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Evaluating the Influences of Domestic Violence Training on the Attitudes and Perceptions of
Police Recruits at the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy

A thesis

presented to

the faculty of the Department of Criminal Justice and Criminology

East Tennessee State University

In partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree

Master of Arts in Criminal Justice and Criminology

by

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ABSTRACT

Evaluating the Influences of Domestic Violence Training on the Attitudes and Perceptions of the
Recruits at the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy

by

Jeffrey Thomas Gazzo

A sample of recruits attending the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy were surveyed about attitudes relating to a variety of topics, including their perceived role as police officers, domestic violence, its victims, perpetrators, and police interactions with domestic violence. The recruits completed the survey during their first week at the academy. The recruits completed the identical survey on the last week of academy training. No significant change in attitudes were found following the completion of the Regional Law Enforcement Academy training program. Conclusively, the results of this study show that the training provided at the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy does not significantly change the attitudes and perceptions of the recruits toward domestic violence.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	2
LIST OF TABLES	5
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	6
Problem of Domestic Violence in the United States	8
Police Response to Domestic Violence.....	9
Statement of the Problem	10
Need for the Study.....	11
Purpose of the Study.....	11
Research Hypothesis	12
Limitations	12
2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	14
Training, Legal Concerns, and Domestic Violence	14
New Officers Perception of the Police Role	16
Focus of Police Training.....	20
Cynicism and the Police	22
3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....	27
Procedure for Collecting	29
Procedure for Treating Data	30

4. ANALYSIS OF DATA	32
Demographics	32
Results	33
5. DISCUSSION	37
Conclusion	45
Recommendations	47
REFERENCES	49
APPENDICES	53
Appendix A: Sample Questionnaire	53
Appendix B: Police Academy Curriculum	56
VITA	66

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Sample Demographics	33
2. Recruit Perceptions of the Police Role	34
3. Recruit Attitudes Toward Domestic Violence.....	35
4. Recruit Attitudes Citizen Encounters	36

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The police response to domestic violence continues to be an area of controversy among law enforcement, the judicial and correctional system, legislators, and advocacy groups. Attempts to discover the best means for police to intervene have met with mixed results (Dugan, Nagin, & Rosenfeld, 2004, Elliott, 1989, Klein, 1994, Sherman & Berk, 1984, Stark, 1993). Efforts in eliminating officer discretion and mandating arrest with or without a warrant were based in part on studies such as Minneapolis Domestic Violence Experiment (MDVE) (Sherman & Berk, 1984). The MDVE has been criticized for its design and conclusions that mandatory arrest in domestic violence cases had a deterrent effect (Dugan, Nagin & Rosenfeld, 2004, Elliott, 1989, Klein, 1994). Dugan, Nagin & Rosenfeld (2004) found that interventions meant to reduce exposure such as mandatory arrest, restraining orders, and shelters can increase the likelihood of retaliation from abusive partner. Elliott's research (1989) concluded that there were no specific interventions that could be identified that reduced future family violence. In fact, mandatory arrest was shown to "work" with men who were employed and married and arrest for repeat violence appeared to be highest among minorities and the unemployed (Stark, 1993).

Larry Sherman, one of the researchers who conducted the MDVE, later changed his pro-arrest position for domestic violence offenders, based on data from replication studies showing that some men became more violent after arrest (Stark, 1993). This is certainly problematic in light of the fact that many police departments based pro-arrest policies on findings from the MDVE and replication studies like the Spouse Abuse Replication Project. Stark's research on mandatory arrest of domestic violence offenders cited three criticisms of the practice. Stark concluded that mandatory arrest does not work and that in some cases violence increases following the arrest of an

abuser. Larry Sherman, one of the co-authors of the MDVE, asserted that officers should instead use what he referred to as “structured discretion”. Manning’s concerns were mandatory arrest had a disparate impact and worsened social inequalities based on socio-economic class, race, and gender. Stark’s research found that mandatory arrest offered little benefit for the victim and almost none for the offenders. Stark suggested that arrests in domestic violence incidents should be reserved for the most dangerous cases. Stark suggested that in lieu of arrest in most cases, treatment for offenders and support services for families would be preferable. Stark asserted that the police need method to identify those cases that are potentially the most dangerous. His suggestion was to use the child protection system as a model to construct such an instrument. Stark’s study also found that in a majority of cases, the victims do not support mandatory arrest practices. Stark inferred that victims of family violence and the police should be granted to discretion to decide if arrest serves the interest of victims and provides benefits to the offender.

In the Supreme Court case, Castle Rock v. Gonzales, despite the murder of Jessica Gonzalez at the hands of her ex-husband, questioned the validity of mandatory arrest laws across the country (Stark, 1993). The lawsuit was filed on the behalf of Gonzales against the Castle Rock Police Department. Jessica Gonzales had a restraining order against her ex-husband, which he violated on many occasions. State law of Colorado mandated arrest for violation of a restraining order. The Supreme Court’s decision however was that enforcement of a restraining order is not mandatory regardless of the state statute. Because of that decision by the court, Jessica Gonzales’ case was dismissed. There was extensive controversy following the decision from advocacy groups criticizing the decision as a step backward for women and the victims of domestic violence. The Castle Rock case further illustrates the complexities that are present when attempting to address domestic and intimate partner violence (Ford, 1983).

Inadequate definitions of family violence, lack of representative samples of victims and offenders, inability to include experimental controls, longer follow up periods, and lack of data on specific types of abuse were problems cited by Elliott (1989) as limitations of his own work and of the MDVE in general. The challenges of investigating domestic violence and then formulating a public response to it based on research appears evident.

Problem of Domestic Violence in the United States

According to a study sponsored by the Bureau of Justice Statistics, there were 1.3 million non-fatal domestic victimizations from 2006-2015 (Reaves, 2017). The data shows that 56% of all victimization were reported to law enforcement. Female victims were disproportionately affected by both fatal and non-fatal incidents of family violence. The study further revealed that females accounted for the majority of non-fatal victimizations, over 1 million. Conversely, males reported 313,579 victimizations to police. Female victims only reported serious injuries because of domestic violence to police 7% of the time. The Bureau of Justice Statistics reported in 2002 that 22% of murders were the result of family violence and that 58% of those victims were female. The study, Police Response to Domestic Violence, 2006-2015, found that households with children under the age of 11 (596,066) and with children over the age of 11 (461,180) were present during violent domestic incidents (Reaves, 2017). The majority of victimizations involved households where children were present. Despite these findings, the Bureau of Justice Statistics found that from 2006-2015, 21% of victims did not report victimizations to police in an attempt to protect the offender, 21% viewed the crime as minor or unimportant, and a further 19% feared retaliation from either offender or others (Reaves, 2017). Serious violence went unreported to police (13%) because of fear of retaliation and female unreported victimizations were four times that of male unreported victimizations (24% vs. 6%)

Police Response to Domestic Violence

Among police officers, calls of domestic violence were often viewed as a nuisance, not constituting “real crime”. Police officer’s attitudes toward domestic violence, victims, offenders, and the officer’s perceived role have been identified as challenges in addressing the problem. Research by Ford (1983) cited that officers tended to view IPV (Intimate Partner Violence) as a “private matter” and was an interest that fell outside of “police purview”. Ford’s research, which interviewed police officers and recorded their views of domestic violence found four “problematic views of IPV”. His work revealed that police officers dislike responding to calls of domestic violence for a variety of reasons. Officers reported frustration with difficulties in determining what occurred, identifying the offender, being required to act outside their role of police officers, and a lack of training in domestic violence and victim counseling. The officers surveyed also reported that the cycle of domestic violence involves repeated calls of abuse to the same residences and victims either returning to or refusing to leave an abusive partner. Officers also had a tendency of blaming the victim for abuse. This was especially true if the victim was under the influence of an intoxicant or if the officer believed, the victim antagonized the offender prior to the abuse. Officers in Ford’s study also reported they felt that victims would be uncooperative with legal interventions.

Each of these responses by law enforcement to the victims of domestic violence exacerbates the frustrations the officers reported. Victim reluctance or distrust of law enforcement could become lethal as this relationship can contribute to an “us vs. them” mentality on both the part of the police and the involved parties in domestic violence incidents. Miller’s research (1983) found that tension that exists between the community and the police is borne out of the contrast of expectations and attitudes between the police and communities they serve. In light of this, it is important to develop our understanding of the problem and the various factors involved.

This study investigates whether the training provided by one of the eleven police academies in the State of Tennessee, the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy, changes the attitudes and perceptions of police recruits toward domestic violence. It is clear that police training practices are central to properly addressing the problems presented by domestic violence. As Ford (1983) and Miller (1983) concluded, police officers dislike answering domestic violence calls and this attitude and cynical outlooks among officers about their efficacy in resolving domestic violence incidents effects the quality of service the police provide. To be sure, academy training can educate new officers about the legal definitions of domestic violence, officer safety tactics while on-scene, and about the cycle of domestic violence. However, Ford (1983) and Miller (1983) found that negative attitudes among officers develop after repeated exposure to domestic violence. Officers become cynical in their outlook on the effectiveness of not only their interventions but also those provided by the justice system.

Statement of the Problem

Police academy training can educate new officers about the legal definitions of domestic violence, officer safety tactics while on-scene, and about the cycle of domestic violence. However, research by Ford (1983), Miller (1983), Ellis (1991), Horowitz, et al. (2011) found that negative attitudes among police officers develop after repeated exposure to domestic violence. Officers become cynical in their outlook on the effectiveness of not only their interventions but also those provided by the justice system. When the expectations of victims are not met by law enforcement, distrust, reluctance to report, testify, and cooperate with systemic interventions will likely persist (Feemster, 2009, Ford, 1983, Miller, 1983,). Victims reported that apathetic attitudes of police, dual arrests, or failure to provide expected services have caused them to feel re-victimized by the justice system. The dynamic that perpetuates itself between the police who believe that their role as

crime fighters has been subverted, the distrust and suspicion as a feature of the police sub-culture, and the cycle of domestic violence and victims who distrust law enforcement and may not fully cooperate with interventions contribute to the development of cynicism (Ford, 1983, Miller, 1983). These factors interfere with the most effective police response to domestic violence and potentially place victims in harm's way.

Need for the Study

Police Officers who exhibit higher levels of cynicism perform differently than those who do not (Feemaster, 2009). Ellis (1991) found that attitudes of police officers constantly change however; the changes tend to decline from a mostly positive view of policing to a more negative view of the profession. Cynical attitudes among police officers is detrimental to the provision of services to the victims of crime. Victims of domestic violence report that apathetic attitudes of police officers and failure to provide expected services have caused them to feel re-victimized by the justice system. A better understanding of how police officers perceive their role, their attitudes and beliefs about domestic violence, and their views of police/citizen encounters could give police administrators predictive tools to mitigate the development of cynicism.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is an effort to reach a better understanding of the current state of training at the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy and to determine to what extent, if any, the academy influences the attitudes and perceptions of police recruits attending the program.

Research Hypothesis

The hypothesis of this study is that the training provided by the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy does not significantly change the recruit's perception of their role as police officers, domestic violence, or their attitudes toward the community.

Limitations

Though this study serves to fill some of the gaps in our knowledge, it is not without limitations. The primary limitation was that it was very narrowly focused on one aspect of police training at the academy. Domestic violence training accounts for approximately eight to ten hours out of 480 total hours of police academy training. The effect of this training may not be as pronounced as other areas that were allocated more time such as firearms (48 hours), defensive tactics (48 hours), and emergency vehicle operation (48 hours). Mechanical skills such as driving, shooting, and self-defense do not have the same inter-personal "baggage" present with domestic violence. Mechanical skills could be developed in isolation in a training environment attaining a high level of proficiency without the need for law enforcement field experience. Exposure to conflict with the public and other corrosive influences of law enforcement will likely not have an effect on an officer's proficiency with firearms, operation of police vehicles, or their ability to defend themselves. Domestic violence training at the Regional Law Enforcement Academy only accounts for 2% of the total hours required by the state for certification as a police officer (see Appendix B). The recruit remains isolated from work in the field while attending training. The attitudes that the recruit has in training about domestic violence are likely those that he has brought to the profession prior to entering the academy. Domestic violence training and exposure to the academy environment may play a role in increasing the recruit's technical knowledge of the law, dynamics of family violence, and the psychology of domestic violence but because they have no

direct experience in handling domestic violence in the role of a police officer, dramatic changes in attitudes are likely to be seen only after the academy.

A second limitation is that this study only examined responses of recruits attending the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy. The academy is one of eleven in the State of Tennessee. Police academies were mandated to provide a minimum number of hours to each topic however, each academy director can exceed mandatory hours of training. There is also no standardized curriculum for domestic violence training. This means that the quality and extent of such training is not uniform. This could lead to different results for other academies or results for all eleven academies combined. The sample size of this study was also small and consisted of under one hundred recruits. The Regional Law Enforcement Academy, like others in the State of Tennessee, is relatively small. The average class size is under fifty students during any one session. On average the Regional Law Enforcement Academy trains just under two hundred police recruits annually.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter is devoted to reviewing the literature concerning problems about domestic violence, the police response, socialization and training of police officers, and cynical attitudes of police officers. Domestic violence constitutes a difficult social problem that police must address. Complicating responses to domestic violence are mandatory arrest statutes relying heavily on the Minneapolis Domestic Violence Experiment (Sherman & Berk, 1982), victims who do not want offenders arrested (Stark, 1993), and studies that found no specific intervention were effective to reduce violence (Elliott, 1989) and still others that found violence increased in many cases following the arrest of offenders (Dugan, Nagin & Rosenfeld, 2004, Elliott, 1989, Ford, 1983, Klein, 1994, Miller, 1983) research found that the attitudes of police officers toward domestic violence becomes increasingly negative after repeated exposure to family violence incidents. The existence and depth of cynicism among police officers has an inevitable effect on the quality of service provided to the community (Feemster, 2009). A review of police socialization and training may help to explain how the socialization and training of police officers may contribute to the challenges of addressing domestic violence.

Training, Legal Concerns, and Domestic Violence

Training constitutes both an ethical and legal obligation for law enforcement. Successful cases have been prosecuted against law enforcement at the federal level as violations of the equal protection clause of the fourteenth amendment (Thurman v. City of Torrington, 1984, Hynson v. City of Chester, 1988, Semple v. City of Moundsville, 1999, Shipp v. McMahon, 2000). A federal court of appeals found in Semple v. City of Moundsville (1999) found that if plaintiffs could show a “specific deficiency” in training that shares a causal connection with a specific injury it may be

enough to prove a claim under the Equal Protection Clause. A 2000 case in the State of Louisiana featured a federal appeals court ruling that a sheriff's office failure to institute policies and training regarding domestic violence might violate the Equal Protection Clause (Shipp v. McMahon). There are other cases in which failures to adequately train or act on the part of law enforcement agencies and officers resulted in successful claims against municipalities and county governments. Thurman v. City of Torrington (1984, gender discrimination), Hynson v. City of Chester (1988, gender discrimination) and Watson v. City of Kansas (1988, inadequate departmental training program/doctrine) serve as relevant examples. Taken together, this suggests that training should be a primary concern of agencies and training academies.

Horowitz, et al. (2011) found that police officers indicated the source of their frustration was not only the recurring nature of domestic violence, but also the failure of the justice system to follow up on the officer's initial interventions. Officers also identified that their role as protectors is limited and that deteriorating attitudes and their beliefs contribute to the perpetuation of domestic violence. Officers suggested higher quality training, post incident de-briefing, counseling, feedback from the courts on case disposition, cooperation across professional groups, prosecutions based on evidence, and harsher penalties for DV offenders. Aside from the liabilities concerns for municipalities and police administrators, there are ethical obligations that transcend costs from potential litigation resulting from improper responses to domestic violence on the part of law enforcement. The obligation of law enforcement to protect life supersedes all other concerns.

Victims report that apathetic attitudes of police officers have caused them to feel re-victimized by the justice system. Police officers that believe they are being required to act outside their role as crime fighters, the recurring nature of domestic violence that contributes to the development of negative attitudes of police officers, and consequently the degradation of the quality of police

services, potentially placing victims in harm's way (Feemster, 2009, Ford, 1983, Miller, 1983, Stark 1993).

New Officer's Perception of the Police Role

The police recruit entering the academy at the introductory stage of their career have likely had little or no previous exposure to law enforcement. Because of the insular nature of police work, the majority of recruits have no real knowledge of policing beyond what is portrayed by popular media and some limited contact the recruit had previously as a student intern, a citizen ride along, citizen police academy graduate, explorer, or casual exposure to the field through family members, friends, or acquaintances in law enforcement (Ellis, 1991, Graves, 1996). Still, the exposure to law enforcement provided by these sources only provides limited insight and likely represents the best foot forward for an agency and the most exciting story from a police friend or family member. Very few individuals outside policing are given a full peek behind the curtain, which still might not be granted until the new officer progresses well into his early career (Ellis, 1991, Manning, 1977). Officers learn first how their trainers and later their peers classify, prioritize, and value different police tasks, offenders, victims, and arrests. Domestic violence is more often as not seen as a nuisance and low priority that unnecessarily burdens the police with the problems of victims who refuse to cooperate (Ford & Burke, 1983, Ford, 1983, Horowitz, et al., 2011, Miller, 1983, Ellis, 1991). A training bulletin from the City of Oakland Police Services in 1975 advised officers:

“The police role in a (domestic) dispute situation is more often that of a mediator and peacemaker than enforcer of the law....Normally, officers should adhere to the policy that arrests shall be avoided....but (when) one of the parties demands arrest, you should attempt to explain the ramifications of such action (e.g., loss of wages, bail procedures, court appearances) and encourage the parties to reason with each other”

(Stark, 1993)

Following the academy, a familiar refrain of Field Training Officers on the new officer's first day behind the wheel of a police vehicle is "forget what you learned in the academy, I'm going to show you how things are really done" (Malmin, 2012). Police officers historically have preferred to view their role as that of crime fighter rather than one of a social worker (Manning, 1977). New officers adopt the viewpoints of veterans that have been transmitted over time through the organization. Role conflicts arise within police officers when the role they believe they are intended to fill in circumvented by the role the public demands (Ford, 1983, Miller, 1983). Peter Manning explored the aspects of role identification and conflict among police officers. Manning's research (1977) stated that the police have established their role as crime fighters. Manning also suggested that the police expect to function as crime fighters however little police time in the field is spent pursuing this task. In fact, the greatest majority of police tasks involve administrative and order maintenance activities that have little bearing on combatting street crime. As officers are expected to perform outside their perceived role, they may become apathetic and insensitive to the needs of individuals who are in need of their services (Ellis, 1991, Ford, 1983, Ford & Burke, 1983, Horowitz, et al., 2011, McDermott & Hulse, 2012, Miller, 1983). An F.B.I. training bulletin from 1999 titled "Police Training in the 21st Century" cited Bureau of Justice Statistics data that found police officers spend 10 percent of patrol time on addressing criminal offenses and the remaining 90 percent on "service related calls (e.g., neighborhood disturbances, conflict resolution, etc.)" (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1983). The 1999 F.B.I. bulletin stated that there was a "paradox" in police training. That paradox is that police academies spend the majority of their time teaching skills that officers perform the smallest percentage of the time. These are technical and mechanical skills such as defensive tactics, firearms, driving, use of force, traffic accident investigation, and so on. Meadows (1985) stated in his research "how a police officer perceives his role may be related

to the training received and the quality of instructors providing the training” (Meadows, 1985).

The socialization of new police officers begins with the new recruit’s entrance to the police academy. The paramilitary structure of the academy begins a process of replacing individual thinking with those of the organization (Newburn & Reiner, 2007; Volti, 2008). The new officer in the police academy is confronted with enormous pressure to conform. Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce (2010) asserted that the forces of socialization in the academy are so strong that they create a siege mentality of “us vs. them” that opposes principles of community policing. Tuohy’s (1975) research on the effects of socialization on police officers concluded that new officers in the academy adjust or alter their individual identity, to include their attitudes, to reflect the group practices and attitudes of their peers and senior officers. Later research by Enkman (1999) stated that new police trainees are so eager to be accepted by veteran officers that the new officers will assimilate the veteran’s attitudes in response to real or perceived pressure.

Rokeach (1971) found in his research a more muted effect of occupational socialization. He concluded that individuals who were entering the profession of law enforcement come with established value systems. These values match those of police officers already working inside the profession of policing. The police academy, in Rokeach’s (1971) assessment, simply reinforces beliefs and values that were held by the recruit prior to the academy. Conti’s (2010) research agreed with Rokeach in that Conti stated that those who have chosen the field of policing as their career probably made that decision early in life. Rokeach (1971), in studying the police working personality, held that these personality predispositions assist these recruits in more easily assimilating into the occupation of policing and its subculture. Reiner (1992) agreed with Conti and Rokeach as well as Fielding’s (1988) research of the police subculture in Britain. Reiner(1992)

conceded that the police subculture is a powerful force that exerts great pressures but the individual ultimately decides how much they will allow the subculture to influence them.

There are varied forces at work on the new recruit entering the law enforcement field. Not only do role conflicts exert an influence, perhaps more so later in their careers, but so does the perception of the police role early in the officer's career (Ellis, 1991, Graves, 1996, Mignone, 2005, Niederhoffer, 1969). The forces of socialization are present in every work group and is not exclusive to law enforcement. With that said, there are positive aspects to the socialization process of new police officers (Paoline, 2004). New officers can learn valuable lessons and heuristics from veteran officers that relate to the new officer's safety on the street. Veteran officers can be valuable guides through a complex occupational environment (Gould & Moore, 2003). They said of the socialization of police officers "Socialization can impart to a recruit values and ethics that are not formally written down yet are needed for the recruit to function well in the job while on the road" (Gould & Moore, 2003). Values of loyalty and solidarity are important for new police officers to adopt however, and according to Sato's research (2003), it is critical that the new officers keep to the values of the organization especially if the information they receive from veteran officers run contrary to the organization. Manning (1993) made the determination that there is no one police subculture. There are three distinctly different cultures within the overall subculture of policing. These three cultures, according to Manning, are street cop culture, middle management culture, and management cop culture. The beliefs and attitudes of these three differ because of their functional responsibilities within the organization. Many of the attitudes that have been used to describe all police within their occupational culture (resistant to change, cynical, insular, negativity, distrust of outsiders, etc.) refers to street cop culture (Manning, 1993).

Focus of Police Training

A criticism of police academy training is that trainer over-emphasize the physical danger to police officers (Breci, 1989, Sherman, 1986). The importance of officer safety should not be understated however; the practice of officer survival skills can come at the cost of the development of inter-personal skills needed to effectively respond to instances of domestic violence (McDermott & Hulse, 2012, Satterfield, 1985). Marion (1998) observing police academy training in Ohio commented on the training they received at the academy. Marion, (1998). Recruits in the police academy reported that officer safety was the primary focus of their training (Breci, 1989). Domestic violence training was presented by both social services workers, court personnel, and provided information on legal definitions and requirements, victim services, and mediation. The recruits however found that officer safety was the first priority when handling domestic violence incidents. Officers receiving instruction purely from a law enforcement perspective may not be provided with a complete picture of the complexities and demands of domestic violence incidents. Sherman (1986) found that the fear officers have regarding domestic violence calls are actually misplaced. His research found that in contradiction to FBI statistics showing that disturbance calls accounted for the highest number of officers killed; officers were more likely to be accidentally shot and killed by other police officers. As such, it may be necessary to begin to re-define the classic role of the police officers at the academy level.

Police academies in the State of Tennessee are mandated by the Tennessee P.O.S.T. (Peace Officers Standards and Training) Commission to provide 480 hours minimum training to certify one as a police officer. Currently, Tennessee P.O.S.T. lists domestic violence as one of the topics that must be covered under an umbrella of subject matter titled “*Patrol Procedures*”. A minimum of seventy-five minimum hours must be divided between these 10 subsections. As Marion (1998)

observed officer, survival courses comprise the majority of those seventy-five hours. The Regional Law Enforcement Academy, which is the focus of this study, provides 12 hours of domestic violence training as part of its curriculum. Research by Mignon and Holmes (1995) found that “without extensive, adequate training police will not implement domestic violence laws properly”. Most would likely agree that 12 hours of domestic violence training would not be ideal to train officers to effectively enforce relevant laws, understand the cycle of violence, and the collection of evidence for successful prosecution. There are challenges to implementing extensive training of the type needed for responding to calls of domestic violence. Chief among those challenges is the time available during a police academy to implement this type of training (Marion, 1998). A single 40-hour training session would constitute an entire week of training that may not be available to trainers. Another significant obstacle to the implementation to the types of training that is necessary to improve the police response to and understanding of domestic violence is lack of uniformity and quality. Currently there is no nationally standardized domestic violence-training program for law enforcement. The role of crime fighter should at least be tempered by the role of an investigator, a term that many officers find more palatable than “social worker” or “public servant” (Manning, 1977). Potential police applicants and new academy recruits tend to be attracted to policing by the allure and mystique of the “crime fighter” image. Police academy trainers, many of whom are current and former street officers, reinforce this image either intentionally or unintentionally (Marion, 1998). Any change at the academy level must be followed up by greater organizational change and sociological change of the prevailing culture of policing.

Both of these have been elusive goals to achieve and likely will continue to be. Robert Meadows (1985) study of the Los Angeles Police Department’s recruit training program concluded that policing’s true function is order maintenance as opposed to the traditional view of crime control. Meadows stated that the police recruit’s earliest exposure to police training should

emphasize this through academy curriculum and teaching strategies. Research by Ford and Miller (1983) found that officers dislike handling calls involving domestic violence and repeated exposure to these incidents contributed to the development of negative attitudes. This study attempts to determine when these negative attitudes first manifest themselves.

Cynicism and the Police

Arthur Niederhoffer published the first extensive study on police cynicism in 1967 with his study of the New York City Police Department. Cynicism is defined as “An inclination to believe that people are motivated purely by self-interest, skepticism, synonyms: skepticism, doubt, distrust, mistrust, suspicion, disbelief, pessimism, negativity, world-weariness, disenchantment.

These academic descriptions of a cynic and cynicism reflect attitudes of police officers as they respond to instances of domestic violence as mentioned previously. The existence and the depth of cynicism among police officers has an inevitable effect on the quality of service provided to the community (Feemaster, 2009). This study attempts to investigate questions surrounding the development of cynicism as it relates to the police:

1. When do the features of cynicism emerge for individual police officers
2. Do individuals who select law enforcement as a profession enter the field as cynics
3. Can the development of cynicism be arrested
4. Is cynicism among police officers an inevitable by-product of public service

This study will seek to utilize a more functional definition of cynicism as it describes the quality for police officers. Researchers have posited various descriptions of cynicism. For example, cynicism was defined as “an attitude of contemptuous distrust of human nature and motives” (Graves, 1996).

The measurement of cynicism for the purposes of social research is difficult because the interpretation of responses from officers is subjective. The current study does not attempt to develop a new definition of cynicism or address the subjectivity of interpretations of cynicism. Graves (1996) conceptualization of cynicism is thus, the most useful. His research asserted that cynicism is borne out of the contrast of what officers “want to accomplish” versus “what officers discover they can accomplish”. The defining characteristics that were chosen to illustrate cynicism also relate to a new recruit’s perception of the role of a police officer. Feemster’s (2009) research into cynicism stated that cynicism was important to investigate because officers who exhibited higher levels of cynicism performed differently than those who exhibited lower levels of cynicism. Officers who believe that people are inherently “bad”, “lazy”, “selfish”, etc., that the justice system will not effectively carry out its duties , that their own efforts are futile in addressing community problems, and that guilt and innocence are irrelevant to outcomes are not likely to provide comprehensive and quality services to citizens and the community.

A study of Canadian police officers by Reginald Ellis (1991) found that attitudes among police officers undergo constant change. A concern noted by Ellis is that attitudes appear to decline from mostly a positive view of the profession of policing, to a more negative view of policing. Ellis’ research concluded that the change in police attitudes from positive to negative takes place early in their careers (Ellis, 1991). He described these shifts in attitudes as cynicism and alienation. He further investigated the views of police instructors and Field Training Officers. The academy trainers and Field Training Officers stated that most recruits, as mentioned previously, enter the profession uninformed about the true nature of the police function. “Police recruits are poorly informed regarding the realities of policing. According to Ellis “They operate according to stereotypes acquired through the entertainment media, and have a picture of policing which

emphasizes excitement and challenge, but reflects little to no awareness of the routine, the paperwork, the stress and the gritty realities" (Ellis, 1991).

The findings of these studies fit well with the mechanism of the development of cynicism that Graves (1996) put forth: "What officers "want" to accomplish versus what officers discover they "can" accomplish." Officers are eventually faced with the realization that what they perceived their role as police officers to be was not entirely accurate and what they believe they can accomplish within their role does not match their initial expectations at the earliest stages of their careers. The conclusions of Brown (1988), Ellis (1991), and Niederhoffer (1967) suggest that these realizations contribute to the development of cynicism and alienation but that it manifests itself most dramatically after the police academy. Niederhoffer's definition of cynicism for his study of New York City Police Officers was that "Cynicism acts as an eroding agent to idealism, becoming stronger as the conflict between the police officer and the public intensifies and public respect diminishes" (Niederhoffer, 1967). His study featured a questionnaire measuring the responses of subgroups with the larger organization: recruits on the first day of the academy, recruits in the police academy for 2-3 months, patrol officers for 2-6 years, 7-10 years, 11-14 years, and 15-19 years. Niederhoffer (1967) found that the scores on this questionnaire would classify the recruits in the academy as cynics. This was an interesting finding since the recruits in the New York City Police Department had not yet been exposed to the realities of the street. It was Niederhoffer's belief that these recruits actually were not cynical but that in their desire to be accepted into the culture of policing adopting what the researcher termed "pseudo-cynicism." This form of cynicism is not therefore cynicism borne out of role conflict or the realization that they likely cannot accomplish what they believed they could when they entered the profession and are faced with what they can accomplish. These recruits also have not been exposed to other corrosive factors present in policing such as conflict between the community and the police, frustrations with the

justice system, isolation from family and friends, or alienation from the organization and supervision.

Mignone (2005) replicated Niederhoffer's study of New York City Police Recruits in 2005. Her goal was to determine in the thirty-eight years that transpired between the two studies if changes in the department's makeup had an impact on cynicism among NYPD recruits and officers. Among the differences explored in her study were societal, procedural, and increased inclusion of more diverse racial and ethnic populations, gender, and generational differences. Niederhoffer's questionnaire assigned numerical values to responses. His subjects had a mean score of 60.27. Any score in his study above 60 classified the participants as cynics. As mentioned previously, Niederhoffer questioned these results and asserted that "pseudo-cynicism" was at work and was the by-product of recruit officers trying to conform their attitudes to "fit-in" with veteran officers. Mignone's results showed a mean score for the NYPD academy recruits as 44.48 indicating that they were not yet exhibiting cynicism. Item 17 on the questionnaire administered by Mignone showed that recruits in the academy had a favorable view of the public. Recruits in the NYPD academy also reported favorable views of their agency, academy training, rules and regulations, and the courts. She hypothesized that her results would be similar to Niederhoffer's original study of NYPD recruits. As mentioned previously, Niederhoffer's questionnaire was coded to demonstrate that any score above 60 was considered cynical. The 1967 study returned a mean score of 60.27. Mignone's study returned a mean score of 44.48. Her sample was different from Niederhoffer's in many respects. There was more diversity in ethnicity, gender, race, and educational levels. Although the two studies, Niederhoffer's original and Mignone's replication, returned conflicting results statistically; Niederhoffer believed that his results were not a true reflection of the attitudes of police recruits. He as well as Mignone agree that the effects of

cynicism are likely to manifest themselves after the recruits have left the academy environment and are exposed to some of the corrosive influences of police work.

The concept of cynicism is important to the current study. As mentioned previously, officers who exhibit higher levels of cynicism perform differently than those who do not (Ellis, 1991, Feemaster, 2009) found that the attitudes of police officers constantly change however; the changes tend to decline from a mostly positive view of policing to a more negative view of the profession. He described these changes in attitudes as cynicism and alienation. Cynical attitudes among police officers is detrimental to the provision of services to the victims of crime. Victims of domestic violence report that apathetic attitudes of police officers and failure to provide expected services have caused them to feel re-victimized by the justice system.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine the influence of domestic violence training on the attitudes and perceptions of police recruits at the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy. The hypothesis of the study was that domestic violence training provided at the academy does not significantly change the attitudes and perceptions of the recruits. Domestic violence training accounts for only two percent of the four-hundred eighty training hours mandated by the State of Tennessee. This study attempted to determine if there was a statistically significant change in the attitudes and perceptions of the recruits, to what extent if any, and was the change positive, negative, or did they remain static.

The East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy is one of eleven academies authorized by the Tennessee Peace Officers Standards and Training (P.O.S.T.) Commission to provide basic law enforcement training. Class sizes for law enforcement academies can vary greatly. The Tennessee Law Enforcement Training Academy (TLETA) has classes of one-hundred twenty-five four times per year. The East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy operates four classes per year and typical class sizes are forty-eight to fifty-five recruits per class. The East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy trains recruits from across the state. The majority of these recruits are from the east Tennessee region however, recruits from middle and west Tennessee attend as well. There are academies in Tennessee that are operated by law enforcement agencies such as the Knoxville Police Department and the Nashville Police Department that trains its own employees. While graduation rates are high, there is attrition at the academy. A recruit may leave the academy by choice, failure of an exam in an academic or mechanical skill, or for disciplinary reasons.

The law enforcement academy is required to provide instruction in both academic and mechanical skills. Academic skills such as criminal and constitutional law, report writing, ethics, and interview and interrogation were taught in a traditional classroom setting. Instruction in mechanical skills such as firearms, driving, and defensive tactics is provided on firing ranges, driving tracks, and gymnasiums. A recruit who satisfied the P.O.S.T. mandated academy curriculum would be issued a basic peace officer certification by the Commission. The police academy was intended to provide basic law enforcement skills that will adequately prepare recruits to enter the field training stage of training under the supervision of a training officer with their employing agency. The length of field training varies from one law enforcement agency to another but field training was designed to be a bridge between academy training and the new officer operating independently. The curriculum for the law enforcement academies was developed by the P.O.S.T. Commission (See appendix B). There are fourteen major subject headings under current P.O.S.T. rules. These subject areas are umbrellas under which academies are required to provide instruction in a series of sub-topics. For example, seventy-five total hours of the subject area "Patrol Procedures" is required to satisfy P.O.S.T. curriculum requirements. There were a total of ten sub-topics listed under patrol procedures. Crisis intervention (domestic violence) is one of the ten sub-topics listed as a required component to satisfy the seventy-five hours of patrol procedures. It should be noted that none of the ten sub-topics listed under patrol procedures have predetermined hours that must be devoted to them.

The East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy provides twelve hours of domestic violence training. Although the State of Tennessee requires four hundred eighty hours to certify an individual as a trained police officer, academies may exceed the minimum hours and provide training that is more extensive. This is also the case for individual topics mandated for academy instruction such as patrol procedures and domestic violence. The P.O.S.T. Commission

does not provide uniform course materials to the eleven academies in the state. The P.O.S.T. Commission approves instructor lesson plans and academy curriculums however; the structure of the rules lacks uniformity. The result of this is that though the P.O.S.T. Commission approves lesson plans and curriculum, individual courses can vary widely in scope, quality, and depth.

Procedure for Collecting Data

The sample for this study was drawn from two academy classes at the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy. The questionnaire attempted to obtain a measure of three inter-related areas: the police officer's perception of his role, the police officer's attitudes toward domestic violence, and officer attitudes about police/citizen interactions. The questions constituting the police perception of their role was derived partially from James Q. Wilson's study "Varieties of Police Behavior" and from research on the police perception of their role by Manning (1997, 1993). The section of the questionnaire, attempting to determine police attitudes toward domestic violence, were questions constructed from findings of researchers on police behavior while responding to family violence incidents (Ellis, 1991, Ford, 1983, Horowitz et al., 2011, Miller, 1983, Stark, 1993). The last section of the survey instrument, police attitudes about police/citizen interactions, are an extension of the findings of this research. The questionnaire employed a Likert scale (1-strongly disagree, two-disagree, 3-no opinion, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree) for questions 17-24 (police perception of their role), 25-45 (police attitudes toward domestic violence), and questions 46-53 (police attitudes about police/citizen interactions).

Data were collected from recruits attending the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy. An anonymous questionnaire was administered in two stages:

1. The first stage was during the first week of the police academy training.

2. The second stage was during the last full day of police academy training, the eighth week of the program.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections (see Appendix 1 for a full copy of the survey).

The first section represented by questions 1-16 queries about demographic data. Among the 15 item demographic section are items to determine age, race, gender, and educational level. The second section, defined by questions 17-24 are partially derived from James Q. Wilson's Varieties of Police Behavior study (1968), which described policing styles which described policing used to understand how officers perceive themselves and their role.

Questions 25-45 attempted to gain an understanding of the recruit's knowledge of family violence incidents. These questions also

Questions 46-53 were drawn from Anita Mignone's (2005) thesis of Arthur Niederhoffer's (1967) study. These questions attempted to gain a measure of the recruit's level of cynicism about interactions between law enforcement and the public.

This study utilized a pre-test/posttest design and the data was analyzed for statistical significance with paired sample t-tests. Each section of the questionnaire, with the exception of demographics, was analyzed for statistical significance.

Procedure for Treating Data

The response options on the questionnaire represents interval data. The responses were scored to determine the average response to each item on the questionnaire. As described previously, the questionnaires were distributed in two stages. A paired sample t-test was the most appropriate method to analyze the pretest / post-test design of the study. By examining the differences in the mean responses to the questionnaire items it was possible to determine the

existence of a statistical change, the direction of change, and the magnitude of mean response for each item.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter reports the findings of the study using the combined sample (N=78). The pre-test and post-tests were combined and analyzed with the use of a paired sample t-test. The hypothesis of this study was that the domestic violence training provided by the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy does not significantly change the perceptions and attitudes of the recruits. Though the results of the statistical analysis demonstrated that overall negligible change occurred, the null hypothesis could be partially rejected. Three questions out of the fifty-three-question survey showed statistical significance. Two of the significant items were police perceptions of their role and one item was under police attitudes toward domestic violence.

Demographics

The recruits of the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy are sworn officers from differing agencies from across the State of Tennessee. The remaining attendees of the Regional Law Enforcement Academy are students who are not sworn members of any law enforcement agency. The demographic data for the Regional Law Enforcement Academy show that most recruits attending the academy are white males (91.1%), only one black female (1%), and six white females (6%). Educational attainment tended to be low among the recruits, as 59.49% held only high school diplomas, 17.7% G.E.D.'s, 6% Associate Degrees, 17% Bachelor's Degrees, and only one Master's Degree. Although the demographic data was skewed, it is representative of a typical academy class and not a result of sampling bias. Furthermore, the gender, racial, and educational level of the survey group is representative of previous classes attending the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy

Table 1:

Sample Demographics

Gender	Race	Percentage
Male	White	91.1%
Male	Black	0.0%
Female	White	8.9%
Female	Black	1.0%

Additional Demographic Date Related to the Sample:

Educational Attainment: 59.49% High School Diplomas, 17.7% G.E.D., 6% Associate Degrees, 17% Bachelor's Degrees, 1 Master's Degree

Results

Other findings were as follows. The recruit's perception of their role as police officers represented by items 17-24 (see Table 2), showed there was a significant change in the recruit's perception of their role as police officer. Of the seven individual questions, two were statistically significant. Item 17 asked, "As a police officer, service to the community and helping people is more important than strict enforcement of the law." Results ($t=2.46$, Sig .017) indicated that the mean response increased from 3.24 during the first week of training to 3.61 on the last week of academy training. The second significant item (#22) asked, "As a police officer I should have a large amount of discretion in making decisions on the street." Results ($t=3.09$, Sig .003) showed a mean response increase from 3.62 from the first week of training to 4.09 at the last week of training.

Table 2:

Recruit Perceptions of the Police Role

Measure	Mean	Std. <u>Deviation</u>	t-score	df	p
Item 17: As a police officer, service to the community and helping people is more important than strict enforcement of the law.	3.25	1.33	-2.45	78	.01
Item 18: As a police officer, the focus of your on the job efforts should be crime fighting and strict enforcement of the law.	.05	1.38	.33	78	.75
Item 19: As a police officer, Informal means of resolving disputes is generally better	-.17	1.44	-1.03	77	.31
Item 20: Making large numbers of arrests is the best way to control crime	1.18	1.43	-1.10	78	.27
Item 21: The purpose of the law is to punish	-.25	1.55	-1.41	74	.16
Item 22: As a police officer I should have a large amount of discretion in making decisions on the street	-.47	1.36	-3.09	77	.00
Item 23: I feel my role as a police officer is very clearly defined	-.10	1.76	-.51	78	.61
Item 24: I feel that the police academy clearly defines my role as a law enforcement officer in most situations	-.17	1.52	-.97	77	.34

The second section of the questionnaire, consisting of items 25-45 attempted to gain a measure of the recruit's beliefs and perceptions about domestic violence (see Table 3). When taken together this group of twenty questions showed no significant change ($t=1.63$, $Sig .108$). The mean response to these questions on the first week of the academy 2.78. At the completion of training, the mean response to the same group of questions was 2.71.

Table 3:

Recruit Attitudes Toward Domestic Violence

Measure	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-score	df	p
Item 25: Domestic violence is a criminal offense	.00	1.69	.00	76	1.00
Item 26: Most people turn a blind eye to or	.00	1.56	.00	77	1.00
Item 27: Most people who experience domestic	-.19	1.29	-1.31	78	.19
Item 28: It is hard to understand why women stay	.56	.61	-3.09	77	.00
Item 29: Domestic violence is more likely to	.19	1.21	1.39	78	.17
Item 30: Domestic violence is a matter best	.23	1.62	1.26	77	.21
Item 31: Domestic violence rarely happens in	.21	1.65	1.11	76	.27
Item 32: Domestic violence can be excused if	.16	1.94	.75	78	.45
Item 33: Domestic violence is more frequent	.17	1.58	.94	76	.35
Item 34: Same sex couples do not have the same	.20	1.82	.99	78	.33
Item 35: The decision to arrest an offender in a	.29	1.55	1.68	77	.09
Item 36: If a victim of domestic violence really	.24	1.57	1.38	76	.17
Item 37: Victims of domestic violence use the	.12	1.68	.62	76	.54
Item 38: It does not matter if police arrest	.06	1.62	.35	76	.73
Item 39: Victims of domestic violence change	.18	1.37	1.16	76	.25
Item 40: Parties involved in domestic violence	.03	1.33	.17	75	.86
Item 41: Domestic violence should be handled by	-.06	1.52	-.38	76	.71
Item 42: Compared with other law enforcement	-.22	1.68	-1.16	76	.25
Item 43: The police should handle a domestic	-.19	1.48	-1.16	76	.25
Item 44: Domestic incidents should be referred to	-.19	1.50	-1.08	74	.29
Item 45: The most dangerous time for a victim of	-.35	1.78	-1.69	74	.09

Only one item (#28) showed significant change ($t=3.09$, $Sig .003$). This question asks, "it is hard to understand why women stay in relationships." The mean response to this question shifted from a neutral position (3.32) to disagreement (2.76).

The third section of the questionnaire, consisting of questions 46-53, were drawn from Mignone's 2005 replication study of Niederhoffer's research (see Table 4 for a summary of the results). When this group of questions were analyzed together there was no statistically significant change during the eight weeks of police academy training ($t=.111$, Sig .91). Furthermore, none of the individual questions analyzed were statistically significant when analyzed separately.

Table 4:

Recruit Attitudes Toward Citizen Encounters

Measure	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-score	df	p
Item 46: The average arrest is made because the	-.107	1.53	-.60	74	.55
Item 47: The average arrest is made because the	.17	1.69	.88	75	.38
Item 48: The average arrest is made because the	.05	1.73	.27	74	.79
Item 49: Arrests are made by officers based on	.04	1.58	.22	74	.83
Item 50: The public show a lot of respect for	.07	1.46	.39	74	.69
Item 51: The public is eager to cooperate with	.05	1.30	.36	73	.77
Item 52: The public usually has to be forced to	.01	1.22	.09	75	.93
Item 53: The public is more likely to obstruct	-.04	1.29	-.27	75	.79

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The hypothesis of this study was that the Regional Law Enforcement Academy does not significantly change the attitudes of the recruits toward their role as police officers and perceptions of domestic violence. The purpose of the study was to determine if the academy does change the perceptions and attitudes of the recruits, is the change statistically significant, to what extent do they change, and in what direction. The results indicate that to a limited degree shifts in attitudes do exist. From the fifty-three-item survey, three questions were statistically significant (5%). The change in mean response for items related to perceptions of the police role indicated a shift away from a crime control mindset to service-oriented view of the job. This was considered a positive result in light of public criticism of law enforcement and that community policing efforts center around a service-oriented approach rather than a strictly legalistic approach to policing. As mentioned previously, item 17 was statistically significant ($t=2.46$, Sig .02). This item asks, “As a police officer, service to the community is more important than strict enforcement of the law.” This suggests that the recruit’s attitudes shifted away from a neutral position to agreement with the concept that providing service to the community is more important strict law enforcement or “crime fighting”. This is a positive outcome in light of the complexities of domestic violence. Ford’s research (1983) highlighted the challenges faced by communities and law enforcement in addressing domestic violence. Among the complaints from the victims of domestic violence were that they felt re-victimized by the response of police officers. Victims reported that a purely legalistic or enforcement approach to domestic disturbances is not only what they do not desire but that in some instances in exacerbates the original problem. Miller’s (1983) work asserted that

conflict and distrust between communities and law enforcement is borne out of the contrast between expectations and attitudes of the police and community.

Additionally, the Regional Law Enforcement Academy and the profession of law enforcement has emphasized a return to a service-oriented approach to policing through community policing efforts. The results of the survey suggest that this preferred doctrine of policing is being effectively transmitted and accepted by the recruits in training. Mignone's (2005) replication study of Niederhoffer's (1968) research asserted that generational changes within the police workforce might play a role as well in the current attitudes of new police officers. These generational changes within the police workforce, according to Mignone, are diversity in gender, ethnicity, race, and educational attainment. Niederhoffer's sample group did not contain any females and educational levels were lower than Mignone's sample group (2005). These generational differences may account for changes in the recruit's perception of their role as police officers. The crime-fighting image is likely to persist among law enforcement officers and agencies as it has for decades (Manning, 1977). In recent years, law enforcement has been attempting to reframe itself and its role in the eyes of the public. Militarization of the police has been an area of controversy and following high profile events such as Ferguson, Missouri (2014), and Baltimore (2015) there has been increased pressure for law enforcement to re-examine police-community relations (Rivera, 2015). Any efforts by police academies and law enforcement agencies to promote progressive reforms should be encouraged.

The second significant item (#22) asked, "As a police officer I should have a large amount of discretion in making decisions on the street." Results ($t=-3.09$, $\text{Sig.} .00$) showed a mean increase from 3.62 from the first week of training to 4.09 at the last week of training. This suggests that recruits again moved away from a more neutral position toward an affirmative position. During the

training process, the recruit's opinion shifted to recognize that they should have a large amount of discretion when making decisions in the field. These results indicate that the recruit likely recognize the complexities and uniqueness of street encounters. Because situations are as varied as the human beings that create them. There is no rote response to all calls for law enforcement service. Officers must balance the demands of statutory law, city and county ordinances, departmental policy, characteristics and idiosyncrasies of the situation, desires of victims, viability of the case, willingness of witnesses to cooperate, and officer's assessment of the situation, which involves his own experience, training, and value judgements (Kleinig, 1996).

The results of this study indicate that during the course of the training at the Regional Law Enforcement Academy the recruit gains an understanding of the important role discretion provides. It should be noted that the ability of an officer to make discretionary decisions remains controversial (Kleinig, 1996). Two criminal offenses in particular have attempted to limit officer discretion. These limitations on officer discretion were implemented to curb perceived neglect of duties or abuses of discretionary authority. The first of these were driving under the influence statutes. D.U.I. statutes have established through field sobriety testing protocols a minimum acceptable performance level for divided attention tasks such as the walk and turn, horizontal gaze nystagmus, and balance evaluations as well as legal blood alcohol content level. Statutes mandate an arrest of a driver who fails to adequately perform field sobriety evaluations (T.C.A. 55-10-401). Refusal to submit to chemical or breath tests by the driver mandates driver license suspension under implied consent statutes. Presumably these laws were enacted to prevent officers from simply following an intoxicated driver home or allowing the driver to "sleep it off" in their vehicle.

Domestic violence statutes also mandate arrest if evidence exists that can identify the primary aggressor and there is sufficient probable cause that a crime has been committed (T.C.A.

39-13-111). As stated previously, officers have historically been reluctant to involve themselves in family violence. As the official training bulletin from the City of Oakland (1975) details, the role of the officer is that of “mediator” and “peacemaker” and arrests should be avoided. The bulletin advises officers that in those cases where victims insist on arrest the officer should strongly discourage prosecution. Practices such as these were widespread in times past and inevitably left many victims of abuse at the mercy of perpetrators. Legislation such as VAWA (Violence Against Women Act) of 1994, the Minneapolis Domestic Violence Experiment (1981-82) and a series of replication studies (Omaha, Nebraska, Charlotte, North Carolina, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, Miami-Dade County, Florida, and Colorado Springs, Colorado) were driving influences to the implementation of mandatory arrest legislation. This legislation greatly curtailed an officer’s discretionary authority in cases of domestic violence. Victim advocate groups, law enforcement, social services, and politicians believed these measures would increase safety and decrease violence against women. This notion is still debated even by the original authors of the MDVE, Larry Sherman, who later changed his position on mandatory arrest based on Stark’s work (1993) showing that violence among some offenders increased following arrest.

Domestic violence incidents vary greatly in frequency, intensity, and potential for violence. According to Stark (1993), victims do not prefer arrest as a remedy for domestic violence. Stark stated “Allowing women and the police the discretion to decide whether arrest should occur satisfies the consumer interest of the former and sustains the morale of the latter” (Stark, 1993). The Supreme Court case of Castle Rock v. Gonzales questioned the validity of mandatory arrest. The challenges of balancing the aims of advocacy groups, the desires of politicians and law enforcement agency heads, and the preferences of victims and police offices is likely to present a challenge. Sherman, in contrast to his earlier position advocating mandatory arrest, supported what he termed “structured discretion” for police officers. This would be an informed, ethical decision

making process. Ford's (1983) research on intimate partner violence found that officer expressed profound frustration in dealing with domestic violence. Mandatory arrest, as stated previously, does not alleviate the problem. This knowledge combined with Stark's work (1993) found that victims resist interventions, which do not work. Police officers reported that among their frustrations in dealing with domestic violence were repeat calls to the same residence and uncooperative victims. Although the focus of this study is not the utility or effectiveness of police discretion, providing officers with more latitude in making decisions on the street may increase their efficacy and decrease their frustration of having limited means to address a complicated issue such as family violence.

The development of cynicism, according to Graves (1996), is borne out of the contrast between what officers "want to accomplish" versus "what they can accomplish". This is an important distinction in answering domestic violence calls. Officers who are left with narrow parameters and legally mandated remedies, which do not match situations they are presented with, could easily become frustrated with the lack of effectiveness of their response and reluctance of victims to cooperate with prosecution (Ford, 1983, Stark, 1993). Granting police officers more discretionary decision making in domestic violence incidents would be controversial and would likely result in claims that protections for victims have been removed. More research into the effectiveness and utility of discretionary decision making for police in domestic violence incidents and the satisfaction of parties involved in domestic violence incidents resolved by police, might answer those questions.

The second section of the questionnaire, consisting of items 25-45 showed that only one question of twenty was statistically significant. When taken together however, this group of questions showed no statistical change ($t=1.63$, $Sig .108$). The mean response to these questions on

the first week of the academy was 2.78. At the completion of training, the mean response to same group of questions was 2.71. Item 28 was the only question that showed significant change ($t=3.09$, Sig .00). This question asks, “It is hard to understand why women stay in violent relationships”. The mean response to this question shifted from a neutral position (3.32) to disagreement (2.76). From an instructor’s standpoint, this should be viewed as a positive change. This shift in opinion suggests that the recruits have gained some insight into the psychology of domestic violence. Victims of domestic violence choose to remain in violent relationships for a number of reasons. Those reasons can include practical matters such as financial dependence, children, need for shelter, isolation, or estrangement from immediate family.

Cultural norms may play a role also. Additionally victims choose to stay for emotional reasons including love for the abuser and psychological dependence. To some degree, officers may be able to address the immediate needs of victims in terms of short-term shelter and safety for the victim and children. Law enforcement however cannot resolve problems that arise from financial dependence on the abuser. Police officers also cannot directly influence factors such as psychological dependence or love for the abuser. However if the instructional staff at the Regional Law Enforcement Academy can provide a more complete understanding of these influences it may in turn mitigate the development of frustration among patrol officers responding to domestic violence incidents. Frustration with the behavior of victims may be an outgrowth of a lack of understanding of victim behavior in family violence incidents. Further evidence from the questionnaire reinforces the notion that the recruits gain an understanding of the dynamics of domestic violence during their training at the Regional Law Enforcement Academy. Item 45 asks, “The most dangerous time for a victim of domestic violence is when they decide to leave the relationship.” The opinion of the recruits showed movement from no opinion (mean response=3.67) to agreement at the completion of training (mean response=4.01). The reader

should bear in mind that though this item did not show statistical significance the raw data indicated movement from a neutral opinion to agreement that the recruits recognize after training that the highest likelihood for violence against the victim is when she makes the decision to leave the relationship. This understanding is critical primarily for the safety of victims but also for responding officers. Advice from officers such as “Why don’t you just leave?” may prove to be dangerous or lethal if the officer does not appreciate the level of threat it presents for the victims. As stated previously, if officers can be provided with adequate training in the dynamics of domestic violence and the complexities that these calls for service can generate, it may be possible to mitigate frustration among police officers.

When questions 25-45 were analyzed together, they did not show statistical significance. One possible explanation for this is that for many of the recruits attending the academy the reality of domestic violence is purely academic. The exposure of most recruits in the academy is isolated to a training environment, isolated from the realities of family violence incidents. The questions presented in this survey document ask questions that may be more accurately measured following real-world exposure. For example, Item 31 asks, “Domestic violence rarely occurs in wealthy neighborhoods.” Item 37 asks, “Victims of domestic violence use the police to threaten their partner when they become angry.” Item 38 asks, “It does not matter if police arrest domestic violence offenders because the victims will eventually return to living with their partner.” Item 39 “Victims of domestic violence change their mind about what happened when they get to court.” Item 40 “Parties involved in domestic violence frequently lie about what happened to the police.” Item 44 asks, “Domestic incidents should be referred to other agencies and professionals other than law enforcement.” These items, with the exception of item 28, were not statistically significant but these questions imply that the person answering the questions has some previous exposure to law enforcement and domestic violence in the field. During their academy training the recruits are

insulated from the realities of patrol work and will not be exposed to real world policing until after academy graduation and they enter field training with their agency.

Ford's (1983) research on the opinions of police officers toward intimate partner violence cited that the frustrations of police officers were difficulty in determining the primary aggressor, acting outside their role as police officers, lack of training, victims returning to their abusers multiple times, intoxicated victims and offenders, and victims who are uncooperative with interventions and prosecutions. All of the stressors reported by police officers in his work in addition to that of Horowitz, et al. (2011) were generated by repeated field contacts that the recruits in the police academy have not yet experienced. Additional research is needed to confirm the assertion that police officers develop strong opinions about domestic violence incidents after the academy and following years of exposure to domestic violence in the field. A longitudinal study could be conducted to determine the extent of this change of opinion. Ford's study on intimate partner violence would suggest that not only will the opinions become more pronounced but will likely become more negative. Ellis (1991) noted in his study of Canadian police officers that attitudes worsen over time and this change occurs early in their careers by stating that "They (the recruits) operate according to stereotypes acquired through the entertainment media, and have a picture of policing which emphasizes excitement and challenge but reflects little to no awareness of the routine, the paperwork, the stress, and the gritty realities" (Ellis, 1991).

The third section of the questionnaire, consisting of questions 46-53, were drawn from Mignone's 2005 replication of Niederhoffer's research. When this group of questions were analyzed together there was no statistical change during the eight weeks of police academy training ($t=.111$, $\text{Sig } .912$). Furthermore, none of the individual questions analyzed were statistically significant when analyzed separately. The purpose of these question was to attempt to gain a

measure of cynicism among the recruits. The lack of statistical significance for this group of questions is likely due to the nature of the questions themselves. These eight items, as was the case for items 25-45, imply that the person answering the survey has had extensive field contact with the public in the role of a police officer. For example, item 47 asks, “In most domestic violence situations, an arrest is made because the complainant insisted on it.” Item 52 asks, “The public usually has to be forced to cooperate with police officers.” Item 53 asks, “The public is more likely to obstruct police work if it can, than cooperate.” These attitudes are likely to change with field experience. This was supported by research by Ford and Burke (1983), Horowitz, et al. (2011), and Ellis (1991) who all agreed that it is repeated, negative contacts with domestic violence that breeds frustration and cynicism among police officers in the field. Niederhoffer asserted (1969) that cynicism found in police recruits was not truly cynicism. Niederhoffer concluded instead that recruits in the academy were expressing what he termed “pseudo-cynicism”. He explained pseudo-cynicism as an attitude that does not reflect a reaction to actual exposure to police work, but rather an attempt by the recruits to mirror attitudes displayed by veteran officers. Changes in attitudes of police recruits about domestic violence could more accurately be measured through a longitudinal study that follows their career from the academy through a number of years in the field. The focus of this study however was to attempt to measure the effectiveness of the domestic violence-training curriculum of the Regional Law Enforcement Academy in an attempt to provide an exploratory understanding of the issue at hand.

Conclusion

The results of this study clearly indicate that although small shifts in attitude do occur in the academy, overall the training provided by the Regional Law Enforcement Academy does not significantly change the recruit’s perception of their role as police officers, domestic violence, or their

attitudes toward the community. Research by Niederhoffer (1967), Manning (1977), Ford (1983), Miller (1983), Brown (1998), and Ellis (1991) concluded that role conflicts will be encountered very soon after the academy and that these role conflicts tend to lead to apathy, frustration, and cynicism. The results of this study's analysis of the recruit's perceptions of their role as police officers are encouraging in that it appears the Regional Law Enforcement Academy's program positively influences those perceptions. This should be tempered with the knowledge that these attitudes are likely to change soon after the police academy is completed and the new officers have worked in the field.

The second section of the questionnaire, recruit attitudes toward domestic violence, only showed statistical change for one of a group of twenty questions. The questions in this section relied heavily on a relatively uninformed opinion of the academy recruit. Similar to the recruit's perception of the police role, the results of the survey exist in isolation to the recruit's experience with domestic violence in the role of a police officer. Research by Ford (1983), Miller (1983), Ellis (1991), and Horowitz, et al. (2011) found that repeated exposure to domestic violence incidents results in frustration, apathy, and the development of cynicism for police officers. Their research suggests that following the police academy and repeated experience with domestic violence incidents, recruit attitudes toward domestic violence will dramatically change and that change will be negative.

The last section of the questionnaire, recruit attitudes toward police/citizen interactions showed no statistical change from the first week of the academy to the last full day of academy training eight weeks later. These results demonstrate consistency with both Niederhoffer's (1969) work and Mignone's (2005) replication study on police cynicism. Mignone's replication found that cynicism among police recruits in the academy was nearly non-existent and idealism was high.

Niederhoffer's original study found cynicism among police recruits in the New York City Police Department's Academy however; he doubted the genuine nature of the cynicism he measured. Rather, he believed that cynicism at this early stage was not truly cynicism but an attempt by the recruit officers to fit in and conform their attitudes to those they observed among veteran officers. This conclusion was supported by the research of Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce (2010), Tuohy (1975), and Enkman (1999) who all found that recruit's would adjust and conform their attitudes and even their individuality to assimilate the larger group practices. This is an effort on the part of the new recruits to fit in with the work group. Rokeach's (1971) work is in line with these findings though he believed that the effect of socialization was not quite as dramatic. Rokeach (1971), Conti (2010), Fielding (1988), and Reiner's (1992) support the idea that socialization exerts powerful forces on new police officers but that ultimately the individual officer decides how much of an influence those forces will have on their established attitudes and belief systems. Niederhoffer (1969) and Mignone (2005) concluded in their separate studies that the effects of cynicism are more likely to appear after the police recruit leaves the academy and are exposed to the corrosive influences of police work.

Recommendations

A major concern for law enforcement agencies is the provision of services that prevent and effectively address violence and preserve the safety of the public. This study was limited in scope to the opinions of new police officers attending one of eleven academies in the State of Tennessee. The questionnaire represents the responses from individuals entering the profession of policing who are, according to the work of Niederhoffer (1967), Mignone (2005) should be exhibiting the highest levels of idealism, and genuine cynicism should be non-existent. Research by Ford (1983), Miller (1983), Ellis (1991), and Horowitz, et al. (2011) asserted that the attitudes of police officers

would change after the police academy and repeated exposure to the corrosive influences of police work. These researchers also concluded that these changes in attitude would be soon after the academy and those changes would be negative.

This researcher would strongly suggest a longitudinal study that follows individuals over a longer period from their entry into the academy, through the field training process, and after some time operating independently as a fully trained police officer. The inclusion of a larger, more diverse sample population would likely yield more informative results. The suggested longer examination period may also facilitate the use of stronger statistical tests of significance. The results of a study like this could help police administrators determine with more precision when these changes in attitude occur and develop strategies to arrest or mitigate them. If the development of preventative or mitigating strategies to address development of negative attitudes and cynicism can be effectively implemented, there may be an improvement in the quality of services provided to the victims of family violence. These changes would benefit both law enforcement and the citizens they are sworn to serve.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Sample Questionnaire

The following is a survey to measure the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of police recruits toward domestic violence. Your responses to the questionnaire will be held in strict confidence and will not be revealed to police academy, Walters State Community College, or police administration of any police or sheriff's department as applicable. Your responses are for the purposes of research and any identifying information will be deleted on completion of this study.

Jeffrey T. Gazzo

CONFIDENTIAL

For items # 17-53 please select the answer which most closely describes your opinion. (1-strongly

1. Age disagree 2- disagree 3- neither agree nor disagree 4-agree 5-strongly agree).
2. Gender: Male _____ Female _____
3. Race / Ethnicity: White _____ Black _____ Asian/Pacific Islander _____ Hispanic _____ Native American _____ Other _____
4. Highest Level of Education: G.E.D. _____ H.S. Diploma _____ Associate Degree _____ Bachelor's Degree _____ Master's Degree _____
5. Marital Status: Married _____ Single _____ Divorced _____ Separated _____
6. Do you have children: Yes _____ No _____
7. Are you attending the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy as astudent?
8. Are you a graduating sophomore from Walter's State Community College's Criminal Justice Program completing your degree by attending the police academy? Yes _____ No _____
9. If you are attending the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement academy as a graduating sophomore from Walter's State Community College's Criminal Justice Program to complete your degree; do you intend to pursue Law Enforcement as a career?
Yes _____ No _____
10. Are you employed by a Law Enforcement Agency? Yes _____ No _____
11. If you are employed by a Law Enforcement Agency, are you employed in a full time,sworn capacity? Yes _____ No _____
12. Are you a Reserve Officer? Yes _____ No _____
13. Are you a Corrections Officer? Yes _____ No _____
14. Prior to attending the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy, were you employed by another Law Enforcement agency as a sworn officer? Yes _____ No _____

15. If you were employed by a Law Enforcement Agency as a sworn officer prior to attending the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy, how long were you employed in that position? 1-5 years 6-11 years 12-17 years _____
18-23 years _____ 24-25 years _____ 26 years or more _____
16. If you were employed by a Law Enforcement Agency as a sworn officer prior to attending the East Tennessee Regional Law Enforcement Academy, what was the highest rank you attained? _____
17. As a police officer, service to the community and helping people is more important than strict enforcement of the law. 1 2 3 4 5
18. As a police officer, the focus of your on the job efforts should be crime fighting and strict enforcement of the law: 1 2 3 4 5
19. As a police officer, informal means of resolving disputes are generally better: 1 2 3 4 5
20. Making large numbers of arrests is the best way to control crime: 1 2 3 4 5
21. The purpose of the law is to punish: 1 2 3 4 5
22. As a police officer I should have a large amount of discretion in making decisions on the street: 1 2 3 4 5
23. I feel my role as a police officer is very clearly defined: 1 2 3 4 5
24. I feel that the police academy clearly defines my role as a law enforcement officer in most situations: 1 2 3 4 5
25. Domestic Violence is a criminal offense: 1 2 3 4 5
26. Most people who experience domestic violence are reluctant to go to the police: 1 2 3 4 5
27. Most people turn a blind eye to or ignore domestic violence: 1 2 3 4 5
28. It is hard to understand why women stay in violent relationships: 1 2 3 4 5
29. Domestic violence is more likely to occur in migrant families: 1 2 3 4 5
30. Domestic violence is a matter best handled within the family: 1 2 3 4 5
31. Domestic violence rarely happens in wealthy neighborhoods: 1 2 3 4 5
32. Domestic violence can be excused if alcohol is involved: 1 2 3 4 5
33. Domestic violence is more frequent among racial minorities: 1 2 3 4 5
34. Same sex couples do not have the same legal rights and protections under domestic violence law as traditional male / female couples: 1 2 3 4 5
35. The decision to arrest an offender in a domestic violence situation should rest with the victim: 1 2 3 4 5
36. If a victim of domestic violence really wanted to leave they would: 1 2 3 4 5
37. Victims of domestic violence use the police to threaten their partner when they become angry: 1 2 3 4 5
38. It does not matter if police arrest domestic violence offenders because the victims will eventually return to living with their partner: 1 2 3 4 5
39. Victims of domestic violence change their mind about what happened when they get to court: 1 2 3 4 5

40. Parties involved in domestic violence frequently lie about what happened to the police: 1 2
3 4 5
41. Domestic violence should be handled by social workers and counselors rather than law enforcement: 1 2 3 4 5
42. Compared with other law enforcement activities, a domestic is not real police work: 1 2 3 4
5
43. The police should handle a domestic violence incident similar to a detective: 1 2 3 4 5
44. Domestic incidents should be referred to other agencies and professionals other than law enforcement: 1 2 3 4 5
45. The most dangerous time for a victim of domestic violence is when they decide to leave the relationship: 1 2 3 4 5
46. In most domestic violence situations, an arrest is made because the officer is dedicated to perform his/her duty properly: 1 2 3 4 5
47. In most domestic violence situations, an arrest is made because the complainant insisted on it: 1 2 3 4 5
48. In most domestic violence situations, an arrest is made because the officer could not avoid it without getting in trouble: 1 2 3 4 5
49. In most domestic violence situations, arrests are made by officers based on their own ideas of right and wrong: 1 2 3 4 5
50. The public shows a lot of respect for police officers: 1 2 3 4 5
51. The public is eager to cooperate with police officers to help them perform their duties better: 1 2 3 4 5
52. The public usually has to be forced to cooperate with police officers: 1 2 3 4 5
53. The public is more likely to obstruct police work if it can, than cooperate: 1 2 3 4 5

Appendix B
Police Academy Curriculum

**RULES
OF
THE TENNESSEE PEACE OFFICER
STANDARDS AND TRAINING
COMMISSION**

**CHAPTER 1110-07
BASIC TRAINING ACADEMY MINIMUM**

1110-07-.01 MINIMUM CURRICULA REQUIREMENTS.

- (1) Basic Course. The Commission shall approve a program of instruction comprising fundamental law enforcement skills and knowledge, which shall be designated as the Basic Law Enforcement Course.
 - (a) Length. The Basic Law Enforcement Course shall include a minimum of 400 hours of instruction and study.
 - (b) Format. The Basic Law Enforcement Course shall have a curriculum format that contains the following elements:
 - 1. Firearms - 40 hours.
 - (i) Weapons safety, nomenclature and maintenance.
 - (ii) For handguns, stances and firing positions to include: Kneeling, standing, prone, off-hand, barricade, one- and two-hand grip.
 - (iii) Double or single action (depending upon Department approved weapon)
 - (iv) Fifty (50) rounds.
 - (v) Shall not be fired beyond 25 yards.
 - (vi) Student must demonstrate a proficiency of at least 75% both during day and darkness on all weapons issued or authorized by student's department.

- (vii) Demonstrate a proficiency of at least 75% on a stress exertion course which has a laterally moving target.
- 2. Emergency Medical Training - 10 hours.
 - (i) Basic First Aid and CPR; infectious diseases; pathogens.
 - (ii) Airborne and blood pathogens
- 3. Patrol Procedures - 75 hours.
 - (i) Traffic accident investigation.
 - (ii) Various types.
 - (iii) Observation technique.
 - (iv) Officer survival tactics.
 - (v) Crime in progress.
 - (vi) Traffic control.
 - (vii) Crime scene and evidence protection and gathering to include chain of evidence.
 - (viii) Communication procedures.
 - (ix) Child sexual abuse investigation (minimum three (3) hours).
 - (x) Crisis intervention (domestic disputes).
- 4. Interpersonal Communications - 25 hours.
 - (i) Interview witnesses.
 - (ii) Interview victims.
 - (iii) Basic Street Spanish.
 - (iv) Field interviews.
 - (v) Police citizen contacts.
- 5. Professional and Ethical Conduct - 3 hours.

- (i) IACP Code of Ethics.
 - (ii) Political influence on law enforcement.
6. Physical Defense Tactics - 40 hours.
- (i) Physical trainingfitness.
 - (ii) Suspect control.
 - (iii) Various unarmed self defensivetactics.
 - (iv) Baton use, if used by department.
 - (v) Control of the emotionally disturbed.
7. Criminal and Constitutional Law and Procedures - 50 hours.
- (i) Restraint of police powers vs. citizens as dictated by court decisions in the area of the 1st, 4th, 5th, 6th, 8th, and 14th Amendments.
 - (ii) Post-arrest and pre-trial statutory procedure.
 - (iii) Civil liability of police.
 - (iv) Criminal offenses (to include traffic) and local ordinances (where applicable).
8. Written Communications - 10 hours.
- (i) Police reports (all types).
 - (ii) Emphasis on elements of crimes in written narratives.
 - (iii) Report writing skills.
9. Human Relations - 30 hours.
- (i) Sociology of groups, ethnic and racial.
 - (ii) Psychology of human behavior.
 - (iii) Basic street gang culture.
 - (iv) Sexual harassment.

(v) Domestic terrorism.

10. Criminal Justice System - 11 hours.

(i) Role of courts.

(ii) Role of various police agencies.

(iii) Role of correctional system.

(iv) Courtroom security.

(v) Civil process.

11. Law Enforcement Stress - 9hours.

(i) Recognizing the symptoms of Law Enforcement stress and coping mechanisms.

(ii) Law Enforcementmarriages.

(iii) Nutrition and healthmanagement.

12. Administration - 3 hours.

(i) Director's prerogative.

13. Emergency Vehicle Operations - 40hours.

(i) Day and nightcourse.

- (ii) The officer/student will drive a law enforcement equipped vehicle at constant speeds through a cone marked serpentine course using the slip steering method. Forward and Reverse
 - (iii) The officer will back a law enforcement equipped vehicle in a straight line under full acceleration.
 - (iv) The officer will bring a law enforcement equipped vehicle to a complete stop from a speed of 40 miles per hour on a dry asphalt surface within a distance of 75 feet without sliding the tires on the pavement.
 - (v) The officer will twice parallel park his vehicle in a cone marked space 24 feet long (once looking over his left shoulder and once looking over his right shoulder).
 - (vi) Given a cone marked lane 30 feet wide with two recessed areas to simulate driveways, the officer will change his direction of travel by 180° two times.
 - (vii) Given a cone marked lane 12 feet wide, the officer will drive his vehicle forward, steer through the course to the adjacent lane where indicated and then return to the original lane where indicated. The officer will then back the vehicle through the same course. The officer will go forward again to get back into the stream of traffic.
 - (viii) Given a cone marked double “S” curve with a 12 foot wide lane, the officer will drive forward to the end.
 - (ix) Events v, vi, vii, and viii must be time events.
 - (x) Pursuit driving.
 - (xi) Departmental policies, where applicable.
 - (xii) Vehicle familiarization.
14. National Safety Council Defensive Driving Course or comparable safety related course.

1110-07-.02 STAFFING.

- (1) Staffing Positions. The Basic Training Academies shall have a minimum staff of one (1) Director of Training/Principal Training Officer, one (1) full-time Certified Law Enforcement Instructor, and one (1) Secretary or Clerk/Typist.

- (a) The Director of Training/Principal Training Officer shall meet the law enforcement instructor certification requirements as set forth in T.C.A. §38-8-104, Section 1110-3-.03 of the Rules of the Tennessee Peace Officer Standards and Training Commission and all other requirements as set forth by T.C.A. §38-8-104 pertaining to the administration of a Basic Law Enforcement Academy. The Director may have other assigned duties within the organization.
 - 1. Responsibilities. The Director of Training/Principal Training Officer shall be responsible for, but not limited to : the development, organization, implementation, testing, and supervision of any course of study or instruction; maintaining all the necessary records pertaining to each student as required by T.C.A. §38-8; and testing materials and their administration as required by T.C.A. §38-8.
 - (b) The full-time Certified Law Enforcement Instructor shall meet the law enforcement Instructor certification requirements as set forth in T.C.A. §38-8-104 and Section 1110- 03-.03 of the Rules of the Tennessee Peace Officer Standards and Training Commission.
 - 1. Responsibilities. The full time Certified Police Instructor shall be responsible for, but not limited to: preparing lesson plans, preparing testing instruments, conducting classes, supervising class conduct at all times, assuring the safety of students, and accounting for class attendance.
 - (c) The Secretary/Clerk Typist is essential for maintaining records and conducting the necessary correspondence between the Academy, the POST Commission, and law enforcement agencies. This position may be filled by an existing secretary or clerk/typist, with these responsibilities being added to their work assignment.
- (2) Instructor Specifications. The instructor shall meet certain criteria in developing and maintaining a proper learning atmosphere for students. The Basic Law Enforcement Academy shall employ performance-oriented instructional methods that will provide opportunities for each student to demonstrate successful achievement of the established training objectives. This may be accomplished by the Academy management insuring that:
- (a) Each instructor is qualified to teach in his/her specific area of instruction.
 - (b) All instructors who teach part time for the agency which conducts a Basic Law Enforcement School, employed by the agency or employed outside the agency, must be qualified to teach in his/her specific area of instruction and, at the option of the training director, may be required to be POST Certified as an Instructor.

- (c) Each instructor (part-time and/or outside) is given the course description and instructional objectives for his/her instructional block and informed that his/her presentation must adhere to these guidelines.
- (d) Each instructor is periodically evaluated by Academy management to insure instructional competence.
- (e) Each instructor enforces the rules and regulations as outlined in this document.
- (f) Each instructor teaches from an approved and current lesson plan.
- (g) Each instructor informs each student of the ultimate performance objectives of his/her block of instruction at the beginning of each instructional period.
- (h) The instructor does not “teach the test.”
- (i) Each instructor sets the example for the student to follow, by paying particular attention to the areas of preparedness, honesty and integrity, approachability, and competence.

1110-07-.03 BUILDINGS AND FACILITIES.

- (1) Building and Classroom Facilities. All requirements listed must be met prior to POST inspection, for new facilities.
 - (a) The academy shall be in an area devoted to law enforcement training to ensure training facilities are undisturbed by outside, unrelated activities or noises.
 - (b) Class size shall be limited to a maximum of seventy-five (75) students. However, twenty (20) percent of the total class hours in the Basic School can be taught in a seminar setting; therefore a greater number than seventy-five (75) students may be allowed. No class other than the lecture-type setting can have more than seventy-five (75) students in any one classroom.
 - (c) Have adequate facilities for physical training activities to support the curriculum, i.e. multipurpose activity area or gym.
 - (d) The building must have adequate restroom, locker, and shower facilities for male and female students to meet state law for public facilities (in accordance with T.C.A. §68- 18-101 et seq. and Southern Building Codes).
 - (e) Must have administrative office space or designated area for the organization and filing of appropriate school administrative records, documents, and related school training data.

- (f) Must have library resources available to students, adequate to support the curriculum.
 - (g) Must have adequate movie and video equipment to support the curriculum.
 - (h) Must have a video tape and film library adequate to support the curriculum.
- (2) Firing Range Facilities.
- (a) Must have at least 20 firing points. All targets should have a minimum of four (4) foot centers.
 - (b) Must have at least 25 yard depth for firing at each point.
 - (c) Must have adequate off street parkingspace.
 - (d) Must have some form of combat/action-reaction course.
 - (e) Must have a laterally movingtarget.
 - (f) Must have a shotgun course (this can be laid out on an existing pistol course).
 - (g) Must comply with all State and local ordinances pertaining to range and firearms safety.
- (3) Police Driving SkillRange.
- (a) Must have adequate area available to teach basic police driving, stopping and parking maneuvers.
 - (b) Must have anadequate area available to teach advanced driving techniques.
 - (c) Must have adequate off street parkingspace.
 - (d) Must meet all state and city ordinances and laws.

1110-07-04 RECORD KEEPING.

- (1) All Training Academies will maintain a permanent training record file on each student attending the Academy. This file shall include all records pertaining to that student while attending that Academy.
- (2) Every Academy shall maintain an administrative file that pertains to each class it conducts. This file shall include, but not be limited to: curriculum, attendance records, discipline records, counseling records, tests and test answersheets..

- (3) Each Academy shall maintain all lesson plan files for each class and shall review for revisions annually. All training records shall be maintained in the administrative building of the academy.

1110-07-.05 CONTROL OF ENVIRONMENT.

- (1) Student Environment. Basic Training Academies must control the student environment in order to promote efficient learning through a controlled atmosphere.
- (a) A specified set of policies, procedures, and rules, as set forth by the POST Commission (which govern the behavior expected and required by students attending Basic Academy courses and to which each student must adhere if success in a course of instruction is completed), shall be adopted.
1. These rules should establish in a definitive manner the minimal acceptance level of performance regarding the following areas or controls:
- (i) Attendance
(ii) Tardiness
(iii) Dress code
(iv) Classroom demeanor
(v) Study
(vi) Guidelines for classroom discussion, Question and Answer Sessions, and disagreement with instructors.
(vii) Examination and Testing procedures
(viii) An Honor System for examinations
(ix) Classroom intrusions
(x) Specific procedures for students who fail to meet minimum requirements.
- (b) These rules shall be printed, handed out, and gone over with students prior to commencement of instruction in any given course.
- (c) A printed schedule of classes, along with accompanying course descriptions shall be adopted. This schedule should inform the student as to the course of study and general content of each instructional block.

1110-07-.06 COMPLIANCE. All basic training academies approved by the POST Commission shall meet the minimum standards as set forth in this chapter.

- (1) Initial Compliance. All new academies approved after the effective date of these rules, shall comply with the Basic Training Academy minimum standards as set forth in this chapter.

- (a) The POST Commission shall verify full compliance of all standards specified in this chapter prior to certification. Such verifications shall include, but not be limited to, an on-site inspection. A POST Commission designee shall conduct an initial on-site inspection prior to verification of compliance.
 - (b) Basic academies operated by a department for that department's personnel must demonstrate a need for an annual enrollment of 100 recruits.
 - (c) Basic academies for more than one (1) agency must have a total immersion training atmosphere with at least 400 hours in a dormitory environment.
 - (d) Upon verification of compliance with the standards set forth in this chapter, the POST Commission shall certify the academy.
 - (e) Annually, the Director of the Donelson Academy will schedule a meeting of all Training Directors and administrators of Basic Law Enforcement Academies statewide who shall attend for the purpose of curriculum review and standardization.
- (2) Continuing Compliance. All Basic Training Academies certified by the Post Commission shall continue to meet the Basic Training Academy minimum standards as set forth in this chapter, and each academy has a continuing duty to notify the Commission when out of compliance at any time.
- (a) Annual Report. Each academy shall submit an annual report to the Commission outlining continued compliance with minimum standards as set forth in this chapter on or before January 31 of the new year.
 - (b) Annual On-site Visit. Upon receipt of the annual report from a Basic Training Academy a POST Commission designee shall conduct an on-site visit to review continued compliance in all major areas of initial approval.
 - (c) Status Letter. Upon review of a Basic Training Academy's annual report and the completion of an on-site visit, the Commission shall issue a letter advising the academy of the status of its compliance.
- (3) Non-Compliance.
- (a) Each academy shall notify the Commission when out of compliance at any time.
 - (b) The Commission may consider, on a case-by-case basis, a request for waiver to provide the agency the opportunity to return to full compliance. In no case shall a waiver exceed one (1) year from the date of the request.

VITA

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