to drop twelve additional men from the basic sample who completed high school by GED or evening school, since they did not possess a high school percentile standing score. It was also necessary to drop an additional ninety-nine men from the basic sample in testing this hypothesis due

to the nature of the multiple regression analysis which was used for this test. In order to enter the scores of an individual subject into the multiple regression computation it is necessary that all predictors and criterion variable scores be available. As an example, if a man resigned during recruit training, he would not establish a recruit achievement score, or scores on subsequent performance measures since the scores are generated in a longitudinal fashion. It was therefore necessary to drop the GED subjects, plus the other ninety-nine subjects that resigned or were released prior to gaining civil service status. This left 114 subjects in the sub-sample for this analysis.

To test hypothesis Ho-2 it was possible to use the entire 225 man basic sample, less the twelve GED subjects, due to the use of the success/failure performance criterion, thus leaving a sub-sample of 213 subjects for this analysis.

In order to test hypothesis Ho-3 it was necessary to drop the twelve GED subjects from the basic sample, plus nine men whose records were unclear concerning the public/private school graduation status. This left a sub-sample of 204 subjects for this analysis.

In order to test hypothesis Ho-4 two separate sub-samples were used. The first sub-sample consisted of the eighty-two men in the basic sample who had graduated from a regular high school and did not continue their formal education beyond that level. This group was compared with another sub-sample consisting of twelve men in the basic sample who achieved high school equivalency through GED, evening school, or similar programs, and failed to continue their formal education beyond that level.

The sub-sample used to test hypotheses Ho-5, Ho-6, and Ho-7, consisted of thirty-eight men drawn from the 225 man basic sample based on successful completion of 130 or more quarter-hours of college credit, i.e., attained college classification of "senior" or higher based on the classification criterion used at Michigan State University. This selection criterion was used to limit possible bias based on educational level due to the diversity of educational achievement within the basic sample. This sub-sample was further subdivided into sub-samples consisting of subjects who had successfully completed twenty or more college quarter-hours (or equivalent) in criminal justice type courses (ten troopers) which was

compared with the other sub-sample composed of men who had not enjoyed the benefit of such an educational experience (twenty-eight troopers).

The entire 225 man basic sample was used to test hypothesis Ho-8.

The Population

The three recruit classes followed a program of instruction and period of probationary service carefully prescribed by departmental regulations. This fact, coupled with consistency in selection criteria, based on civil service regulations, allows one to conclude that the recruit performance of the three classes considered should be applicable to future recruit classes to the extent that selection, training, and probationary service procedures and activities remain constant.

Measures Employed

The measures used for this study were quantifiable or categorical data which are normally available in

existing police personnel and civil service files. The exclusive use of such measures was intentional. It was assumed that sufficient background information for suitable prediction of police performance is now collected as a part of routine existing pre-employment procedures. A special effort to gather additional information is therefore generally not necessary. The measures used in the study were listed and defined in Chapter I. The predictor and performance measures employed in the multiple regressions are presented in a condensed form in Table 4.1 for the convenience of the reader.

With the exception of "level of family responsibility" and "high school percentile standing" the predictors used in the multiple regressions were selected due to their assumed importance as police selection criteria, based on their extensive use by police agencies in the United States. The selection of the predictors was also conditioned by a review of the literature and numerous discussions between this researcher and law enforcement practitioners, plus others concerned with police personnel selection policies.

TABLE 4.1. Predictor and performance variables used in multiple regressions.

Predictor Variables	Performance Variables
1. High School Percentile Standing	1. Recruit-Training Achievement Score
2. College Quarter-Hours Completed	2. Final Recruit Evaluation
3. Age	3. Acceptability as Patrol Partner Evaluation
4. Height	4. Correspondence Study Achievement Score
5. Weight	5. Advanced Trooper Achievement Score
6. Civil Service Written Score	6. Probationary Trooper Performance Ratings
7. Civil Service Oral Board Score	*7. Achievement of Civil Service Status
8. Active Military Service	*Used in second multiple regression for Ho-2 test.
9. Level of Family Responsibility	

The performance measures were selected because they appear to be the best available measures of probationary trooper performance. This conclusion was based on personal observation and study; plus numerous discussions with state policemen in the Personnel and Training Divisions, as well as other parts of the Department. 7

The selection of both predictors and performance variables, as well as the measures used in other analyses was conditioned by the requirement for interval or categorical data to facilitate statistical analysis.

The measures such as age, height, family responsibility, college quarter-hours completed, and high school percentile standing are carefully gathered and verified by the state police as a part of the background investigation or other pre-employment processing procedures.

The civil service written and oral scores are based on instruments and procedures specified by the Testing and Evaluation Division of the Michigan State Department of Civil Service.

The measures of academic performance of probationary troopers, i.e., the recruit achievement, correspondence study, and advanced trooper school scores, are

based on weighted scores on evaluations completed during these activities.

The final recruit evaluation and acceptability as a patrol partner measures, prepared by a panel of training staff members, as well as the probationary trooper performance scores, are more subjective in nature and will be discussed in more detail in a later part of the study. /

The performance measure "achievement of civil service status" is simply a success/fail measure. No attempt was made to determine the reasons for success or failure on this measure. In most cases men resigned rather than being relieved for cause.

Data Collection and Coding

The data used for the study were gathered manually from the files of the Michigan State Police and the Michigan Department of Civil Service. There were no restrictions placed upon the researcher with regard to measures used,

In cases where information was missing from the files or records a letter was dispatched to the

appropriate high school principal or college/university registrar to obtain the necessary information and/or transcript.

Predictor and performance measures plus other necessary information were gathered on each of the 225 subjects in the basic sample. The information was recorded on Data Coding Forms used by the Michigan State University computer laboratory. The services provided by the Computer Center Keypunch Division were used to keypunch and verify the information.

Analysis

Staff members of the Michigan State University, College of Education, Research Consultation Office, were contacted in the early stages of this study and assisted in developing the study design and data analysis procedures.

Assistance was also obtained from consultants at the Computer Center to develop a computer program for the multiple regressions. A "canned" program of the

Unrestricted Least Squares, STAT Series #7, for use with the Control Data Corporation 3600, was used to make the two separate analyses of the data.¹ In the first multiple regression all of the independent variables were used as predictors of each dependent variable (less achievement of civil service status). In the second regression all predictors were used to predict the single performance variable of success/fail are in achievement of civil service status. Due to an artifact of the multiple regression which was previously described, the samples consisted of 114 and 213 subjects respectively.

This computer program and analysis prepared a zero-order correlation between all variables which was used to test the first two hypotheses.

Statistical tests of the remaining six hypotheses were accomplished using conventional "t" test, and Chi-square formulas and techniques. Mathematical computations for these tests were completed by the researcher on an electronic calculator.

¹Michigan State University Agricultural Experimental Station, STAT Series Description; 7 LS, November, 1966, pp. 1-44 (Mimeographed).

Summary

A correlational study was conducted using a sample of 225 Michigan State Policemen in three separate recruit classes. The principal focus of the study was to identify relationships between formal educational background components and performance as state policemen. In addition, other pre-employment measures were used as predictors of performance measures.

Correlations were computed between nine principal independent variables based on pre-employment measures and background characteristics; and seven dependent or performance measures. In addition, statistical tests were conducted in an attempt to identify performance measure differences of men by comparing sub-samples of subjects based on formal educational experiences.

In order to complete these analyses and to generate other relevant information, two multiple regression computer programs were employed. Chi-square and t tests were also used in the hypothesis testing procedure.

This chapter provided a description of the type of study, a restatement of hypotheses, sample description,

population description and extent of generalizations,
measures employed, data collection and coding, and analysis procedures.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The principal purpose of this study was to identify significant relationships between selected elements of the formal educational backgrounds of new state policemen in the Michigan State Police vis a vis measures of achievement of departmental training objectives and on-the-job performance during their year of probationary service. In addition, the study was designed to concurrently identify significant relationships between pre-employment independent variables of age, civil service examination scores, height, weight, active military service, and level of family responsibility, vis a vis dependent variable measures of achievement of departmental training objectives and on-the-job duty performance.

In order to accomplish this, eight hypotheses were formulated for testing using conventional

statistical tests. This chapter contains the results of this analysis, plus other related information.

The chapter is organized into three principal sections. In the first section the eight previously stated hypotheses will be presented in null form and statements made concerning rejection or failure to reject them. The second section will provide a discussion of the additional information generated by the multiple regression computational programs employed. The final section is the chapter summary.

Statement of Null Hypotheses and Results of Statistical Tests

In this section each of the null hypotheses is presented, followed by a brief discussion of the results of the appropriate statistical tests. Since each of the alternative hypotheses are non-directional they are not stated explicitly.

Ho 1: There is no linear relationship between any of the predictor and performance variables listed below:

<u>Predictor Variables</u>	<u>Performance Variables</u>
1. High School Percentile Standing	1. Recruit Training Achievement Score
2. College Quarter-hours Completed	2. Final Recruit Evaluation
3. Age	3. Acceptability as Patrol Partner Evaluation
4. Height	
5. Weight	4. Correspondence Study Achievement Score
6. Civil Service Written Score	5. Advanced Trooper Achievement Score
7. Civil Service Oral Board Score	6. Probationary Trooper Performance Ratings
8. Active Military Service	
9. Level of Family Responsibility	

Analysis. Due to the large number of possible predictor/performance pair-comparisons ($6 \times 9 = 54$), it would be unduly cumbersome to present each of the sub-hypotheses contained within this omnibus hypothesis. In the interest of simplicity and clarity the individual sub-hypotheses will not be explicitly stated. The results

of all possible product-moment correlations between predictors and performance variables are presented in a correlation-matrix format in Table 5.1. The relationships which are significant at the .05 and .01 level are identified in the table by one or two asterisks respectively. The significant relationships which call for rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the non-directional alternative are also listed below:

<u>Predictor vs Performance Variables</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>Sig. Level</u>
High School Percentile vs:		
Recruit Training Achievement	.307	< .01
Correspondence Study Achievement	.243	< .01
Advanced Trooper Achievement	.290	< .01
College Quarter-Hours vs:		
Recruit Training Achievement	.386	< .01
Correspondence Study Achievement	.373	< .01
Advanced Trooper Achievement	.307	< .01
Age vs Correspondence Study Achievement	.198	< .05
Height vs Recruit Training Achievement	-.241	< .01
Civil Service Written Score vs:		
Recruit Training Achievement	.257	< .01
Correspondence Study Achievement	.220	< .05
Final Recruit Evaluation	.183	< .05

<u>Predictor vs Performance Variables</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>Sig. Level</u>
Civil Service Oral Review Score vs:		
Recruit Training Achievement	-.209	< .05
Active Military Service vs:		
Advanced Trooper Achievement	-.188	< .05
Level of Family Responsibility vs:		
Probationary Trooper Performance Rating	.191	< .05

Since a total of fifty-four tests were completed it is probable that two or three of the relationships found to be significant in this test occurred by chance due to Type I error.

In addition, since the magnitude of correlation coefficients vary with the degree of heterogeneity of the sample,¹ the restriction caused by use of height, weight, age, and civil service scores as selection criteria may cause the correlations to be relative low compared to the correlations that would be found in a population unrestricted on this dimension.

¹Quinn McNemar, Psychological Statistics (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1969), p. 162.

TABLE 5.1. Zero-order correlations between predictor and criterion variables. N = 114

	Recruit Achievement	Corre- spondence Study	Advanced Trooper	Final Rct. Evaluation	Accept. as Partner	Proba- tionary ratings
High School Percentile	.307**	.234*	.290**	.152	.120	.086
College Quarter- Hours	.386**	.373**	.307**	.182	.122	.013
Age	.080	.198*	-.018	.014	.040	.072
Height	-.241**	.027	-.071	.101	.118	.063
Weight	-.180	-.095	-.052	-.065	-.014	.024
Civil Service Written Score	.257**	.220*	.176	.183*	-.031	.056
Civil Service Oral Board	-.209*	.030	-.066	.133	.145	-.106
Active Military Service	-.146	-.055	-.188*	-.104	-.107	-.070
Level of Family Responsibility	.114	-.066	.046	-.020	.051	.191*

Correlations rounded to nearest .001

*r > .183 represents significance level < .05

**r > .241 represents significance level < .01

CRITERION VARIABLESPREDICTORS

This latter problem of depressed correlation coefficients is compounded by the fact that men who experience academic difficulty in recruit training frequently resign or are released involuntarily and are thus dropped from the sample due to the nature of the multiple regression analysis. Since the recruit training achievement score is significantly correlated with subsequent measures of performance as shown in Table 5.2, the deletion of men who are marginal performers would likely also reduce the correlations with the subsequent measures.

In addition, if one accepts the premise that the recruit training staff is able to identify accurately men who will be poor performers on-the-job, as a recent New York City study seems to indicate,² and marginal performers are encouraged to resign or are eliminated involuntarily, this will tend to reduce the correlations of the predictors and probationary trooper performance ratings due to restriction of range of this dependent variable. The actual correlations in each of these cases would no doubt be higher if the entire population were used.

²Bernard Cohen and Jan Chaiken, Police Background Characteristics and Performance (New York: The New York City Rand Institute, 1972), pp. 156-157.

TABLE 5.2. Zero-order correlations between criterion variables. N = 114

	Recruit Tng. Achievement	Final Recruit Evaluation	Accept. as Partner	Correspond. Study	Advanced Trooper
Final Recruit Evaluation	.327**				
Acceptability as Patrol Partner	.217*	.807**			
Correspondence Study Achievement	.525**	.215*	.211*		
Advanced Trooper Achievement	.683**	.101	.019	.522**	
Probationary Trooper Ratings	.113	.198*	.225*	.038	.170

Correlations round to nearest .001

*r > .183 represents significance level < .05

**r > .241 represents significance level < .01

Ho 2: There is no linear relationship between successful achievement of civil service status and the following predictor variables:

1. High School Percentile Standing
2. College quarter-hours Completed
3. Age
4. Height
5. Weight
6. Civil Service Written Score
7. Civil Service Oral Board Score
8. Active Military Service
9. Level of Family Responsibility

Analysis. Results of this test are presented in Table 5.3. Again in the interest of simplicity the various sub-hypotheses will not be explicitly stated. The correlation coefficients at the .05 and .01 significance levels, which would call for rejection of that portion of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the non-directional alternative, are identified in the table.

TABLE 5.3. Zero-order correlations between predictors and achievement of civil service status. N = 213

	r with achievement of civil service status
High School Percentile Standing	.130
College Quarter-hours Completed	.251**
Age	-.127
Height	.039
Weight	.084
Civil Service Written Score	.075
Civil Service Oral Review Score	.194**
Active Military Service	-.037
Level of Family Responsibility	.169*

Correlations rounded to nearest .001

*r > represents significance level < .05

**r > represents significance level < .01

Ho 3: There is no difference in achievement of civil service status when men who graduate from publicly operated high schools are compared with men who graduate from privately operated high schools.

The distribution of subjects in this sample, based on the public/private high school graduation and success/failure in achieving civil service status is reflected in Table 5.4.

Analysis. At the .05 level of significance the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The statistical test used with this hypothesis was a chi-square 2 X 2 contingency test. The calculated chi-square value of 1.97 did not exceed the tabled value (the chi-square tabled value with one degree of freedom at the .05 level of significance is equal to 3.84).

TABLE 5.4. Distribution of subjects by public/private high school graduates and success/failure in achieving civil service status.

	Public School	Private School
Successful in achieving civil service status	95	17
Failed to achieve civil service status	84	8
Total N = 204		

Ho 4: There is no difference in achievement of civil service status when men who complete high school through regular graduation are compared with men who graduate through evening school or obtain educational equivalency through GED or similar programs.

The distribution of subjects in this sample based on GED/regular high school graduation and success/failure in achieving civil service status is reflected in Table 5.5.

Analysis. At the .05 level of significance the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The statistical test used with this hypothesis was a chi-square 2 X 2 contingency test. The calculated chi-square value of .003 did not exceed the tabled value (the chi-square tabled value with one degree of freedom at the .05 level of significance is equal to 3.84).

Ho 5: There is no difference in recruit training achievement scores attained by men with college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other related courses,

when compared with men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such educational experiences.

TABLE 5.5. Distribution of subjects by GED/regular high school graduation and success/failure in achieving civil service status.

	GED Graduates	Regular Graduates
Successful in achieving civil service status	4	28
Failure to achieve civil service status	8	54
Total N = 94		

A comparison of the means of recruit achievement scores using a t test was employed with this hypothesis. The means and standard deviations of these groups are presented in Table 5.6.

Analysis. At the .05 level of significance the null hypothesis was not rejected. The calculated t value of .434 did not exceed the tabled t value (t value with thirty degrees of freedom at the .05 level of significance is equal to 2.04).

TABLE 5.6. Recruit training achievement means and standard deviations based on criminal justice college program content categories.

	N	$\bar{X}$	SD
Subjects with 20 or more hours of criminal justice type courses	9	85.06	3.52
Subjects with less than 20 hours of criminal justice type courses	23	84.46	3.50
Total	32		

Ho 6: There is no difference in probationary trooper ratings attained by men with college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other related courses, when compared with men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such educational experiences.

A comparison of the means of probationary trooper ratings using a t test was employed with this hypothesis. The means and standard deviations of these groups are presented in Table 5.7.

Analysis. At the .05 level of significance the null hypothesis was rejected. The calculated t value

of -2.31 exceeded the tabled value (t value with thirty degrees of freedom at the .05 level of significance is equal to 2.04).

TABLE 5.7. Probationary trooper rating score means and standard deviations based on criminal justice college program content categories.

	N	$\bar{X}$	SD
Men with 20 or more hours of criminal justice type courses	9	115.22	19.12
Men with less than 20 hours of criminal justice type courses	22	135.05	26.96
Total	31		

Ho 7: There is no difference in achievement of civil service status when men with college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other directly related courses are compared with men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such educational experience.

The distribution of subjects in this sample based on more/less than 19.5 college quarter-hours of criminal justice type courses in their college programs and success/failure in achievement of civil service status is presented in Table 5.8.

Analysis. At the .05 level of significance the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The statistical test used with this hypothesis was a 2 X 2 contingency test. The calculated chi-square value of 3.61 did not exceed the tabled chi-square value (the chi-square tabled value with one degree of freedom at the .05 level of significance is equal to 3.84).

TABLE 5.8. Distribution of subjects by high/low criminal justice college program content and success/failure in achieving civil service status.

	More than 19.5 hours	Less than 19.5 hours
Successful in achieving civil service status	9	22
Failure in achieving civil service status	1	6
Total N = 38		

Ho 8: There is no difference in achievement of civil service status when men who successfully completed at least eighty-five college quarter-hours are compared with men with a lower level of formal education.

The distribution of subjects in this sample based on educational level of above/below 84.5 college quarter-hours and success/failure in achieving civil service status is presented in Table 5.9.

Analysis. At the .05 level of significance the null hypothesis was rejected. The statistical test used with this hypothesis was a 2 X 2 contingency test. The calculated chi-square value of 12.007 exceeded the tabled chi-square value (the chi-square tabled value with one degree of freedom at the .05 level of significance is equal to 3.84).

TABLE 5.9. Distribution of subjects by completion of more/less than 84.5 college quarter-hours and success/failure in achieving civil service status.

	More than 84.5 hours	Less than 84.5 hours
Successful in achieving civil service status	40	78
Failure to achieve civil service status	15	92
Total N = 225		

Analysis of the Multiple Regressions

The two multiple regression programs provided relevant information beyond that required for hypothesis testing. This information will be presented in this section. The first multiple regression program used the nine basic independent variables presented earlier to predict each of the six basic dependent variables. In the second multiple regression program the nine predictors were used to predict the success/failure in achieving civil service status. Each of the dependent or

performance variables will be considered and explained separately.

Recruit Training Achievement Score. The relationships between this performance variable and the nine predictor variables are summarized in Table 5.10. The best predictors of this performance measure were college quarter-hours completed, civil service oral review score (negative correlation), height (negative correlation), and level of family responsibility, in that order. Only the first two predictors were at the .05 level of significance but the R was significant at the .0005 level so the total equation would be valuable in making predictions. The R^2 of .333 indicates that one-third of the variance in this dependent variable is "explained" by the combination of these predictor variables. The R or multiple correlation of .577 is considered high for a study of this type and is the highest predictor/performance correlation in this study.

Final Recruit Evaluation. The relationship between this performance variable and the nine predictors are summarized in Table 5.11. None of the predictors are significant at the .05 level, nor is the multiple

TABLE 5.10. Recruit Training Achievement. Summary of relationships with predictors listed in order (from positive to negative by partial correlations).

R = .577	R ² = .333	N = 114	P = .0005
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	Beta Weight	Sig. Level	Partial R	R ² Delete	% Change
College Quarter-Hours	+.366	.001	.328	.253	8.0%
Level of Family Responsibility	+.167	.092	.164	.314	1.9%
CS Written Exam	+.150	.096	.162	.315	1.8%
Age	+.069	.467	.071	.330	.3%
HS Percentile	+.064	.506	.065	.330	.3%
Active Military Service	-.043	.655	-.044	.331	.1%
Weight	-.131	.156	-.139	.320	1.3%
Height	-.165	.067	-.179	.311	2.2%
CS Oral Review	-.190	.029	-.212	.301	3.1%

Rounded to nearest .001 when appropriate.

TABLE 5.11. Final Recruit Evaluation. Summary of relationships with predictors listed in order (from positive to negative by partial correlations).

R = .307	R ² = .094	N = 114	P = .228
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	Beta Weight	Sig. Level	Partial R	R ² Delete	% Change
CS Written Exam	+.141	.177	.132	.078	1.6%
CS Oral Review	+.135	.181	.131	.078	1.6%
Height	+.118	.258	.111	.083	1.1%
College Quarter-Hours	+.083	.495	.067	.090	.4%
HS Percentile	+.069	.541	.060	.091	.0%
Level of Family Responsibility	+.049	.669	.042	.093	.0%
Age	+.023	.831	.021	.094	.0%
Active Military Service	-.042	.703	-.037	.093	.0%
Weight	-.145	.176	-.132	.078	1.6%

Rounded to nearest .001 when appropriate.

correlation. This leads one to the conclusion that it is not possible to predict this performance variable using this combination of predictors.

Acceptability as Patrol Partner. The relationships between this performance variable and the nine predictors are summarized in Table 5.12. None of the predictors are significant at the .05 level, nor was the total R. It is therefore not possible to predict this performance variable using this set of predictors.

Correspondence Study Achievement. The relationships between this performance variable and the nine predictors are summarized in Table 5.13. The predictors of college quarter-hours and age were by far the best predictors of this performance variable and both were significant below the .05 level. Since the R was also significant at the .002 level, these combined variables should be useful in predicting this criterion variable.

Advanced Trooper Achievement. The relationships between this performance variable and the nine predictors are summarized in Table 5.14. Only college quarter-hours are significant below the .05 level of significance. The total R is also significant below the .05 level.

TABLE 5.12. Acceptability as Patrol Partner. Summary of relationships with predictors listed in order (from positive to negative by partial correlations).

R = .272	R ² = .074	N = 114		P = .51	
	Beta Weight	Sig. Level	Partial R	R ² Delete	% Change
Height	+.144	.172	.133	.057	1.7%
CS Oral Review	+.126	.217	.121	.060	1.4%
HS Percentile	+.095	.401	.082	.068	.6%
College Quarter- Hours	+.095	.438	.076	.086	.5%
Level of Family Responsibility	+.070	.545	.059	.071	.3%
Age	+.054	.628	.048	.072	.2%
Active Military Service	-.054	.631	-.047	.072	.2%
Weight	-.091	.398	-.083	.067	.6%
CS Written Exam	-.091	.391	-.084	.067	.6%

Rounded to nearest .001 when appropriate.

TABLE 5.13. Correspondence Study Achievement. Summary of relationships with predictors listed in order (from positive to negative by partial correlations).

R = .468 R² = .219 N = 114 P = .002

	Beta Weight	Sig. Level	Partial R	R ² Delete	% Change
College Quarter-Hours	+.292	.011	.247	.168	5.1%
Age	+.236	.022	.222	.179	4.1%
HS Percentile	+.135	.197	.126	.206	1.3%
Height	+.084	.386	.085	.213	.6%
CS Written Exam	+.066	.496	.067	.215	.4%
Active Military Service	+.008	.938	.008	.219	.0%
CS Oral Review	-.028	.767	-.029	.218	.0%
Level of Family Responsibility	-.055	.606	-.051	.217	.2%
Weight	-.133	.182	-.131	.205	1.4%

Rounded to nearest .001 when appropriate.

TABLE 5.14. Advanced Trooper Achievement. Summary of relationships with predictors listed in order (from positive to negative by partial correlations).

R = .391	R ² = .153	N = 114	P = .037
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	Beta Weight	Sig. Level	Partial R	R ² Delete	% Change
College Quarter-Hours	+.233	.048	.192	.120	3.3%
HS Percentile	+.150	.169	.135	.137	1.6%
CS Written Exam	+.065	.521	.063	.150	.3%
Level of Family Responsibility	+.067	.547	.059	.150	.3%
Age	-.0003	.997	.000	.153	.0%
Weight	-.023	.828	-.021	.153	.0%
Height	-.054	.588	-.053	.151	.2%
Active Military Service	-.074	.493	-.067	.149	.4%
CS Oral Review	-.069	.477	-.070	.149	.4%

Rounded to nearest .001 when appropriate.

Probationary Trooper Performance Ratings. The relationship between this performance variable and the nine predictors are summarized in Table 5.15. It appears that none of the variables predict this performance measure and none approach the .05 level of significance, nor is the total R significant. This performance criterion apparently cannot be predicted using this combination of predictors.

Achievement of Civil Service Status. The relationships between this performance variable and the nine predictors are summarized in Table 5.16. The best predictors of this performance measure appear to be college quarter-hours, age (negative correlation), family responsibility and civil service oral score, in that order. These predictors are all significant below the .05 level. In addition, the total R is significant at the .001 level which indicates that this combination of variables would be useful in predicting this performance variable.

Summary

Chapter V was a presentation of the findings of the study in narrative and tabular form.

TABLE 5.15. Probationary Trooper Performance. Summary of relationships with predictors listed in order (from positive to negative by partial correlations).

R = .250	R ² = .063	N = 114	P = .642		
	Beta Weight	Sig. Level	Partial R	R ² Delete	% Change
Level of Family Responsibility	+.178	.846	.148	.042	2.1%
Height	+.097	.359	.090	.055	.8%
Age	+.061	.583	.054	.060	.3%
CS Written Exam	+.049	.646	.045	.061	.2%
College Quarter-Hours	+.024	.846	.019	.062	.0%
HS Percentile	+.010	.928	.009	.063	.3%
Weight	-.042	.701	-.038	.061	.1%
Active Military Service	-.070	.539	-.060	.060	.4%
CS Oral Review	-.100	.328	-.096	.054	.9%

Rounded to nearest .001 when appropriate.

TABLE 5.16. Achievement of Civil Service Status. Summary of relationships with predictors listed in order (from positive to negative by partial correlations).

R = .356	$R^2 = .127$	N = 213	P = .001
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	Beta Weight	Sig. Level	Partial R	R^2 Delete	% Change
College Quarter-Hours	+.274	.001	.231	.078	4.9%
Level of Family Responsibility	+.177	.025	.156	.105	2.2%
CS Oral Review	+.138	.047	.139	.110	1.7%
Active Military Service	+.133	.077	.124	.113	1.4%
Weight	+.059	.429	.056	.124	.3%
Height	+.017	.821	.016	.127	.0%
CS Written Exam	+.009	.898	.009	.127	.3%
HS Percentile	-.005	.952	.004	.127	.0%
Age	-.218	.006	-.190	.094	.3%

Rounded to nearest .001 when appropriate.

Within the first hypothesis (Ho 1) it was found that there were significant linear relationships at the .05 level of significance between fourteen of the possible fifty-four pair-comparisons. This allowed rejection of the fourteen null sub-hypotheses related to these comparisons.

Within the second hypothesis (Ho 2) it was found that there were linear relationships at the .05 level of significance between three of the possible nine pair-comparisons. This allowed rejection of the three null sub-hypotheses related to these comparisons.

The third null hypothesis (Ho 3) could not be rejected at the .05 level of significance. Statistical analysis did not confirm differences in achievement of civil service status between public/private high school graduates.

The fourth hypothesis (Ho 4) could not be rejected at the .05 level of significance. Statistical analysis did not confirm differences in achievement of civil service status between GED/regular high school graduates.

The fifth hypothesis (Ho 5) could not be rejected at the .05 level of significance. Statistical analysis

did not confirm differences in recruit training achievement scores between men with high/low content of criminal justice quarter-hours in their college programs.

The sixth hypothesis (Ho 6) was rejected at the .05 level of significance. Statistical analysis confirmed a significant difference in probationary trooper performance ratings between men with high/low content of criminal justice quarter-hours in their college programs.

The seventh hypothesis (Ho 7) could not be rejected at the .05 level of significance. Statistical analysis did not confirm a difference in achievement of civil service status between men with high/low content of criminal justice quarter/hours in their college programs.

The eighth hypothesis (Ho 8) was rejected at the .05 level of significance. Statistical analysis confirmed a significant difference in achievement of civil service status between men who had successfully completed more/less than 84.5 college quarter-hours.

This chapter also contains information about multiple and partial correlations between predictor/performance variables plus other information about these relationships.

The multiple linear regression programs which were employed generated the zero-order correlations used for testing the first two hypotheses. In addition, the technique identified the contribution of each of the nine independent variables in explaining a later pattern of performance, while controlling for the contribution of the remaining background variables. In other words, the strength of each independent variable as a predictor of performance was determined.

The results of these regressions were presented in tabular form in Tables 5.10 thru 5.16 and an explanation was given by identifying each dependent variable and explaining the contribution of selected independent variables in predicting the performance measure.

As a summary of the results of these analyses it seems appropriate to look at the regressions from the other side of the predictor/performance interface, i.e., to take each predictor variable individually and state which performance variables it serves to predict at the .05 level of significance, based on its partial correlation within each regression formula. Exact significance levels are also given when appropriate.

This is followed by an explanation of the multiple correlation of the combined predictors which represents the ability of these combined independent variables to predict each of the performance variables. Again only the multiple correlations which represent a significance level at or below the .05 level are presented.

Individual predictors vs performance measures.

High school percentile standing--This variable did not predict any of the performance measures at the .05 level of significance.

College quarter-hours completed--This variable predicted recruit training achievement (.001 level), correspondence study achievement (.01 level), advanced trooper achievement (.048 level), and achievement of civil service status (.001 level).

Age--This variable served to predict correspondence study achievement (.022 level), and achievement of civil service status (.006 level, with negative partial correlation).

Height--This variable did not predict any of the performance measures at the .05 level of significance.

Weight--This variable did not predict any of the performance measures at the .05 level of significance.

Civil Service written score--This variable did not predict any of the performance measures at the .05 level of significance.

Civil Service oral review score--This variable predicted recruit training achievement (.029 level, with negative partial correlation), and achievement of civil service status (0.47 level).

Active military service--This variable did not predict any of the performance measures at the .05 level of significance.

Level of family responsibility--This variable predicted achievement of civil service status (.025 level).

The combination of the nine independent variables as predictors in a regression formula served to predict

recruit training achievement (.0005 level), correspondence study achievement (.037 level) and achievement of civil service status (.001 level).

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter previous chapters are summarized, principal conclusions are listed, discussion of the research is presented, and implications for future research and practice are stated.

Summary

Chapter I contained a discussion of the purpose of the study, the study setting, research hypotheses, and definition of terms. The critical need for improvement of law enforcement and the overall impact of crime on the quality of life in the United States was considered. The relationship of improved police personnel practices and policies to improvement of the law enforcement function was also discussed.

The expenditure of millions of dollars annually for police education, without supporting research, was given as an important reason for this study which attempts to identify relationships between formal educational backgrounds and police duty performance.

A brief history of the Michigan State Police was provided, as well as a discussion of the various activities of state troopers during their year of probationary service.

The following research hypotheses were formulated and presented in Chapter I:

H-1: There is a significant linear relationship between each of the probationary trooper criterion or performance measures and: 1) percentile standing in high school graduating class, 2) number of college quarter-hours successfully completed, 3) written and oral test scores on pre-employment civil service tests, 4) age at start of recruit training, 5) height, 6) body weight at commencement of recruit training, 7) level of family responsibility, and 8) active military service.

H-2: There is a significant linear relationship between successful achievement of civil service status and: 1) percentile standing in high school graduating class, 2) number of college quarter-hours successfully completed, 3) written and oral test scores on pre-employment civil service evaluations, 4) age at commencement of recruit training, 5) height, 6) body weight at commencement of recruit training, 7) level of family responsibility, and 8) active military service.

H-3: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who graduate from publicly operated high schools are compared with men who graduate from privately operated schools.

H-4: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who complete high school through regular graduation are compared with men who graduate through evening school or obtain educational equivalency through GED or similar programs.

H-5: Men who participate in college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration,

and other related courses attain significantly different recruit achievement scores than men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such experiences.

H-6: Men who participate in college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other related courses attain significantly different probationary trooper ratings than men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such experiences.

H-7: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who participate in college programs with a high content of criminal justice, police administration, and other directly related courses are compared with men with equivalent levels of education who did not have such experiences.

H-8: There is a significant difference in achievement of civil service status when men who successfully complete at least eighty-five college quarter-hours are compared with men with a lower level of formal education.

Chapter II provided a brief historical sketch of early American law enforcement in order to furnish some insight into the milieu into which law enforcement education and training emerged in the latter part of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century.

The early linkages between law enforcement education and training and institutions of higher education were described and the principal legislative acts which supported and encouraged improved education and training for police were presented.

Chapter III provided a review of the literature reporting studies which have attempted in a systematic way to establish relationships between pre-employment information and police duty performance. The opinions and comments of knowledgeable persons about educational standards for police were also included in that chapter.

Chapter IV explained the type of study and contained a restatement of the original eight hypotheses. The sample employed, and the population and extent of generalization of the findings were also presented. The measures employed, data collection and coding, and an

explanation of the analyses used were also contained in that chapter.

Chapter V was devoted to presentation of the analysis of data and results of statistical testing. This was accomplished by stating each hypothesis in null form followed by an analysis of the statistical test results. A separate section was devoted to an explanation of the information generated by the multiple regressions beyond the information required for hypothesis testing.

Tests of the eight hypotheses yielded the following results at the .05 level of significance:

H-1: There is a significant linear relationship between the following predictors and performance variables:

High school percentile standing vs:

Recruit training achievement
Correspondence study achievement
Advanced trooper achievement

College quarter-hours vs:

Recruit training achievement
Correspondence study achievement
Advanced trooper achievement

Age vs correspondence study achievement

Height vs recruit training achievement (negative correlation)

Civil service written score vs:

Recruit training achievement

Correspondence study achievement

Final recruit evaluation

Civil service oral review score vs:

Recruit training achievement (negative correlation)

Active military service vs:

Advanced trooper achievement (negative correlation)

Level of family responsibility vs:

Probationary trooper performance rating

H-2: There is a significant linear relationship between the following performance and predictor variables:

Achievement of civil service status vs:

College quarter-hours completed

Civil service oral review board

Level of family responsibility

H-3: The difference between public/private high school graduates in achieving civil service status was not significant.

H-4: The difference between GED certificate holders and regular high school graduates in achieving civil service status was not significant.

H-5: The difference in recruit training achievement between men with high/low criminal justice course content college programs was not significant.

H-6: The difference in probationary trooper ratings between men with high/low criminal justice course content college programs was significant.

H-7: The difference in achievement of civil service status between men with high/low criminal justice course content in college programs was not significant.

H-8: A significant difference in achievement of civil service status was found when men with above/below 84.5 college quarter-hours were compared.

Conclusions

Background characteristics, and more specifically components of educational experience, should be useful in

predicting training achievement and duty performance in the Michigan State Police. Of the predictors employed in the study "college quarter-hours completed" appears to be the best overall predictor of training achievement, based on partial correlations within the regression equations. Using the combined predictors it is possible to predict with relative accuracy the training achievement measures, but only "level of family responsibility" was significantly correlated (using the zero-order correlation) with probationary trooper ratings. When level of family responsibility is included in a regression equation with the other independent variables to predict probationary trooper performance the partial correlation is not significant at the .05 level.

The partial correlations of college quarter-hours, level of family responsibility, and civil service oral scores are significant at the .05 level when employed in a regression equation with the other six basic predictors to predict achievement of civil service status. Age was also significant at the .05 level in this regression equation but the correlation was negative.

A multiple correlation at the .05 level of significance was found between the nine combined predictor variables and scores on the following performance measures: 1) recruit training achievement, 2) correspondence study achievement, 3) advanced trooper achievement, and 4) achievement of civil service status. This indicates that this combination of independent variables would be useful in predicting these dependent variable measures.

Discussion

In one sense the long-range goal of all sciences is prediction. This is not to say, however, that one is not interested in formulation of theories which explain causal relationships between two or more variables. It is also fitting to say that prediction serves to assist one in understanding why two or more variables are interrelated in a certain way and prediction becomes more accurate to the degree to which understanding is perfected. If the relationship is understood completely then perfect prediction would no doubt follow; if one assumes access to

certain factual information. The processes are therefore mutually supporting.

In the social sciences predictive statements are commonly rather crude when compared to the other so-called "pure sciences." This may frequently be attributed to the facts that definitions are imprecise and the disciplines in question have not reached an interval-scale level of gauging predictor and performance measures. Through use of an interval-scale it is possible to describe more accurately how one variable varies with one or several other variables. Given the restrictions now faced by the social sciences it is difficult to infer causality.

There is still a serious question concerning the locus of law enforcement on the continuum between vocation and profession. Judgment in this matter is frequently a function of self-interest of the respondent. With reference to the question of information-based personnel policies and practices, law enforcement appears to be in the early stage of discovering relationships between variables in a rather crude sort of way. A great deal of study is needed before it will be possible to move to the stage of

understanding the meaning of most relationships to the point which will permit perfect prediction.

In the area of personnel selection one cannot wait for "final answers" but must make full use of all available information in order to improve the decision-making process. The success or failure of law enforcement, as well as the entire system of criminal justice, is inextricably related to individual competence--an effective selection process is therefore a matter of immediate necessity. If the methods employed to choose police candidates fail to accurately differentiate between potential police officers with reference to competence and ability, the organization will be ineffective. The quality of service delivered by a law enforcement agency cannot transcend the quality of its personnel.

For approximately seventy years police agencies in the United States have established physical, mental, and personality standards to deny entry to persons that are "unqualified." Numerous forms of personality inventories and mental ability tests have been employed to establish this screen to protect law enforcement agencies and the public from the "unfit." There has been little effort to

validate these measures by careful and objective consideration of the relationships between pre-employment information and on-the-job police performance.

The early use of mental ability or intelligence tests led to the use of personality inventories when it was found that other variables were apparently present and estimates of mental ability alone was of limited value in predicting police performance.

Personality inventories became popular as a screening mechanism and these were blindly accepted by many police administrators in spite of the absence of meaningful evidence of validity. Police administrators have apparently been impressed by the "scientific" appearance of such tests and continued to use them without serious question until the inventories were challenged in court due to civil rights proceedings. Several legal precedents have not been established which prohibit the use of selection criteria which appear unrelated to successful duty performance and which may tend to be discriminatory.

Upon being forced to validate selection criteria many police agencies found that there was little if any positive relationship between pre-employment mental

ability or personality inventories and duty performance. In the process of seeking alternate tools for selection of personnel some law enforcement agencies have turned to individual background characteristics.

This is obviously not a radically new approach since police departments have generally gathered background information on a candidate's employment record, arrest record, educational background, participation in school activities, ability to get along with others, etc. This information is normally evaluated by an investigator and an oral appraisal board as a part of the selection process. The new dimension of this selection model is that some police agencies are attempting to quantify biographical information and use it in a more rational way to predict police performance. The use of background characteristics, therefore, rests upon a solid base of long-term practical application but also takes advantage of advancing computer technology and the statistical procedures which this technology permits. If the use of such a model can be validated in police agencies at all levels it should greatly improve the overall police selection process.

Evidence has been mounting in the past three to five years that seems to indicate that the systematic use of background information might prove valuable in refining police selection procedures. This study has been an effort to provide additional data to support the use of these emerging practices in a state police agency.

In general terms the results of this study tend to confirm the findings of recent investigations which used education and other background information as predictors. Quite obviously the findings of the study cannot be generalized beyond the Michigan State Police but as subsequent studies are completed it should be possible to formulate tentative theories of personnel selection which are applicable across several agencies.

Implications for Future Research and Practice

This study has focused upon formal educational background characteristics of Michigan State Policemen as predictors of training achievement and duty performance. The regression equations reveal that a great deal of

variance of performance measures is "unexplained" when the combined predictors which were used in this study are employed. Future researchers might profitably choose other background information such as traffic record, evaluation by background investigators, internal family relationships, past leadership roles, work record, court appearances, etc. By combining other predictors with the stronger predictors identified in this study it may be possible to significantly improve prediction. In addition, selected personality inventories and/or mental ability tests might also serve to improve predictive validity and "fill the gaps" in a prediction model based primarily on the use of background characteristics.

Another logical extension of this research would be a longitudinal study of the men in this sample to determine the relationships between the predictors and performance measures used in this investigation and subsequent performance measures. Such measures might include commendations, promotions, sick leave days taken, citizen complaints against officers, resignation, etc. This would provide additional objective measures of duty performance after officers were given civil service status.

Since the Michigan State Police is in the process of developing a new trooper performance rating system it might be desirable to employ the sample used in this study as a "pilot" group for validation of this new system.

Since this study brings one to the threshold of actually making predictions of the performance of future probationary troopers, an extension of this research might use the data gathered to develop a prediction formula and test the accuracy of predictions by applying the formula to future probationary officers. This procedure is clearly explained in Police Background Characteristics and Performance.¹

Research is needed to develop a more flexible model for police selection. Many law enforcement personnel tend to look upon personnel selection criteria as being independent or mutually exclusive. A moment's reflection, however, will reveal that this is not true. In the present study it was found that height was not positively correlated with any of the performance measures. Individual height, like other physical characteristics,

¹Cohen, op. cit., pp. 127-134.

is normally distributed. The average height of American males in the age group eligible for employment as Michigan state troopers is approximately 5'9". A rigid height standard at 5'9" therefore excludes from consideration half of all male college graduates, half the men with good work records, half the men with leadership experience, and half the men with many desirable traits or characteristics; if one assumes no correlation between height and these measures.

This is not to say that height standards should be abandoned entirely. As pointed out earlier, one can only speculate upon the performance of men below this range. It does seem reasonable, however, to seek more flexibility in selection criteria. At the risk of shocking educators one might even consider a personnel selection model which would allow a trade-off of one inch in height for a college degree, if a candidate met other selection criteria. Since the area between these two heights beneath the normal curve (5'8" to 5'9") would be at the peak of the curve, such a change would allow recruitment access to a much larger group of college graduates as well as men

with most other characteristics are considered to be important.

Since education appears to be more predictive of training achievement and duty performance than height, and the concept of the "super-male" policeman is being seriously challenged, an objective look at the relationships between the various selection criteria and duty performance deserves a great deal more research to explore the options available and their advantages and disadvantages..

Since several studies seem to indicate that men with college experience are above-average performers, the Michigan State Police might consider the feasibility of actions which would increase the number of men with such backgrounds. Based on the results of the present study it appears that men who meet all other selection criteria and have successfully completed two years of college are much more likely to successfully meet probationary performance standards and achieve civil service status. An increased input of men in this category should result in a significant monetary savings by reducing the attrition rate during the probationary year of service. Recruitment

incentives might be in the form of higher pay, but might also include special consideration for job assignment and promotion. The Department might also consider ways in which troopers can be encouraged to continue their education after appointment. As an initial step, a survey of the attitudes of men within the Department toward such a policy change seems in order.

Analysis of the multiple regression used to test the first hypothesis revealed that there is not a significant correlation between the probationary trooper ratings and the predictor variables employed in this study.

Senior members of the Michigan State Police, and others with relevant knowledge and expertise, were contracted and two possible explanations for this lack of correlation were posited:

- 1). Since men are rated on ten separate performance measures ranging from appearance to judgment (see Appendix D, p. 294), the ratings on one measure might tend to offset ratings on the others. The composite rating used in the first regression, which summed across performance measures and the

nine monthly rating periods, might have limited meaning.

- 2) The composite ratings for the nine months are too subjective. When men first arrive at their assigned posts they are initially rated objectively but once they are "one of the team" and become friends with their supervisors the well-known "halo effect" will distort the ratings. Use of the first monthly rating should provide a more valid measure of performance.

A computer program was developed to test informally these hypotheses. Zero-order correlations between the ten performance measures, the composite ratings for the first month, and the composite nine-month rating scores were computed. Another regression program was also used to predict the first monthly probationary trooper score. The results did not appear to support these explanations, so the reasons for the lack of correlation between the probationary trooper ratings and the predictor variables remains unexplained. Since this rating should be the best available measure of on-the-job performance, additional

research is needed to attempt to explain these relationships.

The recent increased input of men with higher levels of education into police agencies apparently has advantages, but this situation has also caused some unexpected problems. As an example, the attrition rates of men with higher educational levels has been higher than for other members of those agencies. This does not appear to be the case with the Michigan State Police. Additional study is needed to determine why this is not also true with the Michigan State Police. Such research should also serve to identify incipient or potential problems in this area so they might be dealt with or prevented through timely administrative action.

Since this study is in many ways exploratory, it has only touched upon the differences in duty performance of men with college programs with a high content of criminal justice type courses. The sample used in the present study was small and the reliability of the probationary trooper rating is questionable, as indicated earlier. Additional study is called for to evaluate the use of

college program content in predicting training achievement and duty performance.

The findings of this study regarding the utility of pre-employment criminal justice educational experiences appear to suggest that such a background provides little benefit to Michigan state policemen during the probationary year of service.

Research is needed to critically examine the present system of law enforcement professional education and consider the feasibility of a new model. One possibility is the model which the armed forces have employed for many years. The armed forces do not employ a "front-loaded" educational program for its officers but rather a model involving continuing professional education over an entire career of twenty to thirty years.

As an example, the armed forces would not attempt to teach second lieutenants the skills and competencies which are needed when one rises to the rank of general. There are several reasons for this arrangement. A few of the more apparent are: 1) In a society characterized by rapid change and development of new knowledge the majority of the competencies gained would be outmoded after

approximately twenty years when the armed forces officer becomes eligible for promotion to general. 2) An individual will have forgotten or lost the proficiency in the skills gained so early in their career after such a lapse in time. 3) A great deal of money, time, and effort, would be wasted in generating skills which are never needed since only a small number of officers will become generals. 4) Such training and education creates unrealistic expectations which are unlikely to be fulfilled for many years (if ever).

There is an immediate need to evaluate the present criminal justice educational model which provides a "preparation" that may in fact be a handicap in the early stages of a law enforcement career.

Present university-based law enforcement curricula frequently appear to assume that its graduates will quickly rise to top administrative jobs in the agencies which they join. This is obviously not feasible when one considers the number of criminal justice graduates which are being produced at the present time and this rather obvious fact cannot be long ignored.

The performance measures used in this study reflect internal departmental standards rather than an evaluation by the citizens being served. Research is needed which provides for greater citizen and/or external evaluative input.

Research is needed to understand better the type of individual that resigns during the year of probationary service to determine if men who are potentially outstanding state troopers are resigning. In other words, are the proper men being eliminated, and if not, what changes should be made in response to this problem. Since most men resign during recruit school it seems logical to focus upon this portion of the first year of service.

As additional black and other minority officers are recruited, studies should be initiated to determine if there are differences in their background characteristics and their relationships to duty performance, when compared with the majority group of state policemen.

The most progressive law enforcement agencies are now becoming aware of the importance of computer-based information systems in providing necessary data to effectively perform the basic management functions in the

emerging period which some have called the "information revolution."

This study should provide information about the relationships between pre-employment background information and on-the-job performance which should serve the immediate and practical purpose of refining the police selection process. In addition, the study will hopefully serve a broader purpose by demonstrating that a great deal of useful information is presently available in the files of every law enforcement agency which could be utilized in making important personnel management decisions. Study is sorely needed to develop data systems that pull together all the bits of relevant information and integrate them into a more meaningful and useful form.

This study has of course been severely limited by the time and resources available. It appears that the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration should provide funding for research which would carefully study the police selection criteria now employed and their relationship to duty performance.

Comprehensive studies are needed to validate selection criteria in law enforcement agencies at the

federal, state, county, and municipal levels. In spite of the considerable funds which the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration controls, the recently issued threat to withdraw funds from agencies which use a minimum height requirement which cannot be shown to be "job related" was based on "an informal conference on the minimum height requirement" rather than systematic empirically-based research.² Leadership is needed to make the transition from decision-making based on intuitive hunch to a more rational and systematic model.

A personnel selection model which systematically and effectively chooses the best employees available will not guarantee improved law enforcement, but it appears to be a prerequisite.

²News release by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Washington, D.C., March 9, 1973, loc. cit.

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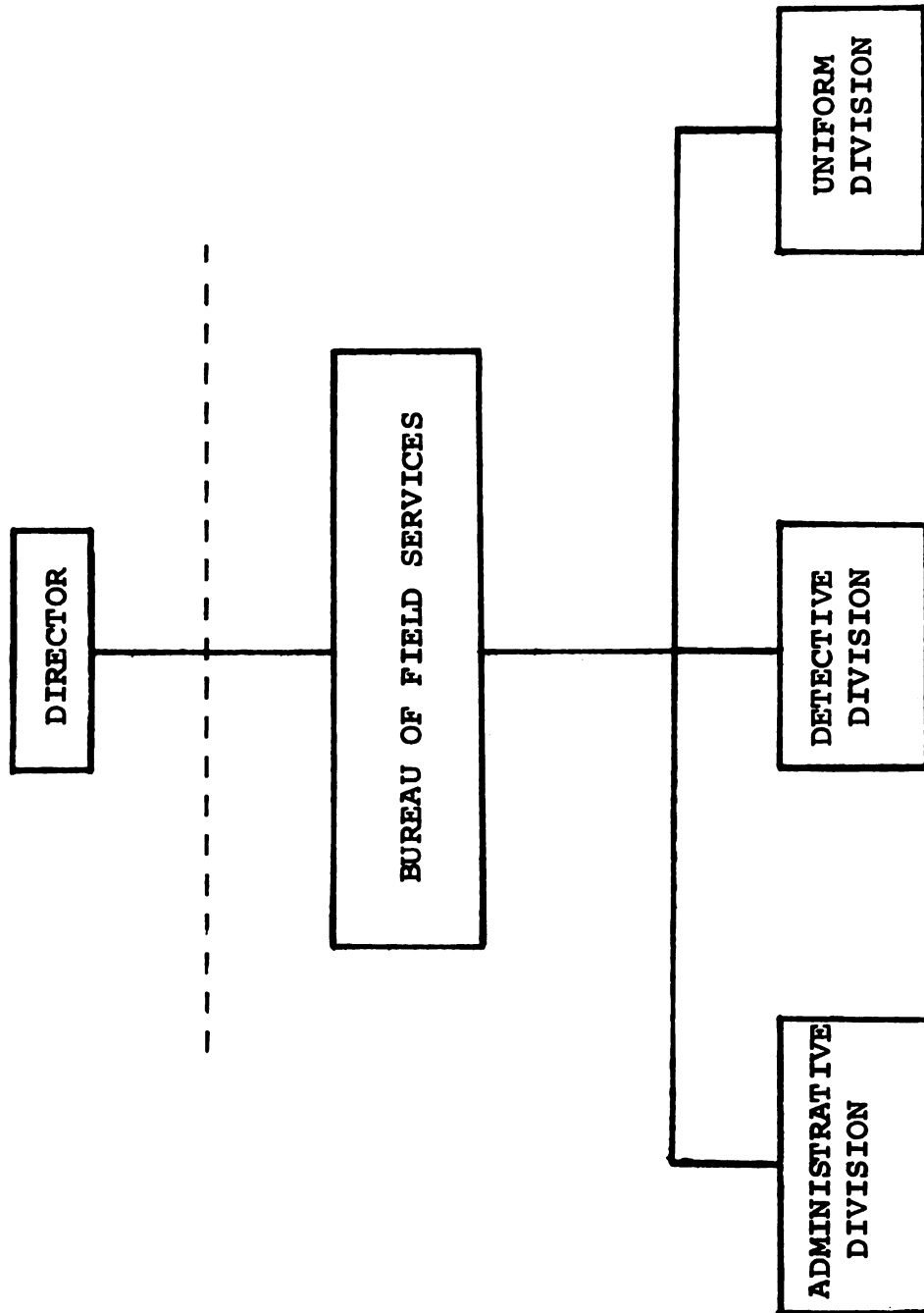
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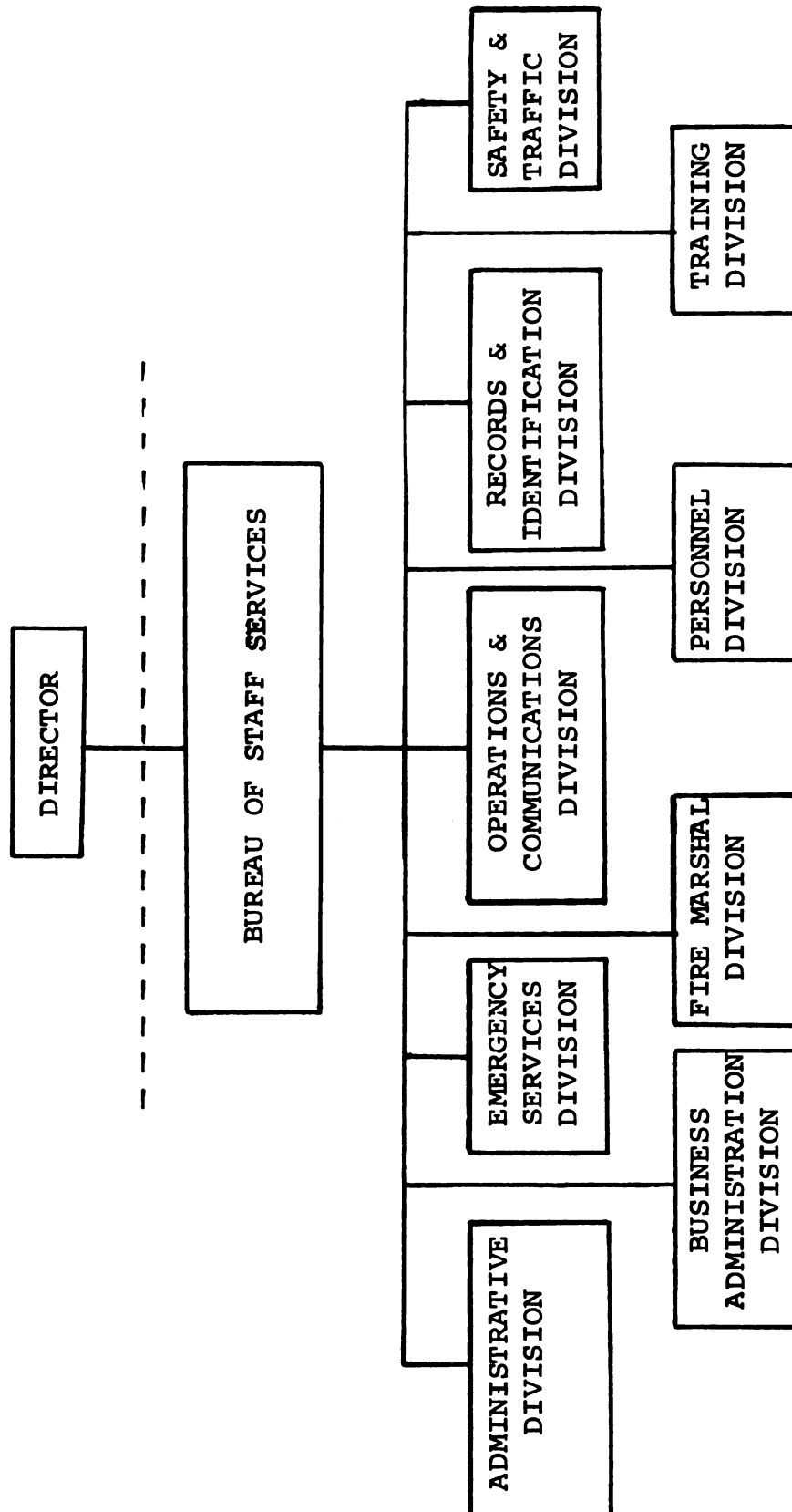
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
ORGANIZATIONAL CHART
BUREAU OF FIELD SERVICES
MICHIGAN STATE POLICE



APPENDIX B
ORGANIZATIONAL CHART
BUREAU OF FIELD SERVICES
MICHIGAN STATE POLICE



APPENDIX C

Department of State Police TRAINING DIVISION FINAL RECRUIT EVALUATION				
Sgt. #	DATE	EVALUATOR		
VOICE QUALITY AND SPEECH: ☐ Outstanding ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Fair ☐ Poor				
Comments:				
BEARING AND APPEARANCE: ☐ Outstanding ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Fair ☐ Poor				
Comments:				
COMPOSURE AND CONTROL: ☐ Outstanding ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Fair ☐ Poor				
Comments:				
PHYSICAL ENDURANCE: ☐ Outstanding ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Fair ☐ Poor				
Comments:				
FRIENDLINESS: ☐ Outstanding ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Fair ☐ Poor				
Comments:				
ALERTNESS, UNDERSTANDING: ☐ Outstanding ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Fair ☐ Poor				
Comments:				
VERBAL EXPRESSION: ☐ Outstanding ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Fair ☐ Poor				
Comments:				
JUDGMENT: ☐ Outstanding ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Fair ☐ Poor				
Comments:				
COOPERATION: ☐ Outstanding ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Fair ☐ Poor				
Comments:				

INTEREST:	☐ Outstanding	☐ Good	☐ Average	☐ Fair	☐ Poor
Comments:					
ATTITUDE:	☐ Outstanding	☐ Good	☐ Average	☐ Fair	☐ Poor
Comments:					
INITIATIVE:	☐ Outstanding	☐ Good	☐ Average	☐ Fair	☐ Poor
Comments:					
DEPENDABILITY:	☐ Outstanding	☐ Good	☐ Average	☐ Fair	☐ Poor
Comments:					
LEADERSHIP:	☐ Outstanding	☐ Good	☐ Average	☐ Fair	☐ Poor
Comments:					
KNOWLEDGE:	☐ Outstanding	☐ Good	☐ Average	☐ Fair	☐ Poor
Comments:					
PERFORMANCE-QUANTITY:	☐ Outstanding	☐ Good	☐ Average	☐ Fair	☐ Poor
Comments:					
PERFORMANCE-QUALITY:	☐ Outstanding	☐ Good	☐ Average	☐ Fair	☐ Poor
Comments:					
STRONG POINTS:					
WEAK POINTS REQUIRING CORRECTION:					
INDICATE YOUR ATTITUDE TOWARD WORKING WITH THIS MAN AS A PARTNER.					
☐ Prefer him to most. ☐ Be pleased to have him. ☐ Be satisfied with him. ☐ Would accept him.					

APPENDIX D

TD-15 (REV. 10-7-69)		MICHIGAN STATE POLICE PROBATIONARY TROOPER RATING		REPORT NUMBER:
NAME:		POST:		RECRUIT SCHOOL NUMBER:
PERIOD COVERED BY THIS REPORT:		NUMBER OF TIMES WORKING SINGLE PATROL THIS PERIOD:		ENLISTMENT DATE:
FROM: TO:				
Appearance ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory (Explain) 		Dependability ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory (Explain) 		
Public Contacts ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory (Explain) 		Judgement ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory (Explain) 		
Attitude Toward Job ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory (Explain) 		Working Relationship With Other Officers ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory (Explain) 		
Personal Habits ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory (Explain) 		Knowledge of Police Work ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory (Explain) 		
Work Quantity ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory (Explain) 		Work Quality ☐ Excellent ☐ Satisfactory ☐ Unsatisfactory (Explain) 		
COMMENTS: TRAINING OFFICER 				
SIGNATURE: TRAINING OFFICER:		DATE:		NAMES OF OFFICERS WORKED WITH THIS PERIOD:
COMMENTS: POST COMMANDER 				
SIGNATURE: POST COMMANDER		DATE:		

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