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THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

IN A COUNTY LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCY:

A TEST OF INTERPERSONAL RISK THEORY

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate

School of The Ohio State University

By

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* * * * *

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FIELDS OF STUDY

Major Fields: Law Enforcement/Corrections
                 Criminology
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This research is a study of the socialization pro-
cess in the work setting. It is also an effort to examine
the impact of that socialization process upon certain per-
sonality characteristics associated with the role of the
law enforcement officer. Knowledge about the socialization
of the law enforcement officer is of critical importance in
the administration of criminal justice because of its per-
vasive effect on job performance. As noted in the Presi-
dent's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of
Justice (1967):

> No one, of course, is more sensitive to demands for
> more law enforcement than the police themselves. They
> see the menace of crime most directly, and their lives
> are dominated by their professional task. In addition,
> they have encouraged and share the idea that they are
> inherently more capable of controlling crime than
> analysis has thus far shown them to be . . . naturally
> enough the police, like men in all occupations, tend to
> view problems in terms of their own function and have
> particular faith in their own skills to resolve them
> (p. 2).

1

This self-reliant and inward-looking aspect of the law enforcement sector of the criminal justice system creates unique and potentially serious socialization problems in our complex society. Socialization of the new law enforcement officer has been viewed as a set of attitudes toward his social environment, job assignment, rewards for accepted behaviors and the mutual influence process among peer group and reference group members. The literature of the law enforcement and criminal justice fields, however, presents little to be found on this important problem. This appears to be a surprising oversight in view of the importance of this sector of the public service. This study will attempt to throw light upon certain basic human variables associated with the law enforcement function.

In his everyday role, the law enforcement officer operates as an autonomous and independent member of the larger group. With almost no direct supervision and the broadest possible discretion, the policeman literally makes life and death decisions on the street. It is essential to a free and just society that the keepers of the law become socialized in a manner that provides benefits to that society. Sterling (1974) states:

>The socialization of [a] police recruit includes both adopting the norms of the police and dropping some of the norms of other groups. In learning the police role, the new recruit undertakes the complex process of learning not only knowledge and some skills, but also values, beliefs, attitudes, perceptions, patterns of response, a sense of rightness, and the unique meanings of certain symbols. Combined, the extensive learnings results in appropriate role behavior (p. 13).

This study attempts to examine some of the variables that have effect on the socialization of law enforcement officers of a large county department.

Niederhoffer (1967) and Sterling (1974) have indicated that research into and information on the static structural framework of police organizations is insufficient for explanation. They, like most other similar investigators, reason that remedial measures can be best developed only by an examination of the behavior of groups and individuals within the law enforcement agency. Research into the area of law enforcement organizations has generally failed to provide central concepts that can either bridge the structural-behavioral gap or improve understanding of police behavior.

The dynamics of socialization in the police setting have received relatively little attention. The process of social influence has been the only area to receive any great amount of exploration. Newcomb, Turner, and Converse

(1965) mentioned the general processes of reciprocal influence, but viewed them only from the standpoint of social facilitation and group reinforcement. Homans (1958, 1961) has offered a theory of exchange of valued commodities in terms of rewards and costs by individuals in their interpersonal behaviors.

Cartwright (1965) undertook a massive examination of the sometimes spongy and amorphous area of influence, leadership and control. As he noted:

> One thing is clear. The accomplishment of a genuinely comprehensive theory of social influence will require an acquaintance with research conducted in all the social science disciplines (p. 40).

The emphasis on the major topical headings in organization of research in the domains of influence and control has been on the agent O (the individual exerting influence) and the agent P (the subject of the influence). The method of exerting influence and the process itself has received less attention. There has been some movement in that direction, however, as noted by Cartwright (1965):

> There has been a tendency to focus attention either on O or on P at the expense of the other. Thus, for example, we tend to have one literature on leaders and one on followers rather than a single literature on the leader-follower relationship. Although it is true that much can be learned simply by considering the two literatures together, much is lost by not conceiving

the central problem of research as that of understanding the relationship itself (p. 41).

Other methodologies tend to focus on the problem in ways that do not fit neatly into one of the simple major headings generally accepted by influence theorists.

Lundstedt (1966) offers Interpersonal Risk (IR) theory which handles this problem in the following way:

The phenomenon described is more inclusive than trusting behavior alone. It involves an element of risk and utility, in addition to giving away influence and control. If one gives away influence and control of any kind one can find them used for one's own welfare, or against it. Such a risk factor always seems to be calculated by the individual on the basis of prior learning in which subjectively perceived risk is affected by the pattern of rewards coming from the exchanges in the interactions. If past experience has been rewarding, then the amount of subjective risk should be low. One should increasingly be apt to give away influence and control under this condition. The opposite would tend to be true if the amount of subjective interpersonal risk is high. There are many forms of personal control and influence that can be exchanged and given away.

The socialization of children is one such form. The young child literally gives away personal control and influence to parents, other adults, and older peers and siblings. When the child is successful in obtaining rewards for such behavior, the basic pattern of subjective interpersonal risk is low, and traditionally we speak of such a child as trusting, confident about others, and dependent on them. The child, moreover, is able to establish certain kinds of useful social relationships. Erikson (1963) calls this basic trust. He says: "The infant's first social achievement, then, is his willingness to let the mother out of sight without undue anxiety, or rage, because she has become an inner certainty as well as outer predictability." A

stochastic element in this statement is evident. The
human love relationship is another basic form in which
the quality of the social relationship is affected by
the rise and fall of subjectively perceived inter-
personal risk. A deep love relationship may be said
to be characterized by an almost complete exchange of
influence and control which one person has over an-
other. The familiar blinding trust of the love
relationship is something that happens only when the
probability of interpersonal risk has been reduced to
zero.

IR theory is not intended to be a general theory
of behavior, but a specific social psychological theory
bearing on a class of social relations in which there
is a distribution and exchange of personal influence
and control over others (all influence and control
possessed by the individual become personal). The
theory is intended to be heuristic, and should help to
explain as simple as possible first, second, third, and
higher order relations among key variables in social
interaction. The requirements of social living are
such that giving up some personal influence and control
over one's environment is a basic compromise for any
individual. Influence and control over others are thus
destined to be shared and exchanged in social life
compared with the so-called "state of nature" in which,
it has been said, there is predominately more individ-
ual freedom to make a lot of decisions than under a
socially determined environment in which there are
limits imposed by social norms (pp. 1-5).

IR theory has the potential for application to

other social phenomena. The present investigation secures

empirical data in an attempt to validate the underlying

concepts of IR theory and also to validate further the test

for these traits. In specific parts, the present study

will deal with the similarities and interlocking aspects

of two other theoretical constructs dealing with

organization and personality characteristics which are important in understanding the socialization process in law enforcement. These are: the Authoritarian Personality of Adorno, et al.,(1950), and the Organizational Characteristics Profile of Likert (1967). These are further explained and referenced in the following chapter, "Review of the Literature." Each of these, and Lundstedt's IR theory as well, have been operationalized by the use of standardized paper-and-pencil psychological tests.

In summary, this study attempts to determine important behavioral dimensions of the police socialization process. It will deal, in part, with both construct and content validity. By using instruments of known and tested content, their relationship with one another (or lack of it) allows us to attempt to interpret and define important behavioral dimensions each is measuring.

This study is not conducted just to compare traits on a number of selected scales, however, but seeks to accomodate and interrelate all of its findings in a quest for the deeper understanding of administrative and social processes in law enforcement. We would hope to develop a "nomological network" as described by Chronbach and Meehl (1967):

> Scientifically speaking, to "make clear what something is" means to set forth the laws in which it occurs. We shall refer to the interlocking system of laws which constitute a theory as a <u>nomological</u> <u>network</u>. The laws in a nomological network may relate (a) observable properties or quantities to each other, or (b) different theoretical constructs to one another. The "laws" may be statistical or deterministic (p. 26).

Aspects of interpersonal risk behavior, organizational climate, and authoritarianism will be examined in this study to determine if they are meaningfully related to the socialization process. With observable data and theoretical constructs, we shall attempt to place these concepts into a comprehensive nomological network.

The implications for the administration of law enforcement agencies, for the entire criminal justice system for that matter, are obvious. Emerging from the turbulent 60's, law enforcement officers have been labelled everything from "Pigs" to "City Savers." The knowledge of, and access to, some of the basic socialization processes of the law enforcement officer allows the administrator to better plan and organize to gain maximum utility from these processes.

This study may criticize some aspects of the law enforcement organization process. Stark (1972) points out that criticism is essential to improve police operations:

It is vulgar nonsense to be anti-police. Our society
could not exist without them. It is because they are
absolutely essential that it is so necessary to eval-
uate their performance. We must ask: Are they ful-
filling reasonable standards of competence? Are they
conducting themselves in ways which worsen some of the
problems they are supposed to relieve? These are not
anti-police questions, they are pro-police. Implicit
in each one is an effort to understand how to improve
the position of the police -- in a sense, how to make
their jobs easier and safer. Unfortunately, it is hard
to criticize the police and not seem to be their enemy.
In our present anxiety over law and order many claim
we must protect police morale at all costs and repress
all criticism. This is foolish and dangerous; there is
no prospect for law and order, let alone justice, so
long as substantial police misbehavior and incompetency
continue. Thus, not to criticize the police may well
be the most serious possible anti-police action (pp.
1-2).

This study will provide the police administrator

with another set of measurement tools with which he can

examine the status of the personnel and dynamics of his

organization.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The present research project has two fundamental
aspects: first, the problem of the socialization process
as it occurs in a police organization; and second, the
continuing process of adding to the body of research rele-
vant to the development of new knowledge about the role of
human behavior in the administration of justice. Each
aspect brings with it a separate background of research
and theoretical formulations.

Socialization

"Socialization" generally refers to "the adoption
and internalization by individuals of values, beliefs,
and ways of perceiving the world which are shared by a
group" (Jones and Gerard, 1967, p. 76). This is also noted
by Reiser (1974) as a very important aspect of organiza-
tional stress on policemen:

> One of the most profound pressures operating in
> police organizations is peer group influence. As with

adolescents, it is a particularly strong motivator because it has shaping influence on <u>attitudes</u>, <u>values</u>, <u>roles</u> and <u>operational</u> behavior at the street level. Identification with the group as "one of the boys" is a powerful, if not irresistible force (p. 158, italics mine).

This powerful, or irresistible, pressure toward the socialization process and adoption of group values is not unique to the police, however. Several research traditions have utilized the concept of socialization. Some aspects of role theory, learning theory and social influence theory converge in the socialization process. This process centers around the effects of, " . . . the confluence of the two great forces which shape all human thought and action -- the subtle manifestations of the unique personality of the individual and the massive impact of the group" (Krech, et al., 1962, p. 486).

The socialization process is most often associated with the child-rearing process by developmental psychologists. Brim (1966) and Wheeler (1966), among others, have viewed the socialization process after childhood as very important as well. Brim claims that, "The purposes of socialization are to give a person knowledge, ability, and motivation" (p. 25). He elaborates these views with a cross-classification of the three concepts with values and

behavior. The resulting paradigm is shown graphically by
a simple six-cell table.

TABLE 1

BRIM'S SOCIALIZATION PARADIGM

	Behavior	Values
Knowledge	A	B
Ability	C	D
Motivation	E	F

The use of the paradigm in the adult socialization process
is described by Brim:

> The usual concern of adult socialization is repre-
> sented by Cell A. Society assumes that the adult knows
> the values to be pursued in different roles, that he
> wants to pursue them with the socially appropriate
> means, and that all that may remain to be done is to
> teach him what to do. This is illustrated by the case
> of a military recruit. The training program starts at
> about the level of "This is a gun" and "This is how it
> is fired." If there are some things the individual is
> unable to do (Cell C), the training program seeks to
> upgrade his ability--for example, by instruction
> designed to reduce illiteracy. If he is unwilling to
> carry out his various tasks (Cell D), then motivational
> training occurs through administration of special
> rewards and punishments. It it appears that education
> about values is needed (Cell B), the individual is
> enrolled in a general orientation course on American
> values and the purpose of the wars; the "why we fight"
> training programs are instituted to provide an under-
> standing of the appropriate ends to be sought. If the

individual has serious conflicts within himself but
does his best, therapeutic procedures are instituted to
solve this problem, which lies in Cell D. Only in the
last analysis, when other possible types of deficien-
cies in socialization have been ruled out, is it
assumed that there is a problem in motivation toward
the appropriate values, the case represented by Cell F.
Such men are critical of the value system of their
society; in our country they may be pacifists, Commu-
nists, or members of other groups which reject tradi-
tional American values. Sometimes resocialization
efforts are launched in such cases, but more often
retraining of these individuals is considered to be an
impossible task, and they are jailed, ignored, or
relegated to marginal, inconsequential positions.

In general, then, socialization after childhood
deals primarily with overt behavior in the role and
makes little attempt to influence motivation of a
fundamental kind or to influence basic values. Society
is willing to spend much less time in redirecting the
motivation and values of adults than of children; for
the latter it is understood that this is a necessary
task of the institutions involved, such as the family,
and they are organized to carry out this function (pp.
26-27).

Also of interest for the purposes of this study is

the relationship between organizational goals and social

structure. Wheeler (1966) points out this particular

problem in the adult socialization process:

There are important differences both within and
among socializing organizations in the specificity or
generality of the goals set for members. Bidwell has
referred to this as a distinction between role sociali-
zation and status socialization. By role socialization
Bidwell means the training and preparation for per-
formance of specific tasks, and by status socialization
he refers to a broader pattern of training designed to
prepare the recruit to occupy a generalized status in
life with its associated life styles. Training in

engineering, typing, or forestry is largely training in role socialization; training in the liberal arts (except for those who are to become liberal arts teachers) is an example of status socialization, preparing the recruit with some of the general background necessary to enact the status of college graduate. In resocialization settings, vocational or educational training programs and the learning of specific trades are examples of role socialization, whereas participation in counseling, guidance, and spiritual or moral training sessions are examples of status socialization.

Often these two types of goals are seen as complementary, and effective socialization is assumed to involve movement toward both. Sometimes dynamic causal relations are presumed to exist between the two types (pp. 69-70).

This is further elaborated in terms especially related to the present study:

Since the goals of socializing organizations are typically also goals for their recruits, special problems are raised about participation in goal setting and the meshing of the recruits' objectives with those of the organization. Such organizations lack the generalized medium of exchange provided by money in most other production organizations. The staff of a mental hospital wants the patient to recover his mental health; the patient wants to get out of the hospital. Teachers wish their students to seek general knowledge; the student wants to pass examinations and get a degree. Socializing organizations apparently differ greatly in the extent of meshing of the goals, and also in how far recruits are allowed to participate in the determination of goals. But it is important to differentiate between participation in setting individual goals within the structure of the organization, and participation in establishing the goals and policies of the organization itself. Almost all high schools and colleges, for example, allow some flexibility in course programs for individual students, under the title of elective subjects. Some colleges, however, allow the students a wide range of participation in

collegiate decision-making, whereas others permit only
a pseudo-democratic show of participation and decision-
making in trivial issues. A sense of participation
may be particularly important in settings that effec-
tively cut the recruit off from other means of involve-
ment. One would predict, for example, that the effec-
tiveness of socialization would vary more with the
degree of participation in goal setting in institutions
that are relatively "total" than in those that less
effectively seal off the recruits' participation in
other spheres (pp. 71-72).

With the growth of the discipline of Social Psycho-

logy, the socialization process has received much more

attention from the perspective of social group membership.

This has lead to extensive research into the roles the

individual must perform within a number of groups in which

he must be a member. Role theory came to the fore in the

1930's, but it was not until after World War II that role

theory was used much as a theoretical schema for research.

Since that time the concept of role has had a lively his-

tory in the social sciences. Levinson (1959) notes this

is partly because these attempts have vacillated between

viewing role as an aspect of social structure and viewing

it as a description of socially relevant individual be-

havior.

This controversy is exacerbated by the problem of

reciprocal stimulation in group situations, capable of an

explanation only in interactional terms. It seems that the

determinants of overt response are in many respects the same as the determinants of perception of overt response in others. It is a problem of shared norms, including <u>roles</u> as norms for perceiving behaviors (Hollander and Hunt, 1963). This is a major part of the social reinforcement aspect of roles in the overall socialization process. Social psychological problems are probably best attacked in terms of interactional processes. How the social interaction in various forms reinforces or extinguishes behaviors and attitudes which affect group norms is partially a result of both role acquisition and social learning.

Learning theory is much too broad to be covered in its entirety in this study. Yet, certain aspects of learning theory can be useful in our understanding of the dynamics at work in the police socialization process. Learning a role is different from other kinds of learning. Socialization includes the learning of expected social responses to the performances of specific roles by other people (Sterling, 1974). The learning of the law enforcement officer's role is especially complex because he usually occupies a number of role positions at one time, both within and outside of the police organization. This problem is illustrated by Figure 1, revealing a complex
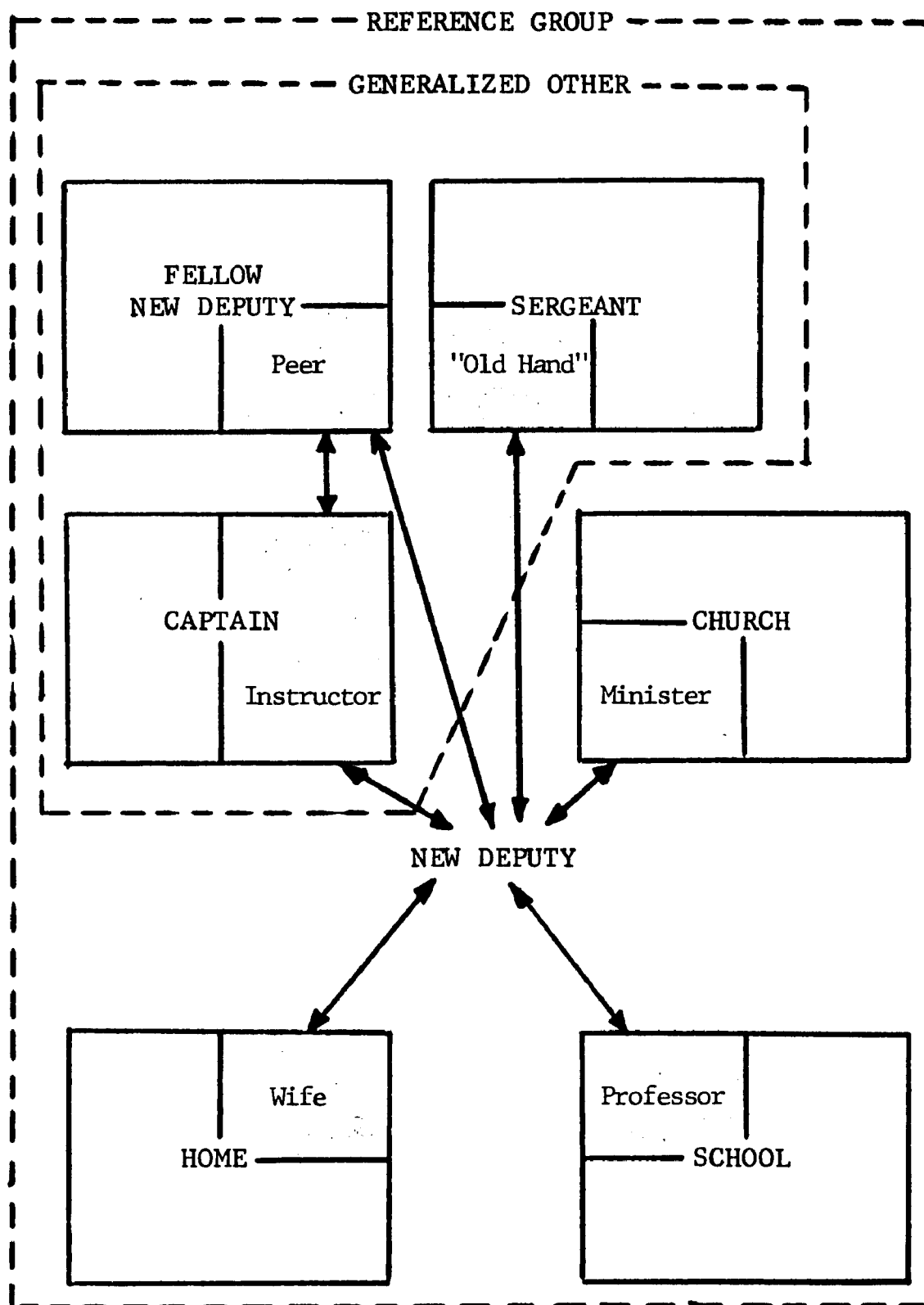
FIG. 1--Role Sets for a New Deputy, Showing
Various Role Relationships

of interactional learning processes as related to each role

position.

Skinner (1953) points out that learning is enhanced

in great part or hindered by reinforcement schedules which

accrue positive benefits to the learner. In the group

situation, the communicative reinforcers and peer group

cues tend to show the new group member the expected types

of attitudes and behaviors and the rewards for exhibiting

these normative attributes.

Skinner further describes this procedure of oper-

ant conditioning as the stimulus process for responses in

a reinforcement situation:

> Operant conditioning shapes behavior as a sculptor
> shapes a lump of clay. Although at some point the
> sculptor seems to have produced an entirely novel ob-
> ject, we can always follow the process back to the
> original undifferentiated lump, and we can make the
> successive stages by which we return to this condition
> as small as we wish. At no point does anything emerge
> which is very different from what preceded it. The
> final product seems to have a special unity or inte-
> grity of design, but we cannot find a point at which
> this suddenly appears. In the same sense, an operant
> is not something which appears full grown in the be-
> havior of the organism. It is the result of a con-
> tinuous shaping process (p. 91).

If the stimuli in the operant conditioning situa-

tion can bring forth a response that is similar to one

already in the learner's background, it is most effective.

If not, then a form of this response referred to as imitation is more likely to be used. As noted by Bandura and Walters (1965) "Even in cases where some other stimulus is known to be capable of arousing an approximation to the desired behavior, the process of acquisition can be considerably shortened by the provision of social models" (p. 3, italics mine).

The reinforcement process is critical in the social setting in which possibly inappropriate social models are being used. In the police role the danger of reinforcement of aggressive habits is always present. As shown by many studies, the older, "street-wise" law enforcement officer has more aggressive and authoritarian behavior. Bandura and Walters (1965) addressed this problem in detail:

> Training in interpersonal aggression has, for ethical and practical reasons, rarely been attempted in a controlled laboratory setting. There is considerable evidence, however, from cross-cultural and field studies that aggressive habits are acquired largely through the direct reinforcement of aggressive responses (p. 118).

> Social class and ethnic differences in amount of overt aggression appear to be, at least in part, a function of the extent to which members of a particular social group tolerate and show approval of aggressive actions (p. 119).

> . . . aggressive responses that are acquired through intermittent reinforcement in a noninterpersonal, nonfrustrating situation may be subsequently

utilized to overcome blocking or twarting in inter-
personal situations (p. 124).

These aggressive tendencies, as measured by scales used in

this study, will be examined in relation to the length of

the socialization process and the characteristics of the

older, "role model," officers. This influence by models

is also discussed by Bandura and Walters (1965):

> The influence of models on the acquisition and
> maintenance of self-controlling responses has been
> demonstrated in a number of experimental studies. It
> has been shown, for example, that persons who observe
> models violating prohibitions more readily perform the
> prohibited acts than persons who are exposed to models
> who conform. Response inhibition and response disin-
> hibition are most readily effected through modeling if
> the immediately punishing or rewarding consequences to
> the model are apparent or if the model is evidently
> competent, successful, or prestigeful. The self-
> administered schedules of reinforcement exhibited by
> models have also been found to be influential in modi-
> fying patterns of self-reinforcement. Demonstrations
> that inhibitions may be strengthened or weakened, and
> that self-evaluative responses may be learned, without
> the mediation of direct reinforcement, provide further
> evidence of the importance of vicarious learning in the
> socialization process (p. 220).

This vicarious learning situation is especially prevalent

in the law enforcement setting. The young officer receives

vicarious reinforcement of inappropriate behavior by the

repeated telling of "war stories," (stories about alleged

incidents in which law violators were objects of violence

or other aggressive behavior by the experienced officer).

This habit of looking toward the "old hand" as a model is one of the basic processes of role theory. Where this becomes a problem is in the application of an inference process by the observer of correctness or incorrectness in that situation. As noted by Sarbin (1969):

> Where the object of observation is a person enacting a social role, the observer can rarely apply a simple correct-incorrect criterion; rather he must make inferences as to the appropriateness, propriety, and convincingness of the enactment. The questions that guide one's observations of social behavior and consequent inferences are of this kind:
>
> 1. Is the conduct appropriate to the social position granted to or attained by the actor? That is, do his performances indicate that the actor has taken into account the ecological context in which the behavior occurs? In short, has he selected the correct role?
>
> 2. Is the enactment proper? That is, does the overt behavior meet the normative standards which serve as valuational criteria for the observer? Is the performance to be evaluated as good or bad?
>
> 3. Is the enactment convincing? That is, does the enactment lead the observer to declare unequivocally that the incumbent is legitimately occupying the position?
>
> The answers to such questions, by and large, can be achieved only through the activation of human judgmental processes (p. 490).

This sometimes creates a situation in which the individual must develop or select from many different roles, even in the same social situation. In the situation where an

individual belongs to many groups, the choice of correct-incorrect becomes more complex.

Multiple group membership creates a situation in which the individual must select from among many behaviors which are potentially available. The focus on learning in social psychology is a natural expression of the functionalist's point of view. Brunswik (1947) is credited with bringing perception into the sphere of functionalist theory.

Perception of role position in a number of settings is helpful in the understanding of the socialization process. As early as 1949, Werner pointed out that perception is, "A meeting ground of general experimental and clinical-social psychology" (p. 3).

The perception and adoption of different role positions and role standards by law enforcement officers is a vital element of examination in this research project. Expectations about the individual's behavior and attributes appropriate to the enactment of his role, coupled with the behavior and attributes of others in the role relationships, structure role performance. These expectations are perceptual to the individual and become a part of his social learning process in the police organization. This

is made very clear by Sarbin (1969):

> . . . the member of any organized society must develop
> more than a single role, or role behavior, if he is to
> reciprocate and cooperate effectively with his fellows.
> To the behavior pathologist, this implies further that
> the person whose repertory includes a variety of well-
> practices, realistic social roles is better equipped
> to meet new and critical situations than the person
> whose repertory is meager, relatively unpracticed and
> socially unrealistic. The skilled role-taker, like
> the skilled motorist, has a better chance than the
> unskilled of withstanding the sudden, unforeseen stress
> and the effects of prolonged, unremitting strain
> (p. 491).

The learning of different role positions as part

of the socialization process of an individual can easily

lead to what Goode (1960) refers to as "role strain":

> The individual is likely to face a wide, distracting
> and sometimes conflicting array of role obligations.
> If he conforms fully or adequately in one direction,
> fulfillment will be difficult in another . . . Role
> strain -- difficulty in meeting given role demand --
> is therefore normal (p. 485).

Role strain is expressed by Merton (1957) as the

basis for the concept of role conflict. This is found

when ego must choose between conflicting expectations as

perceived by the individual from separate role positions.

For example, this would be true of the policeman who was

raised to believe in non-violence within his church group-

set and then becomes confronted by a kill-or-be-killed

situation on the street.

Sieber (1974) disputes the concept of role strain as a consequence of role conflict. He states that "role accumulation" (several roles, sometimes in conflict) yields benefits which tend to outweigh any stress which might arise. Therefore, according to Sieber, various roles can be learned within their situational contexts, still affording the individual options for rewarding behavior in each role. The role strain theory, therefore, seems to fall within the purview of Mary Douglas' (1970) stinging observation: "Anyone who uses the idea of strain or stress in a general explanatory model is guilty, at the very least, of leaving his analysis long before it is complete, at worst, of circularity" (p. 6).

It is noted by Niederhoffer (1967) that the new policeman, " . . . masters, and simultaneously succumbs to, the web of protocol and ceremony that characterizes any quasi-military hierarchy . . . Structure is built into situations, roles are indicated, interpersonal difficulties are smoothed over . . ." (p. 45). This is the learning process at work in an entirely new social structure. Niederhoffer's work clearly showed the social learning of cynicism by police from the perception of self and others in the police role:

Is the system the only or even the principal source of
cynicism? Perhaps police candidates were cynical, or
at least vulnerable to cynicism, before becoming
policemen. Does this possibility weaken our theory?
In one sense anyone brought up in America, by the time
he reaches his twenties, has internalized, along with
the admirable qualities of Americans, a host of mate-
rialistic and cynical patterns of thought . . . Why
is the police system with all its concentrated effort
incapable, in so many cases, of dissipating that
cynicism or encouraging the potent idealism? (p. 107).

This process is one that also asks the question,

"Is the authoritarian or trusting role a learned process

as well?"

Sterling (1974) examined the Changes in Role Con-

cepts of Police Officers in four medium-sized American

cities, (Baltimore, Cincinnati, Columbus and Indianapolis).

In the results of that study, he highlights the role con-

flict problem in law enforcement:

The police themselves must actively confront and
grapple with the basic issues involved in defining
their role rather than expend their energies on the
subordinate question of education and training . . .
the matter is not abstract. There is a pressing need
for the resolution of this and other conflict situa-
tions -- an urgency based on the well-being of society
and the mental health of the police officer (p. 283).

Role perception and social learning were also found to be

highly related in this recent study.

The process of socialization can also be equated

to the three processes of social influence as outlined by

Kelman (1961). Social influence has been one of the central themes of social psychology, with three general research traditions: (1) the study of social influences on judgments, stemming from works such as Asch (1952), (2) social influences arising from small-group interaction, noted in such works as Cartwright and Zander (1960), and (3) such works as Hovland's classic team study of persuasive communications (1953). Kelman and others re-focused on the distinction between public conformity and private acceptance as distinct determinants of social influence.

The three processes of social influence are labelled as compliance, identification, and internalization by Kelman (1961). Compliance is said to occur when an individual accepts influence from another, or from a group, because he hopes to achieve a favorable reaction from the other. Identification occurs when an individual adopts behavior derived from another person or a group because this behavior is associated with a satisfying self-defining relationship to this person or group. Finally, internalization can be said to occur when an individual accepts influence because the induced behavior is (or has become) congruent with his value system (pp. 455-457).

The process of social influence is of particular interest to this study. It is important to determine whether attitudes and behaviors of law enforcement officers are <u>internalized</u> because the opportunity for different (congruent) behaviors is available, or whether the attitudes change to conform to those incongruent behaviors which previously received only <u>compliance</u>. This aspect of police socialization seems especially interesting in a county law enforcement agency, where many different role positions are available (i.e., corrections administration, investigation, and street policing).

The processes of socialization are, unfortunately, equally as difficult to study as they are interesting to examine. The broad learning history and adaptive processes which accrue to the individual in the real world are difficult, if not impossible, to reproduce in a laboratory setting. There seems to be no single, appropriate methodology, for the study of socialization. Much research has been done in regard to the individual's membership in groups and the direct influence by peers and other group members. There has also been a large body of research into the affect on individuals by groups in which they are not members, or by individuals with whom they have no

direct contact. This concept of <u>reference</u> <u>group</u> has been

widely accepted among social scientists.

Hyman first used the concept of reference group in

1942, while studying subjective social status. Kelly

(1952) proposed that there was a distinction between

<u>comparison</u> and <u>normative</u> functions of reference groups.

In the first case, the reference group serves as a compara-

tive assessment of the individual's relative deprivation.

The second function allows the reference group to both set

and reinforce standards. As noted by Jones and Gerard

(1967):

> To the extent that a person's reference groups
> serve a normative function for him, he is dependent
> on the members of these groups for esteem-building
> rewards and approbation. To the extent that the com-
> parison function is served, the individual makes use
> of the information provided by the opinions, values,
> or other actions of group members. We see, then, two
> forms of social leverage (p. 83).

The use of these reference group functions by policemen

seems to be an obvious part of the socialization process.

This obviousness becomes somewhat blurred, however, when

one considers the possibility of both multiple roles and

multiple reference groups for individual policemen.

The concept of reference group influence was

researched in detail by Sherif and Sherif (1964), as

related to the juvenile delinquent. Some of the summary

findings of this study have important meaning for the

present study:

> Thus, it can and does happen that individuals comply or conform in attitude and behavior to the organizational and normative system of their groups out of requirements of an inner voice (conscience), sense of loyalty, sense of responsibility, even sense of decency relative to fellow members. Stepping out of the bounds of propriety defined by his group, thus out of his own role expectancies and self-picture, arouses one's shame or guilt feelings, and calls for appropriate sanctions from fellow group members. After all, fellow members are important persons in the individual's scheme of things, proportional to the importance of the group in providing support for his personal identity and as an instrumentality for fulfillment of his needs.

> These conclusions should not be taken as an apology, justification, or approval of socially objectionable and harmful deeds committed as a function of membership in any group. They are based on study of the outlook and behaviors in actual groups. Realistic analysis of conforming and deviating behavior in groups must look for the standards to which individuals are conforming. The weight of the role system and norm set of reference groups in shaping the outlook and behavior of individual members is something one finds. It does not follow, in the least, that the role system, the norms, or the attendant conformity in behavior are something to be glorified and justified (p. 271).

Thus, we see that reference group pressure has great in-

fluence, (either good or bad), on the new member of a

particular group. Role adoption is largely influenced by

this process.

The processes of role adoption, social learning

and social influence between the individual, his peers and his reference groups tend to be most relevant to this study of police socialization. Interpersonal risk theory is seen as one method of examining some of these interactions and an attempt to bridge the structural-behavioral gap to provide a way in which to operationalize and measure at least a part of the socialization process in law enforcement.

Interpersonal Risk

Interpersonal risk theory is an attempt to explain and predict those social relationships characterized by the social act of voluntarily giving away influence and control to others. As noted by Thomas (1968):

> Each party to the interaction is viewed as making decisions to act in this manner based on a subjective calculation of the risk and utility for himself. This perception derives from the pattern of rewards that has resulted from such behavior on his part in the past. It also related to his perception that the other parties to the interaction have also behaved in a similar manner before. When the individual does give away influence and control over others, he is taking an "interpersonal risk" since the party to whom the influence and control was given may use it to either help or injure the giver. The "trusting" person is consistently willing to accept this risk. When two or more individuals are mutually engaging in giving influence and control to each other, their behavior is described as cooperative. If, on the other hand, two or more individuals give away to each other only minimal amounts of influence and control, the result might be conflict. The phenomenon of a person voluntarily giving away influence and control over others with

whom he is interacting has had little research. How-
ever, there is a body of literature relevant to this
phenomenon (pp. 8-9).

Influence and exchange processes, decision-making, risk-

taking and cooperation and trust are concepts that fall

into this area.

Cartwright (1965) notes that influence has tradi-

tionally been conceptualized in terms of the agent, O, who

exerts influence, and P, the subject of that influence. In

his survey of the literature on influence, he pointed out

that most of the studies in this area focus on the pro-

perties of P and O in isolation or on the specific methods

of influencing. There have been some trends toward empha-

sizing that a property controlled by O usually serves as

a base of power relative to P only if it meshes with a

motive base of P.

Influence can be viewed as the result of a mutual

interaction process in which both parties control or pos-

sess various kinds of influence, different amounts of

influence or bases of power. Bargaining, or a series of

exchanges, tends to occur under these circumstances in

which each party may gain influence or may choose to give

up some of the influence he already possesses. This con-

ception of the dynamics of influence is at the core of

interpersonal risk theory (Thomas, 1968).

"Social-psychological studies of organizations have indicated that a sharing of influence or a wider distribution of influence within an organization seems to be related to such outcomes as higher productivity and greater member satisfaction" (Thomas, 1968, p. 10). Influence distribution can be defined in several different ways. These include communication processes (Mann and Dent, 1954; Mellinger, 1956), group member perceptions of the amount of influence wielded by themselves relative to others in the group (Tannenbaum and Georgopoulos, 1957), and participation in decision-making (French, et al., 1960). The distribution of influence that occurs in a democratic form of organization provides opportunities for the exchange of influence and the development of trust in social relationships. In such a situation, it would be expected that individuals would demonstrate high levels of interpersonal risk behavior, both objective and subjective, and that these higher levels of interpersonal risk behavior would be maintained through the increased frequency of reward available in such groups (Thomas, 1968).

Likert (1961) lists a few of these rewards:

> The leadership and other processes of the organization
> must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that
> in all interactions and all relationships with the
> organization each member will, in light of his back-
> ground, values, and expectations, view the experience
> as supportive and one which builds and maintains his
> sense of personal worth and importance . . . Each of
> us wants appreciation, recognition, influence, a feel-
> ing of accomplishment, and a feeling that people who
> are important to us believe in us and respect us
> (pp. 102-103).

"Most of the studies which support the viewpoint that a

relatively wide distribution of influence is desirable

use group productivity as a criterion. Most of those

studies were conducted in an industrial setting. However,

the criterion of member satisfaction seems to be even more

closely related to the concept of interpersonal risk.

Satisfaction expressed by a member of the group implies

that he is satisfied with the rewards given him by the

group for sharing the influence he possesses. He feels,

in other words, that he has made a good bargain and that

the group has used the influence which he has shared with

them in a way beneficial to him. This, in turn, should

lead to an even greater willingness on his part to give

away influence and the situation is then one in which he

perceives the amount of interpersonal risk to be low"

(Thomas, 1968, pp. 10-11). The concept of member

satisfaction is also of greater value in groups where out-put is not readily quantifiable, as in public service organizations such as police or firemen. Sometimes these two criteria, high productivity and member satisfaction, show a negative relationship to each other. Hare (1962) in a review highly relevant to this study states that authoritarian and competitive groups can gain high pro-ductivity, but often at the expense of member satisfaction.

The investigations of Tannenbaum (1956, 1961), Smith and Tannenbaum (1963), and Tannenbaum and Georgo-poulos (1957) are especially relevant to IR theory. These studies describe the distribution of influence throughout an organization, and the sharing of influence is a central concept in IR theory. "Their results show a positive correlation between the total amount of influence in an organization and effective organizational performance. Further, satisfaction of the members with their influence in the organization is related to the degree of discrepancy in relative influence, that is, the discrepancy between the amount of influence the individual perceives himself as having on others in the organization and the amount of influence he perceives them as having over him. In terms of IR theory, the member satisfaction is increased when

higher echelons in the organization are willing to give
away some of the influence they possess to lower echelons.
Such sharing of influence presumably would produce a
situation low in risk for the members of the organization"
(Thomas, 1968, p. 12).

Most theories of social influence assert that the
ability of an agent O to exert influence arises from the
possession of valued resources (Cartwright, 1965). These
valued resources are referred to as the bases of the power
of O. Control of these resources gives the agent the
capacity to influence others. "Altruistic behavior is a
situation, however, in which the agent may give away or
share the resources which constitute his power base.
Interpersonal Risk theory asserts that altruistic behavior
can be seen as the ratio of personal influence given away
over that retained. Altruism is a manifestation of high
IR behavior, that is, a trust in others and a wish to
reward them accordingly" (Thomas, 1968, p. 13).

What are some of these valued resources which might
be given away? French and Raven (1959) outlined five bases
of power. These are:

    (1) coercive power which refers to the ability to
         mediate punishments;

(2) reward power which is the ability to mediate
    rewards;

(3) referent power based on the identification of P,
    the influenced, with O, the influencer;

(4) legitimate power where P recognizes that O has a
    right to influence and P, an obligation to accept
    this influence; and

(5) expert power which is based on the special know-
    ledge or expertise of O.

The process of exerting influence is not unidirec-
tional from O to P, but often depends on P's perception of
the power bases of O. Frequently, there are unanticipated
consequences of influence attempts indicating that the
receiver's perceptions of the attempt contribute in vary-
ing degrees to its effectiveness. Thus the influence
process implies a certain mutuality whereby each party to
the influence transaction has an active role. Inter-
personal risk theory would say that P actively gives away
personal influence and control in a successful influence
attempt and, if rewarded, will continue to do so. If, on
the other hand, P perceives the situation as too risky,
then he will retain his personal influence and control and
will not be influenced by O, regardless of the bases of
power possessed by O (French and Raven, 1959).

"The concepts of range and domain of influence are

directly relevant to IR theory. O has more power the
larger the number of states of P he can influence (range
of influence) and the larger the number of agents he can
influence (domain of influence). A range of influence has
two important properties: the time period or length of a
sequence of actions that may be involved, and the degree
of abstractness of its elements. Influence may be over a
program of behavior involving many specific behaviors and
encompassing an extended sequence of actions. When both
parties to an interaction are viewed as having influence,
it becomes important to specify the ranges and domains of
their respective influences. A party may choose to give
up a portion of his influence through reducing either the
range or domain of that influence or both in some combina-
tion" (Thomas, 1968, p. 15).

Social influence, then, can be seen as an inter-
personal process. Homans (1958, 1961) has developed a
theory of interpersonal behavior based on a process of
exchange in interpersonal relations. According to him,
two or more individuals interacting are engaged in a
transaction in which valuable "commodities" are exchanged.
The units of the exchange are those actions which the
individuals find rewarding. However, actions aimed at

reward are limited by the cost involved in producing the actions. These "costs" represent alternative behaviors foregone. This is very similar to Lundstedt's statement that ". . . once the appropriate level or amount of IR behavior is subjectively and objectively determined by the individual, rewards are usually expected" (p. 6). Thus the decision to give away personal influence and control is based on the concept of an exchange. However, Homans does not take account of the psychodynamics of the individuals and would maintain that exchanges in human interaction are governed by certain controls which are internalized norms of behavior.

Meeker (1971) described a formal theory of decisions and exchange to deal with some aspects of social exchange behavior. Values are defined as "givens," and the exchange of values is defined as "decision-making." Exchange decisions can follow one or more "exchange rules" ...rationality, reciprocity, altruism, status consistency, or competition. Formal definitions are developed for these rules using concepts from game theory.

Interpersonal risk theory is based, in part, on a framework of decision theory, in particular the concepts developed by Siegal (1961). He developed subjective--

expected--utility decision theory (SEU theory). This is based on the two elements of subjective probability and subjective utility (also Messick and Brayfield, 1964). This normative theory predicts that a decision maker will behave optimally in terms of his subjective interpretation of the pleasures and opportunities in his environment. The theory states that a decision-maker will select a course of action from a set of alternatives involving risky outcomes as if he were attempting to maximize expected utility.

Expected utility is a function of the sum of the products of subjective probability and utility associated with each outcome resulting from a given course of action. Glass (1960) used it to predict parent's child-rearing decisions. An alternative set of concepts were derived, using a dynamic model, by Simon (1947, 1957). His principle of "bounded rationality" is used to describe a model in contrast to earlier static models of decision-making. In this model the decision-maker constructs a simplified representation of the real situation. Using only the limited knowledge of alternatives and consequences which are contained within the model, the decision-maker behaves "rationally" within that context. He is being "intendedly

rational" by this procedure. Simon, by this technique,
replaces the maximizing of subjective utility with the con-
cept of "satisficing," or taking a course of action that
is "good enough."

Three general types of decision-making situations
have been categorized: (1) where no risk is involved, (2)
where there is a risk, (3) where there is uncertainty
(Leplat and Rouanet, 1959). In decision-making where there
is uncertainty, the probabilities are subjective and,
therefore, there is a greater need for such a strategy as
maximizing. In studies of subjective probability, subjects
tend to overestimate low probabilities and underestimate
high probabilities when trying to estimate mathematical
probabilities (Howard, 1963). Subjects also tend to avoid
what appear to them as unlikely configurations of stimuli,
but in doing so, they consider certain aspects of selection
only, seeming to be guided by one or two simple rules
which show only a limited accord with the laws of chance
(Dale, 1960).

The decision-making function also takes place with-
in the context of organizational structures, however. This
structure must make provision for fixing responsibility in
case decision-making. McGee (1971) notes: "The more <u>risk</u>

that is involved in a decision requiring <u>subjective</u> judgment, the more safeguards should be set up to avoid careless, whimsical, or biased results" (p. 620, italics mine).

"One distinction found among selection rules is that of internal versus external control. Internally controlled individuals attempt to maintain control in chance dominated situations by a cautious and planned selection of probabilities, whereas externally controlled persons decide according to 'hunches' or previous outcomes" (Thomas, 1968, p. 17).

Studies into the subjective evaluation of probability related to risk-taking behavior and to the study of interpersonal risk behavior are closely linked. "Risk-taking refers to the person's willingness to take a chance, to gamble, in terms of the odds of success or failure. Interpersonal risk focuses on the interactive, interdependent, and interpersonal character of taking risks on people with whom one has established a more or less important, ego-relevant relationship. Risk-taking would refer to situations of relatively known 'risks' of success or failure, while interpersonal risk refers to situations where the consequences of action and of commitment are relatively uncertain" (Lillibridge, 1967, pp. 24-25).

Rim (1964) studied characteristics of individuals contributing to the group decision. Using, among others, the personality dimensions of Radicalism-Conservatism, and Tough-minded--Tender-minded, he attempted to discover which individuals exerted the most influence in the group decision. His findings showed that group members with initial high risk decisions exerted a disproportionate influence in the group decision. Relationship between risk decisions and amount of influence exerted on the group were found in both the Radicalism-Conservatism and the Tough-minded--Tender-minded dimensions. Those with high scores were found to be cautious in their initial decisions. The Tough-minded group tended to be the most willing to take risk. Following these groups through a group decision, Rim found that the Conservatives did not change. Also, the Tough-minded seemed to become more cautious, while the Radicals and Tender-minded changed the most. It was concluded that those who scored above average on Radicalism and Tender-mindedness are those who exert the most influence in group decisions.

Liverant and Scodel (1960) asked the question, "What is the influence of the individual's frame-of-reference on his probability preferences?" Their subjects

were divided on the basis of "Internal Control" reflecting

a general belief in one's ability to order his own fate and

"External Control" which indicated an attitude of fatalism

and resignation. Subjects in the Internal Control category

had a tendency to employ a strategy which attempted to

maximize the number of favorable outcomes. They showed a

cautious and planned selection of probabilities. The

External Control category indicated a disposition to select

bets on the basis of hunches or outcomes of previous trials

and showed greater variability in their selections

(Lillibridge, 1967).

Slovic (1966) and Kogan and Wallach (1964) have

written general reviews of the area of risk-taking. Risk-

taking sutdies have generally been concerned with risk in

the environment and decision-making based on an evaluation,

utilizing physical events in the world and choices people

make concerning them. "The utility of payoff is an impor-

tant variable which, in part, differentiates Interpersonal

Risk from the concept of risk-taking in general. The set

established by experimenters in risk-taking studies is

directed toward economic gain and/or avoidance of a

physically aversive stimulus. Utility in terms of com-

fortable or rewarding interpersonal relationships has not

been considered" (Thomas, 1968, p. 20).

Deutsch (1962) has conducted the major investigations of that phenomenon which is commonly known as <u>trust</u>. The relevance of investigations in regard to trust and cooperation stems from a postulated relationship between the concept of trust and IR behavior (Lundstedt, 1966). "Both trust behavior and IR behavior are held to lead to cooperation if the behavior is at a high level and competition or conflict if it is at a low level" (Cohen, 1968, p. 18).

Deutsch defines two types of social situations. In a cooperative situation, individuals have developed a positive correlation between their goal attainments. In a competitive situation, there is a negative correlation between their goal attainments. Since life involves complex sets of goals and subgoals, it is possible for individuals to be cooperative toward one goal and competitive with respect to another goal. Deutsch states that ". . . the initiation of cooperation requires trust whenever the individual, by this choice to cooperate, places his fate partly in the hands of others" (p. 296). Also, ". . . cooperation will not develop unless at least one person initiates it through actions which are clearly recognizable

as contributing to the attainment of the mutually inter-
dependent goals. Taking the initiative, however, may
involve a cost which the individual would not be willing
to bear unless he felt that the others were sufficiently
trustworthy to reciprocate with further cooperative action"
(p. 298). Deutsch makes a distinction between a trusting
and risk-taking choice even though both involve an ambig-
uous way of interacting. In the risk-taking, or gambling
situation there is the perception that positive conse-
quences of choosing a particular alternative are more
likely than negative consequences. According to Deutsch,
". . . one gambles when one has much to gain or little to
lose and one trusts when one has much to lose or little to
gain. One does not need much confidence in a positive
outcome to gamble, but one needs considerable confidence
in a positive outcome to trust" (p. 304). In his interpre-
tation of the experimental results, Deutsch emphasized the
situational determinants of trust and cooperation. IR
theory focuses more on the personal attributes and the
determinants of those attributes which would lead an
individual to take the initiative to engage in IR behavior
or trust behavior (Thomas, 1968).

The areas of research mentioned above are all

relevant to the IR theory because this theory draws upon concepts from them. The relationship of IR theory to the authoritarian personality will be developed in the next section.

Authoritarianism

The concept of authoritarianism has been used to address issues of extraordinary social significance. This concept is still as useful today as it was in 1950, when T. W. Adorno and his team first published The Authoritarian Personality. Such constructs as dogmatism, morals, politics, power, child rearing, race relations, prejudice, and organizational functioning have all been explored within the framework of authoritarianism (Kirscht and Dillehay, 1967). Although it is generally considered to be an intraindividual construct, authoritarianism's etiology and consequences are also decidedly social as well. Authoritarianism influences behavioral functioning of people in social activities. It becomes a concern for social psychological research because of the possible consequences of authoritarian deeds and their potential effect on individuals and groups. This attribute becomes especially critical in an agency which is already assumed to be

authoritarian in its mission or purpose (i.e. police, military, or other protective or social control institutions). The examination into the extent of the authoritarian trait present in the personality of county law enforcement personnel would help clarify organizational suppositions in these kinds of agencies. As noted by Niederhoffer (1967):

> Does the occupational authoritarian necessarily possess an authoritarian personality? The confusion in definitions and boundaries is implicit in the discussion of police authoritarianism. What other civilian occupation can be likened in this respect to police work? The legal authority to use force is for the police perhaps their principle technique in fighting crime (pp. 111-112).

There have been literally <u>hundreds</u> of studies which have focused on the construct of authoritarianism and its measurement instruments since it first appeared in 1950. Titus and Hollander (1957) listed over 60 studies conducted between 1950 and 1955 alone. In a similar fashion, Christie and Cook (1958), listed the published literature relating to the authoritarian personality through 1956. This critical dimension of personality received yet another major review of over 250 publications in regard to its research and theory by Kirscht and Dillehay (1967) covering the period 1950-1966. These reviews were all quite

complete and comprehensive in scope, so we have extracted only those studies which seem to bear directly on the present research project for discussion herein.

Most investigation into the construct of authoritarianism has been through the use of the scale developed from the original work. Adorno and his original investigators viewed the concept of authoritarianism as a composite of nine subscales with dynamic relationships to prejudice. (These nine subscales are described in detail in Chapter V). They have generally been referred to as: (1) conventionalism, (2) authoritarian submission, (3) authoritarian aggression, (4) anti-intraception, (5) superstition and stereotypy, (6) power and toughness, (7) destructiveness and cynicism, (8) projectivity and, (9) sex. Although these subscales are usually described as separate subparts, they are actually considered to be closely cohering parts of one syndrome (Kirscht and Dillehay, 1967). They further note:

> The nine "hypothetical clusters" of authoritarianism are derived from clinical observations and interviews. Each item of the F-scale supposedly measures one or more of these facets of authoritarianism. Because of heavy reliance on this scale among the original authors and subsequent researchers, this instrument is, in large part, the working definition of authoritarianism (p. 6).

This scale has become commonly known as the "California F-scale," or simply the "F-scale."

The F-scale has become one of the most used psychological scales in social science history. Despite its impact on social psychology, however, the F-scale has not been without its critics. Hyman and Sheatsley (1954) made a particularly incisive critique of the work of Adorno, et al. A most interesting outcome of this critique was a lively debate between the authors and Sanford (1956) over the ad hoc nature of the explanations offered by Adorno and his team. Sanford noted that no systematic theory guided the original research because of the evolutionary nature of the study. In a rather devastating evaluation of the Berkeley works, Hyman and Sheatsley (1954) pointed out methodological shortcomings:

> . . . the samples were not representative, the wedding of survey and intensive clinical methods did not make use of the merits of each, statistics and analysis proved weak and inaccurate, the variable of formal education in the samples were not controlled, and alternative explanations were not examined. [These shortcomings] . . . uniformly operate in favor of the author's assumptions (p. 121).

Asch (1952) also criticized the original work of Adorno, et al., from the standpoint that the high correlations of the scales may have simply reflected a lack of

discrimination by the respondents. Titus and Hollander (1957) supported the views of Asch in regard to the weakness of the F-scale when used in conjunction with actual social behavior situations. As they noted, "F-scale correlates most systematically with other paper-and-pencil measures, and least systematically with interpersonal behaviors, particularly as situational conditions are varied" (p. 62). (Since the present study will utilize a correlational network of paper-and-pencil tests, this criticism can be viewed as a form of support for the use of the F-scale in this situation).

Some alternative explanations for authoritarianism have also been explored. Steward and Hoult (1959) looked at the construct from the standpoint of role mastery by the individual. These investigators used police authoritarianism as an example of the role prescription component of authoritarianism:

> . . . (e) it includes the possible existence of "occupational authoritarians" (physicians, policemen, army personnel, priests, and the like), who may exhibit authoritarian traits as an occupational necessity and who therefore may have high F-scores even though they happen to be products of, say, a loving and democratic family, which, according to psychoanalytic theory, produces non-authoritarians (p. 278).

This seems to be an especially interesting finding with

regard to the present study.

Cumming and Henry (1961) have examined the situational structural contributions to authoritarianism, recognizing them explicitly and extending the framework of childhood and family experiences. The detractors and alternative efforts to explain the concept of authoritarianism, however, has not dampened enthusiasm for the use of the F-scale by most investigators.

The original report of the Berkeley investigations by Adorno, et al., The Authoritarian Personality, has been examined and re-examined from more points of view than almost any other work in the area of social psychology. It was reported in professional journals by at least six different authors before it was even published (Christie and Cook, 1958). Of those reporting on this major work, perhaps Rokeach has been the most prolific, having already published at least 10 listed articles on various aspects of the construct in Christie's early 1958 review. The intrigue of the F-scale seems to stem from the fact that, although it is often described as a psychometric headache by measurement purists, it continues to correlate in a meaningful way with so many other important social psychological variables.

The F-scale has been found to have great potential as a measure of social sophistication. Stouffer (1955) found clear evidence of a positive relationship between education and low scores, using an instrument very similar to the F-scale. As noted by Christie, "It can be argued that the F-scale is a measure of social sophistication to a much greater extent than originally intended by the authors of The Authoritarian Personality" (1958, p. 176). On the other hand, Kornhauser, Shepard and Mayer (1956) found workers with an eighth grade education or less more author-itarian than those with more than eighth grade. This allows us to draw some tentative and cautious conclusions that the F-scale is able to differentiate between educational levels as related to authoritarianism. It seems clear that the F-scale items are heavily loaded with a factor which might be defined as social sophistication.

From the standpoint of the relationship between authoritarianism and IR theory, the findings of Scodel and Mussen (1953) seem to be highly relevant. They found that low scorers on the F-scale have a greater perceptiveness of others, which is agreeable to IR theory. Crutchfield (1954), however, made the observation that this may only reflect different stereotypes rather than perception. This

prompted Scodel to repeat the experiment, this time with Freedman (1956), under more controlled conditions. The results of that effort confirmed the findings of the original study. These findings tend to support the possibility that a high subjective interpersonal risk behavior, which also reflects a certain amount of perception of others, would be positively correlated with low F-scale scores.

Leadership and authoritarianism have been researched, but the results are somewhat inconclusive. It has been a common assumption that authoritarian personalities are often chosen for leadership positions. As Gregory (1955) points out, however, "Because military [and police] and industrial organizations thus emphasize clearcut authority (chains of command) there is no reason for believing that they have to choose 'authoritarian' personalities to implement this authority" (p. 643). The present study deals with a law enforcement agency, a quasi-military organization, and should yield valuable insight into this aspect of the use of F-scale. Shils (1954) has warned that the authoritarian personality structure is probably highly unqualified to exercise authority in a responsible way.

Since the F-scale tends to deal with conservative ideology, it is generally assumed to be tapping dimensions

of the political right. This proposition was also dis-
cussed by Shils (1954) in his classic essay on the right
and left of politics. He argued that low scores on the
F-scale might well indicate the authoritarian of the left.
Research by Christie and Jahoda (1954) also indicated that
authoritarians of the left would <u>not</u> score high on the
F-scale. Barker (1963) found further evidence to support
this position. This aspect of the F-scale is best summed
up by Christie and Cook (1958):

> These studies indicate general confirmation of predict-
> able differences in behavior between high and low
> scorers on the F-scale in <u>interpersonal interaction</u>.
> The evidence is clearest when there are clean-cut dif-
> ferences in status, as between adults and children [or
> ranking officers and deputies] and when hypotheses are
> tested in an adequate experimental design (p. 183,
> italics and brackets mine).

Rokeach (1960) developed an alternative theory of
dogmatism, using a thesis composed of cognitive structure.
He related dogmatism to the tenacity with which beliefs
are held by the individual and not the beliefs themselves.
"High" dogmatism is described by Kirsch and Dillehay (1967)
as:

    a.   Sharp distinctions between beliefs and disbeliefs,
        the existence of contradictory beliefs, and little
        differentiation among disbeliefs;

    b.   A basic outlook of pessimism, fear, and concern
        with power; and

c. A belief in the absolute nature of authority,
intolerance of anyone who disagrees, and "party-
line" thinking (p. 11).

The F-scale of Adorno, et al., and the dogmatism

scale (D-scale) of Rokeach are rather highly correlated,

ranging in various applications between .54 and .77. This

permits the use of the F-scale in some situations where

dogmatism may be considered an important variable for

investigation.

A great amount of effort has been expended by

critics of the F-scale in an attempt to determine how much

F-scale scores were a result of acquiescence to the posi-

tive, authoritarianism of the items in the scale itself.

Various types of modified, split, or reversed forms of the

F-scale have been developed and used, but they have not

resolved the response bias question. Bass (1955), and

Schulberg (1961), among others, found that responses to

the F-scale with reversed items appeared to measure the

same thing as the original form. Eysenck (1962) used a

balanced form of 15 original and 15 reversed items, as

designed by Messick and Fredericksen (1958). He concluded

that acquiescence may be a peculiar artifact of question-

naires containing attitudes and opinions. Gage and

Chattergee (1960) point out that agreement is an aspect of

authoritarianism and acquiescence to authoritarian content in the items is both logically and psychologically an indication of authoritarianism. Kirscht and Dillehay (1967) sum up the acquiescence problem:

> That branch of research dealing with response bias can easily lose sight of the theoretical nature of authoritarianism, and overemphasize the study of questionnaire responses while neglecting the implications of authoritarian style and content. Only rarely do investigators use an obvious source of information about the meaning of responses -- the subjects themselves. At least, the creation of new types and sources of measurement is required before many of the disputes over interpretation of responses to the F-scale can be resolved (p. 29).

The comparison and correlation of this scale to others of theoretical importance in the present study will add to information and resolution of this problem.

The construct of authoritarianism, as developed by Adorno, et al., seems to have survived the test of time. Even without a broad critique in hand, one cannot help being somewhat amazed by the pure scope of the large and amorphous area which has been examined by researchers using the F-scale. Since this scale has been so widely accepted and widely used as a research variable, it seems reasonable for us to attempt to use it in this study.

As noted by Titus and Hollander (1957):

> While it is too early now to foretell the eventual
> place accorded this work [The Authoritarian Person-
> ality], it may certainly be said to have left its mark
> on the contemporary scene. Probably no other single
> development in recent years has stimulated so much
> thought and investigation (p. 47).

Tests of the theory of the authoritarian person-

ality and extensive use of the F-scale continues to appear

in journals and research, lending more support to the use

of this construct in social psychological studies. This

seems especially appropriate for studies dealing with so-

called authoritarian institutions and agencies.

Organizational Management Characteristics

Likert (1961, 1967) has been the leading pioneer

in the investigation into and development of science-based

systems of management. In his studies, he has consistently

focused on the motivational forces at work in the organi-

zation, rather than the application of science to specific

activities. The basic concepts behind the system he

developed to measure organizational management character-

istics can best be understood by the conceptual framework

as shown in Figure 2, and found in The Human Organization,

(p. 137). This framework describes the concepts of causal,

intervening, and end-result variables at work within an

organization. These variables are described as follows:

The presence of these variables yields these variables which, in turn, lead to these variables

Causal variables | Intervening variables | End–result variables

System 4

Principle of supportive relationships

Group decision making in a multiple, overlapping group structure

System 1 or 2

High performance goals

High pressure via: tight work standards, personnel limitations, tight budgets—imposed

(1) (2) (3) (4)

Favorable attitudes toward superior
High confidence and trust
High reciprocal influence
Excellent communication: up, down, lateral
High peer-group loyalty

High peer performance goals at all levels re:
productivity, quality, scrap

Compliance based on fear

Unfavorable attitudes, e.g., little confidence and trust
Poor communication
Low levels of influence
Low levels of cooperative motivation
Low peer performance goals
Restriction of output

(5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (10) (11)

Low absence and turnover

High productivity
Low scrap
Low costs
High earnings

High productivity over short run
Low productivity and earnings over long run

High absence and turnover

SOURCE: The Human Organization, Likert, 1967

FIG. 2--A Conceptual Framework for Likert's Organizational Systems

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The "causal" variables are independent variables which determine the course of developments within an organization and the results achieved by the organization. These causal variables include only those independent variables which can be altered or changed by the organization and its management. General business conditions, for example, although an independent variable, is not included among the causal list. Causal variable include the structure of the organization and management's policies, decisions, business and leadership strategies, skills, and behavior.

The "intervening" variables reflect the internal state and health of the organization, e.g., the loyalties, attitudes, motivations, performance goals, and perceptions of all members and their collective capacity for effective interaction, communication, and decision-making.

The "end-result" variables are the dependent variables which reflect the achievements of the organization, such as its productivity, costs, scrap loss, and earnings (pp. 26-28).

The concepts offered by Likert (1967) in his analysis of management "systems" are described as follows:

(a) System 1 = Exploitive authoritative management and decision-making.

(b) System 2 = Benevolent authoritative management and decision-making.

(c) System 3 = Consultive management and decision-making.

(d) System 4 = Participative group management and decision-making.

The movement toward the normative, System 4, type of organization is influenced, in great part, by the amount of freely operating communication to be found within the

organization. As noted by Likert (1967):

> Science-based management, such as System 4, can obtain significantly more accurate data than can the other existing systems. This general conclusion seems to apply equally well to trends in an organization with regard to its management system. If an organization is shifting toward System 4 and its members are aware of this trend, their motivational forces to assure accurate measurements are increased. When, on the contrary, the trend in the management system of an organization is toward System 1, the motivational forces are to resist the collection of the measurements and to seek to distort the data. Moreover, the greater the trend in either direction and the longer it persists, the greater the changes appear to be in the motivational forces in the predicted direction (p. 136).

Freedom of communication would be greatly inhibited by an authoritarian type of organization, especially one with authoritarian leaders. In part, the rationale behind our use of the scientific measurement concepts of Likert stems from the assumption that an authoritarian law enforcement organization would be one in which these concepts would receive a real test. Pressure toward rapid socialization of group norms would seem to be especially strong in an authoritarian, System 1 organization.

Likert elaborates four basic conditions which must be present for an organization to begin to solve coordination/functional problems at the "System 4" level. These are:

1. It must provide high levels of cooperative behavior between superiors and subordinates and especially among peers. Favorable attitudes of confidence and trust are needed among its members. [An attribute of IR theory, and high interpersonal risk behavior as well].

2. It must have the organizational structure and the interaction skills required to solve differences and conflicts and to attain creative solution. [Another attribute of high interpersonal risk behavior].

3. It must possess the capacity to exert influence and to create motivation and coordination without traditional forms of line authority. [This would be very close to high interpersonal risk behavior].

4. Its decision-making processes and superior/subordinate relationships must be such as to enable a person to perform his job well and without hazard when he has two or more superiors. [High interpersonal risk behavior between the individuals involved] (p. 158, brackets mine).

Classic management theory, which tends to embrace Systems 1, 2 and 3, is not able to meet these conditions for a number of reasons. Classical management theory would require such things as an individual having only one boss, pressure for him to compete with peers and resent subordinates, and a failure to make use of motivational forces. The "hire-and-fire" authority concept of White (1963) is said to be a central concept of formal organizational theory. Steiglitz (1962) notes that the concept of have to, or coercive, supervision has been used in Systems 1

and 2 for many generations. While short-run gains from these practices can be made, it has been proven that they breed apathy and hostility in subordinates and, in the long run, reduce production.

Most studies which have employed these basic ideas in the measurement of management systems, followed by efforts to move the organization toward the participative group (System 4) end of the continuum, have been conducted in industrial organizations. Movement toward the goal of System 4 management has been shown to be very helpful in increasing productivity (Marrow, 1964; Heslin, 1966), and in providing improvements for labor relations (Likert, 1961; Morse and Reimer, 1956; Seashore and Bowers, 1963). It is of interest to the present study that little has been done in the measurement or development of law enforcement agencies within the framework of these scientific management principles.

The principle of supportive relationships in an organization is one of the three basic principles of System 4 management. Likert (1961) states this first principle as follows:

> The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and in all relationships within the

organization, each member, in the light of his back-
ground, values, desires, and expectations, will view
the experience as supportive and one which builds and
maintains his sense of personal worth and importance
(p. 103).

In application, this principle requires a suppor-

tive and ego-building relationship between superiors and

subordinates. The existence of this type of relationships

can be easily tested by asking a series of 12 questions:

1. How much confidence and trust do you feel your
   superior has in you? How much do you have in him?

2. To what extent does your boss convey to you a
   feeling of confidence that you can do your job
   successfully? Does he expect the "impossible" and
   fully believe you can and will do it?

3. To what extent is he interested in helping you to
   achieve and maintain a good income?

4. To what extent does your superior try to understand
   your problems and do something about them?

5. How much is your superior really interested in
   helping you with your personal and family problems?

6. How much help do you get from your superior in
   doing your work?

   a. How much is he interested in training you and
      helping you learn better ways of doing your
      work?

   b. How much does he help you solve your problems
      constructively -- not tell you the answer but
      help you think through your problems?

   c. To what extent does he see that you get the
      supplies, budget, equipment, etc., you need to
      do your job well?

7. To what extent is he interested in helping you get the training which will assist you in being promoted?

8. To what extent does your superior try to keep you informed about matters related to your job?

9. How fully does your superior share information with you about the company, its financial condition, earnings, etc., or does he keep such information to himself?

10. Does your superior ask your opinion when a problem comes up which involves your work? Does he value your ideas and seek them and endeavor to use them?

11. Is he friendly and easily approached?

12. To what extent is your superior generous in the credit and recognition given to others for their accomplishments and contributions rather than seeking to claim all the credit himself? (Likert, 1967, pp. 48-49).

The second basic principle of System 4 management involves the use of group decision-making and supervision by the manager. This principle requires the use of a group form of overlapping structure, instead of the traditional man-to-man model. This overlapping, or "linking pin" type of organization ties each group to the rest of the organization by members who are participants in more than one group. An organizational structure, using this concept is shown in Figure 3 (Likert, 1967, p. 50).

Group decision-making as found in this type of organization is not "committee" decision-making. Input

(The arrows indicate the linking pin function)
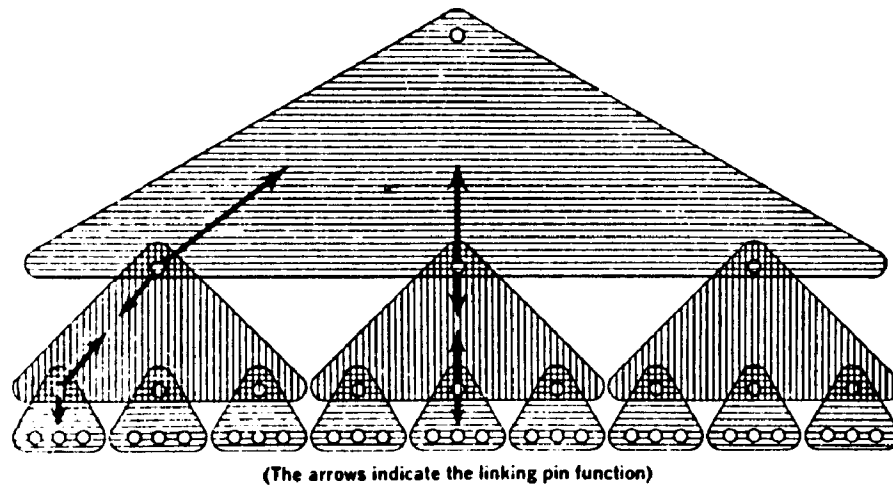
SOURCE: Likert, 1967.

FIG. 3--A Linking Pin Organization

for the decision is a group effort, but "The superior is [still] accountable for all decisions, for their execution, and for the results" (Likert, 1967, p. 51).

Studies by a number of management investigators (Kahn, 1958; Miller and Form, 1964) indicate the importance of the third basic principle of System 4 management, performance goals. High performance aspirations by superiors are not enough for successful management at the System 4 level, each member of the organization must also have these high aspirations for effective performance. If the members themselves help to define the aspirations and goals of the organization, they have a much greater chance for attainment. "System 4 provides such a mechanism

through: (1) group decision-making, and (2) multiple, overlapping group structure" (Likert, 1967, p. 51).

The three basic principles of System 4 management have potential for wide applicability. As Likert (1967) notes:

> The nature of the specific procedures for applying System 4 management in a particular firm will vary depending upon the nature of the work and the traditions of the company. The basic principles of System 4 management, such as those examined in this chapter, are the same, however, for all situations.

> The interrelationships among some of these key variables can be portrayed graphically in a useful although oversimplified form. The three kinds of variables shown in this figure are the causal, intervening, and end-result variables (p. 75).

The oversimplified graphic representation of these interrelationships is shown at Figure 4 (a modified version of the chart in Likert, 1967, p. 76).

The principles of effective scientific management, as described by Likert and others, is measured by use of a scale developed for the purpose of describing the organization's position on a continuum from System 1 to System 4. This scale is described in detail in Chapter V, Research Methods.

In the present study, the interrelation of inter-personal risk, authoritarianism and organizational

If a manager has:

Well-organized plan of operation

High performance goals

High technical competence
(manager or staff assistants)

Causal variables

and if the manager manages via:

SYSTEMS 1 or 2
e.g., uses
direct hierarchical pressure
for results, including the
usual practices of the
traditional systems

SYSTEM 4
e.g., uses
principle of supportive
relationships, group
methods of supervision,
and other principles
of System 4

his organization will display:

Intervening variables

Less group loyalty
Lower performance goals
Greater conflict and less
   cooperation
Less technical assistance
   to peers
Greater feeling of unrea-
   sonable pressure
Less favorable attitudes
   toward manager
Lower motivation to produce

Greater group loyalty
Higher performance goals
Greater cooperation
More technical assistance
   to peers
Less feeling of unreason-
   able pressure
More favorable attitudes
   toward manager
Higher motivation to pro-
   duce

and his organization will attain:

End-result variables

Lower volume
Higher costs
Lower quality of output

Higher volume
Lower costs
Higher quality of output

SOURCE: The Human Organization, Likert, 1967, p. 76.

FIG. 4--Sequence of Developments in a Well-Organized
Enterprise, as Affected by System 2 or System 4

management characteristics will be used as variables in an examination of the socialization process in a large county law enforcement agency.

CHAPTER III

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A basic social relationship in any organization or group is that which involves the distribution and exchange of personal influence and control over others. Most social living situations and organization structures require that individuals give up some of their personal influence and control over their contextual environment. As noted by Likert (1961):

> Every organization is a human enterprise whose success depends upon the coordinated efforts of its members. It has several important characteristics and processes:
> - It has structure.
> - It has observational and measurement processes which collect information about the internal state of the organization, the environment in which the organization is functioning, and the relationship of the organization to this environment.
> - It has communication processes through which information flows.
> - It has decision-making processes.
> - It has action resources to carry out decisions, such as the personnel of the organization-- skilled and unskilled--and the machinery, equipment, and energy sources used by them.
> - It has influence processes.

● It has attitudinal dimensions and motivational
  characteristics, such as the basic motivational
  forces it seeks to draw upon in using the
  efforts of its members and the degree of favor-
  ableness or unfavorableness of attitudes and
  loyalties toward the organization, its compo-
  nent parts, and its members.

These processes are interrelated and interdepen-
dent. Their nature is determined by the organizational
theory used and the kinds of motivational forces har-
nessed by the organization. If the motivations used
are largely punitive and rely on fear, unfavorable and
hostile attitudes are produced. Such an organization
must have communication and decision-making processes
of a character to cope with hostility, suspicion, and
resentment. If, on the other hand, the organizational
theory and motivational forces are of a character to
yield favorable attitudes and a cooperative orienta-
tion on the part of members of the organization, then
the communication, decision-making, and control pro-
cesses can be quite different (p. 178).

This distribution is an especially important process in a

law enforcement agency, where centers of power and influ-

ence are not always directly related to the hierarchial

position of the individual. The socialization process for

the law enforcement officer is seen as a function of the

primary group, the law enforcement agency, which holds the

greatest influence over that individual. This process

involves the giving away of influence by the individual

law enforcement officer to his peers, superiors, or refer-

ence persons in return for which he receives such needs as

security, dependency and status (Lundstedt, 1966). As

this influence is delegated and the individual learns the predominant attitudes and behaviors of the group, his degree of authoritarianism would also be expected to reflect the norms held by the leaders and his reference group members. This process of a willingness, or unwillingness, to give away influence and control over others and the socialization of attitudes and behaviors would be expected to affect the structure and functioning of the organization.

Lundstedt (1966) has elaborated a theory of Interpersonal Risk (IR) which is highly relevant to giving away of influence over others and seems to have relevance to the process of socialization in a law enforcement agency. IR theory applies decision theory to this specific type of social interaction within its framework. This theory has been stated in a way that deals with social relationships in which there are exchanges and distribution of personal influence and control. This study investigates the relationships between interpersonal risk, organizational theory and authoritarianism in the setting of a large county law enforcement agency. That is, it will investigate some of the relationships hypothesized to exist between levels of interpersonal risk, other organizational/

psychological concepts, and the process of socialization within the agency.

Interpersonal Risk Theory

Evidence of an apparent tautology in the term "trust," as generally stated, provided one of the basic starting points from which Lundstedt (1966) developed IR theory. Explanations of constructs such as "trust," "confidence," "relevance" and "dependence," in terms of cause and effect, are seen as circular when applied to social relationships.

Lundstedt has described his work as ". . . a specific social psychological theory bearing on a class of social relations in which there is a distribution and exchange of personal influence and control over other (all influence and control possessed by the individual being personal)" (1966, p. 7). His theory provides a partial redefinition and utilization of the framework of decision theory. The theory can be summarized as follows:

> The phenomenon . . . is more inclusive than trusting
> behavior alone. It involves an element of risk and
> utility, in addition to giving away influence and con-
> trol. If one gives away influence and control, of any
> kind, one can find them used for one's welfare or
> against it. Such a risk factor always seems to be
> calculated by the individual on the basis of prior
> learning in which subjectively perceived risk is

affected by the patterns of reward coming from the exchange in the interaction. If past experience has been rewarding then the amount of subjective risk should be low. One should be increasingly apt to give away influence and control under this condition. The opposite would tend to be true if the amount of subjective interpersonal risk is high (Lundstedt, 1966, p. 4).

"In defining the interpersonal situation in which IR theory operates, the following aspects must be considered; (1) level of subjective IR behavior, (2) level of objective IR behavior, and (3) level of objective risk in the person-situation. The level of subjective IR behavior deals with the person's perception of safety or risk in the situation (high subjective IR being low perceived risk for the purposes of IR studies). High subjective IR exists when the person reports he feels it is safe to take risks in the person-situation. The level of objective IR refers to the actual, observable behavior of laying oneself open to risk, that is, risk taking. We can expect the perception of risk and risk taking behavior to be mutually consistent in most situations. Level of objective risk is the actual probability of rewards and punishments that follow from a behavior in the person-situation" (Cohen, 1968, p. 34).

Lundstedt has identified a number of key ideas in

the makeup of IR theory. As he notes:

> Some kind of concept of subjective risk and utility is necessary to understand the IR element in social relations. In addition, IR behavior must be considered in objective, as well as subjective, terms. And it is logically necessary to think about the range and domain of subjective and objective IR behavior. It is apparent that the objective and subjective domains can vary concomitantly and inversely. The range of influence and control given away can vary, and it can be in the subjective domain, or subset of that domain or in the objective domain.

> The decision to give away personal influence and control is contractual (an exchange) to the extent that once the appropriate level or amount of IR behavior is subjectively and objectively determined by the individual, rewards are usually expected. This is one meaning of Homans' (1958) use of the term exchange. It is hard to imagine an individual giving away anything without expecting tangible, or intangible, rewards (p. 6).

A number of consequences of the interactions between subjective and objective IR behavior are seen as possible in the person-situation. Most of the possible situations are described in Table 2, as derived from Lundstedt (1966).

An example of a form of the IR theory relationship which seems to be particularly relevant to the present study deals with the socialization process in children. This example is described by Lundstedt (1966):

> The socialization of children is one such form. The young child literally gives away personal control and influence to parents, other adults, and older peers

TABLE 2

INTERACTIONS BETWEEN SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE
INTERPERSONAL-RISK (IR) BEHAVIOR
(Most Probable Outcomes)

Person 2	Person 1			
	High Risk Condition		Low Risk Condition	
Condition	Low Subjective IR	Low Objective IR	High Subjective IR	High Objective IR
High Risk				
Low subjective IR	Avoidance and conflict	Avoidance and conflict	Avoidance and conflict	Avoidance and conflict
Low objective IR	Avoidance and conflict	Avoidance and conflict	Avoidance and conflict	Avoidance and conflict
Low Risk				
High subjective IR	Avoidance and conflict	Avoidance and conflict	Approach and cooperation	Approach and cooperation
High objective IR	Avoidance and conflict	Avoidance and conflict	Approach and cooperation	Approach and cooperation

SOURCE: Lundstedt, 1966, p. 6.

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and siblings. When the child is successful in obtaining rewards for such behavior, the basic pattern of subjective interpersonal risk is low and traditionally we speak of the child as trusting, confident about others, and dependent on them. The child, moreover, is able to establish certain kinds of useful social relationships. Erikson (1963, p. 247) called this basic trust (p. 4).

This seems to indicate that the concept of IR is, indeed, a differentiating one. If this is the case, we should then be able to expect a relationship between amounts of IR behavior and the socialization process as it occurs within a law enforcement agency. It has also been considered reasonable to expect subjective IR and objective IR to be consistent, . . . "[while this is consistent] in all but severely disturbed persons, this is not the case between them [subjective IR and objective IR] and objective risk. Deutsch (1958) and Loomis (1959) have presented evidence that in a simple situation where people are interdependent in reaching goals, 'trusting' behavior may be expected. If veridical perception were the rule in interpersonal behavior this would be so. But there are relatively stable person factors which influence risk taking behavior" (Cohen, 1968, pp. 34-35). The place of these factors is described in Table 2.

Thomas (1968) points out two ways in which

Lundstedt is seen to have limited IR theory:

> First, he differentiates voluntary from involuntary forms of giving away influence and control over others. He states that it is not simply a transfer of influence and control from one person to another that is important in IR behavior. The key requirement is that such giving away of influence be voluntary. While a person can be involuntarily deprived of personal influence and control, the giving away of influence in such a case . . . is not a choice by the individual based on some subjectively determined probability and utility . . . (instead) this decision is made for the individual . . . another set of propositions is needed to explain these involuntary forms of losing personal influence and control (p. 8).

> A second limitation of the theory lies in Lundstedt's comment that "the subjective domain of risk and utility seems to be dependent on both rational and irrational choices, rational decision-making being only one subset of that domain" (p. 8).

Key Elements of IR Theory

As a social psychological theory, interpersonal risk has been formulated to attempt to explain and predict that class of social relationships in which the individuals involved possess influence and control over each other's welfare and where such influence and control may be exchanged or shared. The act of voluntarily giving away influence and control over others, and the willingness of an individual to do so, constitute the key concepts of IR theory. There are a number of elements to IR theory which are necessary to understand in order to explain the class

of social relationships to which it is related:

The first element is the social act of giving away influence and control over others. This is referred to in IR theory as interpersonal risk behavior (IR behavior). The second element is that of subjective interpersonal risk. Subjective IR refers to a person's willingness to engage in IR behavior. This willingness is based on the individual's subjective determination of the risk and utility involved for himself if he does, in fact, indulge in IR behavior. Thus, IR behavior and subjective interpersonal risk form the core of the theory.

Uncertainty of outcome is a third element of IR theory. When personal influence and control are given away, the recipient may use it for the giver's welfare or detriment. Some uncertainty about the outcome, that is, whether the outcome will be rewarding or injurious, attached to the giver. It is this uncertainty of outcome that makes engaging in IR behavior a risk for the individual. If the individual decides to give away influence and control over others or expresses willingness to do so, while aware of the amount of risk and utility for himself involved, this is referred to as subjective IR behavior.

A fourth element of the theory concerns the pattern of rewards that have been the result of the individual's past IR behavior. If, on past occasions, the IR behavior of the individual has been frequently rewarded, then that individual should display a relatively high level of IR behavior. If the rewards for such behavior have been infrequent, then a relatively low level of IR behavior would be fostered. It is this prior reward pattern which provides the basis for the subjective calculation of risk and utility. Thus a previous pattern of high frequency of reward should result in a low level of perceived risk and consequently, high IR behavior. On the other hand, infrequent rewards or punishments should lead to a perception of interpersonal situations as being high in risk, which should in turn result in a low level of IR behavior.

In addition to previous reward pattern from others, the individual's subjective perception of risk and utility in an interpersonal situation depends on the results of past interactions, both with the person with whom the individual is currently involved and with significant others in his environment.

Another aspect having to do with the evaluation of utility is the expectation of reward. Each party to the interaction has the expectation of being rewarded commensurate with his own level of IR behavior. A person engaged in a high level of IR behavior expects those with whom he is interacting to also demonstrate high levels of IR behavior.

When this does in fact occur, that a high level of IR behavior does elicit in return a high level of IR behavior, the resulting social relationship is one that is characterized by trust, confidence and reliance. In contrast, a mutually low level of IR behavior leads to a relationship that can be described as mistrustful, hostile and lacking in confidence. In general, then, continued mutually high levels of IR behavior lead to approach behavior and cooperation, while continued low levels lead to avoidant behavior and conflict (Thomas, 1968, pp. 35-37).

Previous investigations into these various elements of and conceptual statements about IR theory have been conducted in attempts to find validation for them. Lillibridge (1967) examined the construct of subjective interpersonal risk and established the validity of the instrument which had been designed to measure it (IR-scale, Form B). He utilized three basic validation techniques in that study: (1) Group differences, (2) Relationships derived from the theory, and (3) Differentiation of the

construct from various related constructs (discriminant

validity). Making fifteen hypotheses, he confirmed ten

of them at least as to the direction predicted. "Trust"

and "risk taking," two variables of special relevance to

the theory, were directly confirmed. Thomas (1968) des-

cribed the basic approach of Lillibridge's work as:

> Three basic approaches to validation were used in
> this study: (1) Group differences--According to
> Cronbach and Meehl (1955), "If our understandings of
> a construct leads us to expect two groups to differ on
> the test, this expectation may be tested directly,"
> (p. 287); (2) Relationships derived from the theory--
> Such relationships include relating the test to the
> construct, the construct to other constructs, and
> relating some of these constructs to observables.
> Then testable predictions can be made about the
> relationship of the test scores to certain other vari-
> ables. If these predictions are verified by empirical
> results, then this provides evidence for the validity
> of the construct; (3) Finally there is the approach of
> differentiation of the construct under examination from
> various related constructs. This refers to discrimi-
> nant validity, that is, that the distinction between
> the "new" construct and others that are already in use
> be verified.

> Lillibridge selected several demographic variables
> as the basis for his predictions concerning subjective
> IR behavior and group differences. These variables
> included age, sex, education, amount of psychiatric
> experience, and supervisory level. These last two
> were appropriate for his population. He found no
> support for hypothesized relationships between age and
> subjective IR and educational level and subjective IR.
> Tentative support was found for a relationship between
> sex and subjective IR with some tendency for women to
> be higher in SIR than men. With the two variables
> directly relevant to his population, Amount of Psychi-
> atric Experience and Supervisory Level, he found no

support for hypothesized relationships between these and SIR.

Using the validation approach of testing relationships derived from IR theory, Lillibridge attempted to relate an individual's subjective IR behavior to some of his needs and attitudes. He predicted relationships between SIR and deference need, SIR and need for achievement, SIR and need for autonomy, SIR and morale, and SIR and social distance toward mental patients. These last two relationships were especially appropriate to his population since his subjects were employees in a mental hospital. The hypotheses concerning relationships between SIR and strength of manifest needs were not confirmed. However, Lillibridge notes that the direction of the correlations was as predicted. Further, he suggests that with a larger sample significance might have been achieved. In the case of morale, he found a significant relationship with SIR, but in a direction opposite to that predicted. Finally, the hypothesized relationship between SIR and social distance toward mental patients was not confirmed although again, this appeared to be a case of too small a sample size.

Hypotheses stemming from the third approach to validation, that of differentiation of the SIR construct from related constructs, were also tested. Considerable support for the validity of the SIR construct was obtained from the data gathered in this area. These hypotheses related SIR to trust, group dependency, self-confidence, dominance and aggression, and risk taking. The relationship between SIR and trust was significant and in the predicted direction. Tentative support was obtained for a hypothesized relationship between self-confidence and SIR. Predictions concerning SIR and group dependency and dominance and aggression were not confirmed. Finally, the obtained correlation between SIR and risk taking was significant and in the predicted direction.

In summary, Lillibridge concluded that a moderate degree of support had been established for IR theory. Ten of the fifteen hypotheses tested were confirmed as to direction predicted. The two variables whose

relationship with SIR was directly confirmed (trust and risk taking) are of special relevance to the theory (Thomas, 1968, pp. 38-40).

In addition to the development of testable hypotheses, Lillibridge also found the internal validity of the IR-scale to be adequate. As he stated, "For the IR-scale, summing the items to form a total score appeared justified, internal consistency indicates that the scale is quite homogeneous, the distribution of observed scores was normal, and the effects of response set seems minimal. A restriction of range for the IR-scale was observed to be approximately the upper 60% of the potential range of score. A similar restriction was found for a separate reliability sample" (p. 122).

Thomas (1968) explored the use of subjective interpersonal risk in two types of families, "normal" and "disturbed". She hypothesized that the "disturbed" families would have lower interpersonal risk scores than the "normal" families. Other social psychological and personality variables were also examined. These were such as, family role structure, cohesiveness, distribution of influence within the family and ego strength.

Five hypotheses were generated. Of these, two were supported by the data and three were rejected.

Despite the fact that a predicted statistically significant difference in subjective IR scores between the disturbed and normal families was not supported, an interestingly strong linear relationship between subjective IR scores and education was found. In the first study, by Lillibridge (1967), this relationship could not be supported, but Thomas' data disclosed a strong relationship between subjective IR and education. This is an important attribute of IR theory and it will be tested again by the present study.

The predicted relationship between subjective IR and ego strength, and between subjective IR and role orientation were supported by the data from Thomas' study. The latter of these two areas also appears to be of high relevance to the present study, showing a direct relationship to role concept. This finding is quite significant, even though the scale that was used to measure role concept is of somewhat doubtful validity.

A caveat in relation to the translation of results from subjective IR measurements was also offered by Thomas:

> It appears that while subjective interpersonal risk behavior is related to attitudes, beliefs, cognition and traits in the individual, it is clearly a far more difficult task to relate individual subjective interpersonal risk behavior to group functioning. One

difficulty lies in obtaining sensitive measures of group functioning. Another difficulty lies in obtaining a measure which is less subject to distortion stemming from social desirability effects. It might also be that subjective interpersonal risk scores must be obtained from all group members in order to find a relationship between group variables and subjective interpersonal risk behavior (pp. 82-83, italics mine).

This caveat seems especially interesting since the data for the present study will be gathered from all group members of the Sheriff's Department.

While Thomas' study provided some support for a theory of interpersonal risk, it was fraught with many problems stemming form ancillary instruments and sampling techniques. These problems tended to diffuse much of the potential impact. At least two predicted outcomes from the five areas of interest were confirmed by the data. Also, the additional finding that subjective IR and education do have a strong linear relationship was important. These findings provided at least some support for the underlying concepts of IR theory.

Cohen (1968) attempted to relate IR theory to three other theories involving personality. These were: Witkin's perceptual differentiation theory, Maslow's self-actualization theory, and Murray's theory of needs. Although the psychoanalytic rationale for the relationship

between some of these variables were not supported, some interesting findings did come out of this study. Cohen conceded that some of his hypotheses were perhaps ill conceived and the results subject to varied interpretation.

He found what seemed to be a dichotomous orientation toward things as opposed to the essential humanness of people, as measured by SIR and Maslow's POI. Cohen points out that Bales (1953) would describe this as task leadership versus socio-emotional leadership in any social situation. This dichotomy became the main finding of Cohen's study. As he stated it:

> The main finding of this study, then is that the high subjective IR person is one whose predominant actions are toward people as ends in themselves, rather than toward objects. His achievements are interpersonal, rather than materialistic or egotistic. He is distinguished neither by a particular kind of self differentiation, nor by Maslow's self integration concepts. If he is male, he does tend to be higher in subjective IR the more autonomous and self appreciating he is, although this may be due more to a typically male confusion of values, than to any inherent respect for other people's humanity (p. 113).

It seems that Cohen's efforts to link IR theory to task achievement failed in part because the basic theory seems to have more to do with satisfaction with interpersonal relations. This effort, while failing to support hypothesized relationships between IR theory and other

psychological theories, did show the power of the IR scale in designating previously unnoticed relationships in those theories.

Yet another study, exploring the potential of IR theory, was conducted by Reynolds (1968). This study examined the relationship between IR behavior and a number of religious groups. While that study did provide more support for the use of IR theory, it did not explore the specific dimensions of behavior or psychological attitudes considered to be relevant to the present study.

In summary, much evidence for the value of IR theory has been revealed through tests by previous investigators. The relationships found between IR theory and the many other theories compared with it in these studies have provided this investigator with encouragement to attempt further comparison of this concept with other psychological and organizational theories related to administration of a large county law enforcement agency and the socialization process at work within it.

CHAPTER IV

HYPOTHESES

There are two basic purposes for this study: first, to examine the levels of three psychological constructs in a large county law enforcement agency and; second, to investigate the effects that police socialization may have on these levels. Interpersonal risk theory provides a framework from which we can derive a number of hypotheses about the relation of SIR to other aspects of the social environment. The theory provides for an exploration of the relationship of SIR to two other personality and organizational perception variables. In the development of workable and testable hypotheses, the author has found it useful and clarifying to formulate a number of specific research questions in regard to our study population. The proper formulation of research questions, its structure and substance, are perhaps as important as the method used to answer them. Lundstedt (1968) has noted some major considerations for the valid structure of a good question:

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"(a) Is it important enough to worry about? Would an accurate answer add substantially to that which is already known? (b) Was it closely reasoned? In other words, does it cut to the heart of the issue? (c) What about the historical background against which the question is posed in a context of human survival and development? (d) Possibly the most important -- Is the question both logical and fitted to accepted standards of language usage?" (p. 229).

Actually, the hypotheses are merely a different form of research question, declarative and formal but with the same substance. Lundstedt (1969) elaborates on the difference between questions and hypotheses:

> The usual cannons of scientific method traditionally distinguish between the alternative and the null hypothesis, a convention which does not invalidate the author's argument. Initially, the chief motive for any inquiry is a question, not a formal hypothesis which is simply an edited version of one's question. An hypothesis always originates as a question, and remains like a question even in its declarative form because of its tentativeness and its appeal for proof or disproof. The relationship between the two has probably always been confusing. Their differences are formal and not substantive. In any event, research practices are often "quick and dirty" in this connection. Owing to such confusion we often lose sight of the primary value and utility of the research question, which is to be found in its quality and relevance to some important problem. Accordingly, there are only formal grounds for hairsplitting about the apparent differences between questions and hypotheses. Ultimately, we may not require the null hypothesis as an extra step in the research process. It may become

> necessary only to state one's research questions in
> their proper form, and then to follow this initial
> step with an appropriate empirical and logical test
> of the answers to them, which may simply be a quanti-
> fied form of yes, no, or maybe (p. 86).

The six basic types of research questions, with

strategies for the statistical measures most likely to

derive from them at different measurement levels are shown

in Tables 3 and 4.

While it is recognized that it is best to use the

conditional or biconditional forms of research questions

with higher-level scales of measurement, the author will

attempt to use these forms with the ordinal data gathered

by this project. While the power of the conclusions

derived from the higher forms of questions are somewhat

weakened by this assumption, it fits the strategies as

shown in Table 4 and helps clarify the problem in each

hypothesis.

The hypotheses listed below are drawn from IR

theory and other constructs used in this study in order to

differentiate the socialization process. Each hypothesis

will be followed by a discussion of the theoretical and

research rationale that led to that hypothesis and the type

of research question from which it was derived.

To avoid some of the confusion generated by the

TABLE 3[a]

EXAMPLES OF RESEARCH STRATEGIES

Type of question	Type of scale			
	Nominal	Ordinal	Interval	Ratio
Biconditional	1.5	2.5	3.5	4.5
Conditional	1.4	2.4	3.4	4.4
Conjunctive	1.3	2.3	3.3	4.3
Disjunctive	1.2	2.2	3.2	4.2
Affirmative or negative	1.1	2.1	3.1	4.1

[a] The index number 1.1 above indicates a scale and question combination having the least information, while the index number 4.5 indicates that combination with the most information.

TABLE 4[a]

EXAMPLES OF RESEARCH STRATEGIES AND POSSIBLE STATISTICAL MEASURES

Type of question	Type of scale			
	Nominal	Ordinal	Interval	Ratio
Biconditional	Location Dispersion Differentiation (1.5)	Location Dispersion Differentiation Association Dependency Interdependency (2.5)	Location Dispersion Differentiation Association Dependency Interdependency (3.5)	Location Dispersion Differentiation Association Dependency Interdependency (4.5)
Conditional	Location Dispersion Differentiation (1.4)	Location Dispersion Differentiation Association Dependency (2.4)	Location Dispersion Differentiation Association Dependency (3.4)	Location Dispersion Differentiation Association Dependency (4.4)
Conjunctive	Location Dispersion Differentiation (1.3)	Location Dispersion Differentiation Association (2.3)	Location Dispersion Differentiation Association (3.3)	Location Dispersion Differentiation Association (4.3)
Disjunctive	Location Dispersion Differentiation (1.2)	Location Dispersion Differentiation (2.2)	Location Dispersion Differentiation (3.2)	Location Dispersion Differentiation (4.2)
Affirmative or negative	Location Dispersion (1.1)	Location Dispersion (2.1)	Location Dispersion (3.1)	Location Dispersion (4.1)

[a] The index numbers—e.g., 4.5—above are those used in Table 1 and have the same meaning.

SOURCE: Lundstedt, 1969, pp. 88, 91.

method of scoring the IR-scale, as developed by Lillibridge (1967), the present study has changed the basis for high or low IR. In Lillibridge's method, a high score on the IR-scale indicated a person with low IR behavior. By changing the signs on items in the IR-scale, this study will use a high score to indicate high IR behavior and a low score to indicate low IR behavior. This will make discussion of "low" and "high" IR behavior more relevant psychologically to IR-scale scores.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a negative relationship between subjects' scores on the IR-scale and scores on the F-scale.

This is derived from a conditional form of research question which asks, "Is it true that if some individual possesses quality X then will it result in the individual possessing quality Y?" In this case it is the conditional form of question that we are interested in. We do not merely want to establish a conjunctive relationship in this case, but one that is conditional upon the presence or absence of IR-scale scores and a related presence or absence of F-scale scores in the opposite direction.

The person who demonstrates high scores on the F-scale is expressing underlying authoritarian values. These

values are reflected in the nine sub-scales of that con-

struct. Persons with low scores on the IR-scale will be

those who tend to exhibit most of the characteristics of

the sub-scale dimensions of the F-scale, and would tend to

have correspondingly low levels of IR behavior.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a positive correlation between

scores on the IR-scale indicating high interpersonal risk

behavior and movement of scores toward "System 4" on the

POC-scale.

This is also derived from a conditional form of

question. "If - then" relates, in this case, to a related

movement on the two scales. "Is it true that if an indi-

vidual scores high on the IR-scale then he will also score

high on the POC-scale?" (High on the POC-scale meaning

toward System 4). This type of question derives from the

underlying theoretical relationship between the amount of

trust (IR) and communications within an organization.

The higher a person's score on the IR-scale, the

more likely he is to have developed a positive information

exchange relationship between other members within the

organization. In this case, the higher the IR-scale score,

the higher will be the POC score and the better the

impression the individual will demonstrate in relation to

his organization's characteristics. If the IR-scale score

is lower there is probably less trusting behavior and

information exchange taking place and the attitudes of the

individual toward the organizational characteristics will

be closer to the negative (System 1) side of the POC-scale.

Hypothesis 3: Newly appointed deputies (less than one year

of service) will reflect a higher level of interpersonal

risk behavior by a higher IR-scale score and lower authori-

tarianism as reflected in F-scale scores as a group than

groups who have served longer.

This derives from a biconditional question: "Is it

true that if individual A possesses quality X (deputy with

less than one year of service) if and only if it is true

that the same individual possess quality Y (higher IR-scale

score and lower F-scale score)?" In this instance both

conditions must be met for the question to be answered in

the affirmative.

The generally accepted authoritarian atmosphere of

a law enforcement agency tends to socialize members toward

a more authoritarian position over time (Niederhoffer,

1967). As the newly appointed deputy learns what group

expectations for a "good" deputy are, he will tend to

match these attitudes and behaviors. If the "street"

deputies are perceived as role models, new deputies will attempt to conform to these norms. Most police officers aspire to street police work. Street policemen, however, have been shown to be more authoritarian (Niederhoffer, 1967). Following previous reasoning, they should then exhibit lower IR-scale scores as well. This hypothesis is central to the concept of police socialization of the deputy, over time, as they conform to perceived role models of behaviors and attitudes.

Hypothesis 4: Interpersonal risk behavior will decrease, as shown by decreasing IR-scale scores, with length of service.

    4a. As IR-scale scores decrease, F-scale scores will increase in negative correlation.

    4b. As IR-scale scores decrease, POC-scale score will move toward the System 1 side of the continuum in a positive correlation.

This result of the conditional question, stated somewhat more obliquely: "Is it true that if individual A has a longer period of service then he will demonstrate lower interpersonal risk behavior, as shown by scores on the IR-scale?" The other sub-questions are related to the

questions raised earlier in Hypotheses 1 and 2.

Length of service in most large organizations tends to develop conventionalism and stronger ties to group normative values. As the deputy becomes socialized to group expectations and role models, he perceives the avenues for promotion and other positive reinforcement. To get ahead, or get along, he will tend to conform to the views and behaviors of "old hands" and ranking officers (Reiser, 1974). This has been shown by past research (Neiderhoffer, 1967; Sterling, 1974) to result in movement toward a more authoritarian role. As authoritarianism increases, therefore, IR-scale scores will decrease. As attitudes become less trusting, the perception of the organization will become more negative, causing a positively correlated movement toward the System 1 side of the POC-scale.

Hypothesis 5: Deputies will exhibit higher interpersonal risk behavior, as shown by higher IR-scale scores than ranking officers, (Sergeant, Lieutenant, Captain).

Here again, we have the conditional question: "Is it true that if an individual is a deputy then he will exhibit higher interpersonal risk behavior and higher IR-scale scores than ranking officers?" This kind of

question raises many other conditional propositions about IR-scale scores and specific demographic characteristics. These conditional forms of questions are the bases for Hypotheses 6, 7 and 8 as well.

This is partly a function of length of service, as noted in Hypothesis 4, and partly of the authoritarian attitudes that are ascribed to a quasi-military organizational model (Lundstedt, 1965). The effect of military style rank in a police organization has been the center of much controversy in recent years (Sandler and Mintz, 1974). The findings in this study should help determine whether the adoption (socialization) of more authoritarianism with rank is, in fact, the case in this law enforcement agency. It should further demonstrate whether this assumed phenomenom is linear or curvalinear, perhaps showing a reduction in authoritarianism as the rank achieved is closer to the top of the hierarchy.

Hypothesis 6:   Deputies with one or more years of college will exhibit higher interpersonal risk behavior as shown by higher IR-scale scores than deputies with a high school diploma or less.

Neiderhoffer (1967) and Sterling (1974) demonstrated that police with a college education have less

authoritarianism and better role concept, respectively, than those who did not. A college education tends to allow the individual to be more rational and less negative in his choice of behavior (Guller, 1972). Education at the college and university level tends to encourage the individual to question the reason for behavior or attitudes. This questionning practice would cause the college educated deputy to be more resistant to the socialization process, especially if the process tended to cause him role strain (Goode, 1960). Only deputies will be examined in testing this hypothesis because it would be assumed that ranking officers, despite educational level, had already surrendered to the social conformity requirements and relieved many stresses as a result of being promoted (Reiser, 1974). Hypothesis 7: Deputies assigned to the corrections center will exhibit higher interpersonal risk behavior as shown by IR-scale scores than those in other assignment categories.

Because the policy of the Franklin County Sheriff's Department has been to assign all newly hired personnel to the corrections center, these individuals will have been subjected to the least amount of socialization. On the other hand, the ranking officers in the corrections center

are generally reassigned from other "action" assignments and might display some dissatisfaction as being in what they perceive as a less demanding or less important role position. This could create an atmosphere in which the leadership would demonstrate lower IR-scale scores than normal, while the newly assigned personnel might show a higher IR-scale score than normal.

This would lead one to conclude that more rapid socialization, to lower levels of interpersonal risk behavior as shown by IR-scale scores and higher levels of authoritarianism as shown by F-scale scores, might occur. This could be taking place in the corrections center because those personnel are anxious to get into patrol.

Hypothesis 8: Black deputies will exhibit higher levels of interpersonal risk behavior, as shown by higher IR-scale scores than other racial groups.

    8a. Black deputies will exhibit lower levels of authoritarianism, as shown by lower F-scale scores than other racial groups.

    8b. Black deputies will score further toward the System 4 end of the POC-scale continuum than other racial groups.

The concept of reference group has been discussed

in a previous chapter (Hyman, 1942; Kelly, 1952; Sherif and Sherif, 1964; Jones and Gerard, 1967). The assumed reference group within the Sheriff's Department is the ranking officers or leaders in the organization. In the present structure there are only four Black ranking officers (all Sergeants). As noted in the discussion on role theory, the individual tends to adopt multiple reference groups when he is forced to assume several, sometimes conflicting, roles (Merton, 1957). The Black deputy is left with a situation in which his reference group in the police organization is not perceived as in consonance with the values and attitudes needed for acceptance in his role position in the Black community. This role conflict would tend to cause the Black deputy to be slower in acquiring the hypothesized higher authoritarianism and lower interpersonal risk behavior expected from the ranking officers. Parenthetically, the Black deputy working in the corrections center is confronted by the fact that a very large portion of the jail population comes from the Black community. It would be expected that higher IR-scale scores would be especially predominant, in that setting, for the Black corrections officer. Alex, in Black In Blue (1969), has noted many paradoxes for the Black policeman. This

study will hope to further expose at least some of them.

CHAPTER V

RESEARCH METHODS

This study is in part an attempt to gain further
empirical support for a theory of interpersonal behavior.
Specifically, in greater part, it is an attempt to examine
the socialization process in a large county law enforcement
agency and relate it to the level of interpersonal risk
behavior (IR) displayed by that organization's members.
IR theory's basic concept is that a person's willingness
to give away influence over others is based on his sub-
jective calculation of risk and utility. This concept has
great potential for social-psychological theory in general
and for investigations regarding public service organiza-
tions in particular. Most of the research in the area of
law enforcement organizations has focused on the static
aspects of the structure of the agency and the individual's
response to this structure. IR theory could fill the need
for concepts which bridge the gap between situational
characteristics and personal reactions, taking the

individual's internal processes into account.

IR theory builds upon a foundation of decision theory and presents two key concepts; subjective interpersonal risk and subjective interpersonal risk behavior. Subjective interpersonal risk is a personal attribute which refers to a consistency in the individual's internal decision-making in which he generally evaluated his interpersonal encounters as having more or less risk and utility for himself and decides to behave in a manner consistent with his evaluation. Subjective interpersonal risk behavior is the individual's expression of the nature of his decision (Thomas, 1968).

This study asks the question whether this concept of SIR is able to differentiate between individuals who are being subjected to the socialization process in law enforcement. Results that indicate SIR is able to do this will provide yet another measure of validation for this concept. Further, it might be possible to discern relationships between selected theoretical constructs of individual attitudes toward selected aspects of the organization and SIR behavior. Finally, SIR behavior might provide a link between personality characteristics of organizational members and the structure of the law enforcement agency.

Purpose of the Study

We have noted that the primary purpose of this study is to examine the socialization process at work in a large county law enforcement agency. This is a social-psychological process that has broad application to prescriptive and remedial actions by administrators of similar agencies. In a law enforcement agency, particularly, it is important to have a clear understanding of the process of socialization toward certain norms and behaviors. If these are not consonant with the organizational goals, it is possible to have discontent and poor morale. This study attempts to describe at least some of the organizational and psychological factors that impinge heavily on the socialization of the deputy sheriff and their effect on organizational perceptions.

In earlier discussion we indicated the theoretical importance of the constructs of Subjective Interpersonal Risk, Organizational Characteristics Profile, and the Authoritarian Personality in understanding interpersonal behavior in a law enforcement agency. In the course of this study, we will apply measures of these constructs to an entire population of a county law enforcement agency in order to gain information regarding the distribution of

scores for selected variables in such an organization. The decision to use a large county law enforcement agency as a research setting was based on the following considerations:

1. One major characteristic of a public service organization, such as a Sheriff's Department, is that its members work directly with and through other people in providing services, maintaining the integrity of the organization and for their own personal well-being. Interpersonal relations should be of greater importance to members of such an organization than one might expect to be the case in other settings.

2. Another major characteristic of members of a county law enforcement agency is their wide diversity of personal and cultural backgrounds, professional identifications, skill levels, and required tasks.

3. As a consequence of the diversity of backgrounds and affiliations of its members and the complexity of personal relationships inevitable within it, a large county law enforcement agency should not be able to enforce all procedures and policies equally. There should be fairly wide latitude for voluntary decisions in interpersonal relationships between department personnel and with the public served.

4. The requirement for the handling of prisoners in the county jail should make factors of uncertainty and risk of even greater relevance for Sheriff's Department personnel than for law enforcement organizations where such interpersonal factors are less tangible. Heightened awareness of these factors in the county law enforcement setting should make them more useable for our experimental group.

5. The fairly obvious applicability of IR theory to understanding behavior in the law enforcement and correctional setting should assist in gaining permission to conduct the study. A measure of rapport with the Sheriff had already been established by this investigator because of his position as Director of the Educational Opportunity Program for about four months preceding initiation of the present study. This position of trust and professional respect considerably enhanced the feasibility of carrying out the investigation.

Another purpose of the present study stems from the prediction of IR theory that, "A given level of subjective interpersonal risk behavior, whether relatively high or low, should correspond to comparable levels of expressed attitudes and needs and of interpersonal

behavior" (Lillibridge, 1967, p. 70). The nature of these predicted relationships is such that subjective interpersonal risk behavior should be expected to covary with many of the indicators of a good organizational profile (Likert, 1967) and of the authoritarian personality (Adorno, et al., 1950) that have been previously discussed. If this portion of the theory proves valid, a link to an important area of scientific and applied activity will have been established. We are, therefore, interested in the empirical relationships between certain "interpersonal" variables and levels of subjective interpersonal risk behavior. The specific questions we seek to answer are (in simplified form): (1) Does the Profile of Organizational Characteristics covary with subjective IR behavior in the direction predicted by IR theory?, (2) Does Authoritarianism covary with subjective IR characteristics of our population? These questions, when analyzed in relation to specific demographic variables obtained through this study, will help us to understand more clearly the locus and process of socialization within a large county law enforcement agency.

Research Site and Sample

The law enforcement agency to be examined in this study is the County Sheriff's Department of Franklin County, Ohio. Franklin County surrounds the central Ohio city of Columbus, which is also the state capitol. The county is approximately 550 square miles in size, about half of which is policed by the Sheriff's Department. The standard metropolitan area of Franklin County encompasses a population of over 836,000, including Columbus. The city of Columbus has a large urban law enforcement agency, with over 1,100 sworn officers. In addition, there are 29 other law enforcement agencies located within Franklin County, ranging in size from one-man township constables to departments of ten to thirty officers. This multi-jurisdictional potpourri of agencies works under a number of special agreements with the Franklin County Sheriff's Department for police services. The Sheriff is recognized as the "supreme law enforcement officer" in all counties of Ohio. While the Franklin County Sheriff's Department does not have the largest police agency in the area, it is charged with the most diverse functions.

In addition to the standard law enforcement functions of patrol and investigation, the Franklin County

Sheriff is also responsible for operation of the county jail (a 395 cell facility) and various civil operations (e.g., subpoenas, tax sales, foreclosure and eviction actions). This situation requires that deputies have a broader range of skills and become involved in a more varied range of activities than most of their urban and suburban police counterparts.

The present Sheriff has held the office for a little over two years. The previous Sheriff had held the office for only a short period of time, following the death of his father who had served as the Sheriff of Franklin County for fourteen years. The office of Sheriff is an elected position in Franklin County, as it is in most American counties. The Sheriff is given broad powers to appoint and assign personnel in the Department. The personnel situation at the time of this study provided for civil service protection for deputies up through the rank of Lieutenant. Captains and Chief Deputies are appointed to "non-classified" posts and are not provided with civil service protections. This civil service option is relatively new in the Department, having begun only in 1973. Prior to initiation of this protection, the election of a new Sheriff could have resulted in the complete replacement

of any or all of the deputies in the Department. Now, however, re-election or defeat of the incumbent Sheriff has maximum impact at only the extreme top level of the hierarchy. An organizational chart of the Franklin County Sheriff's Department is shown in Figure 5. It will be noted that this is the traditional organizational structure, with no "linking pins," as recommended by Likert (1967).

With the opening of the new nine-story Franklin County Corrections Center in 1972, the Department began to develop measures aimed at upgrading the prestige of correctional work and improving the quality of correctional workers. Traditionally, the "turnkey" had been selected from among those deputies who were not able to make it as "street cops." Or, they were composed of deputies who merely wanted to remain inside the jail, seeing it as a secure (if not challenging) job. Also, it has been reported that assignment to the jail had sometimes been used as punishment for the deputy who had fallen from favor in the field.

Eventually it was recognized that this type of selection, for a job which required interaction with people in confinement, was inefficient for at least two

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                          │   SHERIFF   │
                          └──────┬──────┘
           ┌─────────────────────┼─────────────────────┐
  ┌────────┴────────┐   ┌─────────┴────────┐   ┌────────┴────────┐
  │  CHIEF DEPUTY   │   │  CHIEF DEPUTY    │   │  DIRECTOR OF    │
  │ UNIFORM DIVISION│   │  NON-UNIFORM     │   │ ADMINISTRATIVE  │
  │                 │   │  DIVISION        │   │   SERVICES      │
  └────┬───────┬────┘   └─────────┬────────┘   └────────┬────────┘
  ┌────┴───┐ ┌─┴──────────┐
  │ PATROL │ │ CORRECTIONS│
  └────┬───┘ └─────┬──────┘
```

Patrol	Jail	Detectives	Administrative Personnel
Radio	Chaplain	Training	
Accident Investigation	Doctor	Inspectional Services	
Community Affairs	Dentist	Records & Identification	
	Counselors	Process Servers	
	Para-Medics		
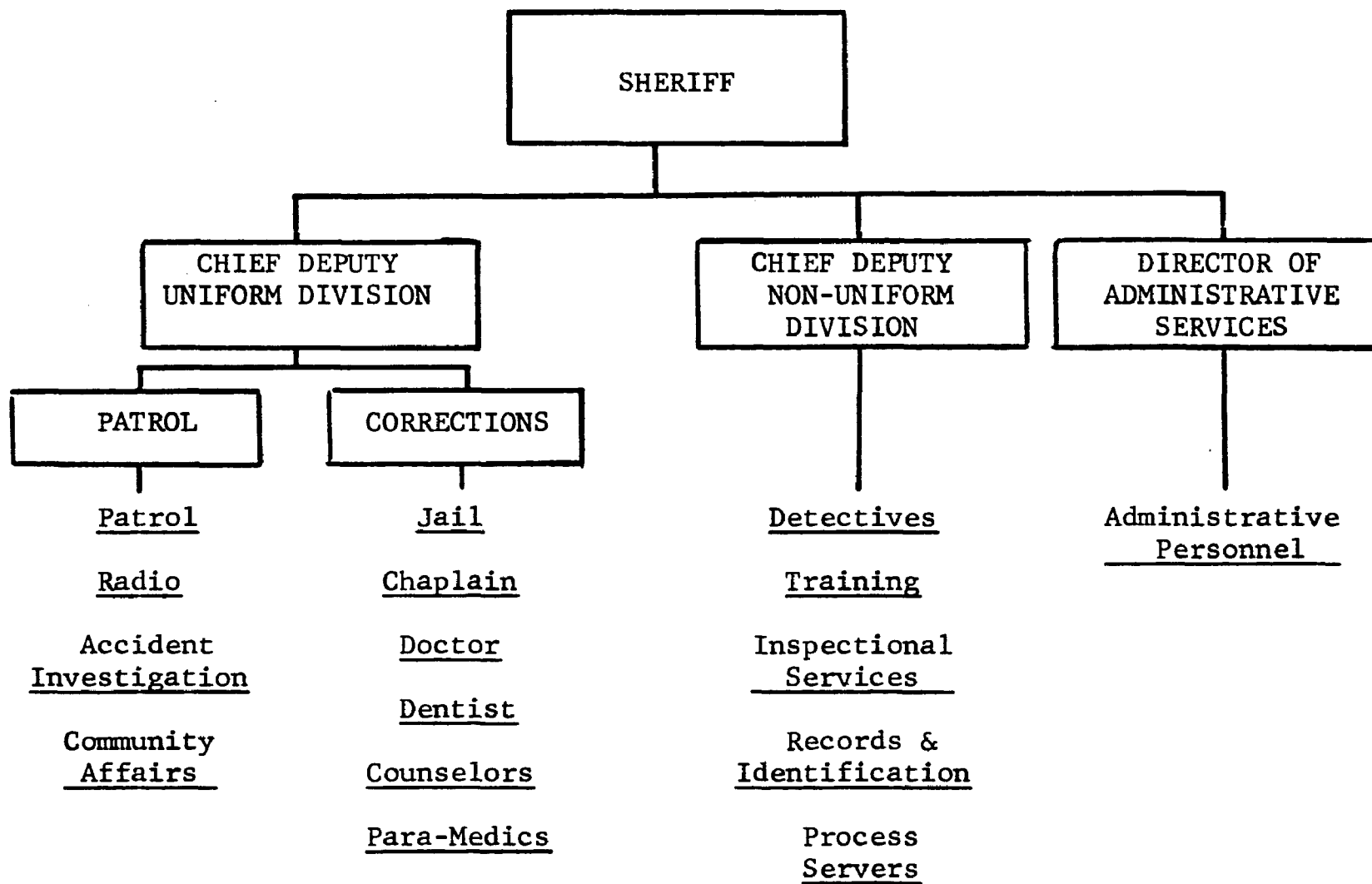
FIG. 5--Organization Chart - Franklin County Sheriff's Department

reasons. First, it was a waste of trained deputies, whose police skills soon became atrophied in this kind of environment. Second, it failed to provide a growth pattern or professional development channel for those who chose to be corrections personnel. These two factors tended to result in corrections personnel who were either highly qualified "street" deputies unhappy to be in the corrections center, or others content to remain in a situation which offered little or no challenge, development, or advancement. With as many as 10,000 inmates per year passing through the corrections center, a need for more qualified and professional help was seen as an important improvement.

In a step toward a more professionalized corrections center staff, the present Sheriff has adopted a policy of initially assigning all newly hired personnel to the corrections center. This procedure was originally intended to provide a broader base of potential personnel for the corrections center. Under this concept, the deputies who want to leave the center and work on the street are selected by the ranking officers. This selection is usually based on two criteria; the acquisition of a certificate of completion for the basic police officer's

training course of 240 hours (as required by Ohio law for sworn police officers), and being recognized as "good" deputies. It is this procedure for selection of deputies for the street police role that, in great part, has provided the incentive for conducting the present study. What is a "good" deputy? Is it one who has been socialized to accept and internalize the norms held by those who make up the power (selection) structure? What are the norms and attitudes of members of this social structure? These and many other questions arise from this assignment and selection procedure.

Because of the investigator's association with the Sheriff, as the Director of the Department's Educational Opportunity Program, it was possible to arrange the conduct of a "top-to-bottom" survey of the Department. This opportunity to survey a complete population of a study group is unusual in social research and affords a unique chance to collect and analyze data. The absence of sampling problems allows for greater generalizability in inferences which can be drawn from the data obtained.

Data Gathering

The three scales used in this study, although

well established instruments, were tested for validity by use of the "known groups" technique (Selltiz, et al., 1959), using two groups at assumed opposite ends of the spectrum of values being assessed. One of the control groups was drawn from social workers who provide client services in the Department of State Welfare. The second group was selected from "seasoned veteran" law enforcement officers with the Columbus Division of Police who are also members of "SWAT" (Special Weapons and Tactics) teams. SWAT teams are designed to be used in emergency situations of a special nature, (e.g., riots, disorders, snipers, bombs). It was assumed that these two groups form two extremes for the personality characteristics being measured.

The validity of the scales was tested by comparing scores on the three instruments between the social worker group and the police group. The resulting comparison of means and t-test values are presented in Table 5. It was assumed that the police group would score significantly lower on the IR-scale and higher on the F-scale than the social worker group. Also, it would be assumed that the police group would score more closely to the System 1 side of the POC-scale, while the social worker group would tend

TABLE 5

A T-TEST OF MEANS FOR SCORES ON ALL SCALES
AND SUBSCALES BETWEEN "KNOWN GROUPS":
A VALIDITY CHECK

	Social Workers N=23		SWAT Team N=15		Separate Variance Estimate		
	Mean	S D	Mean	S D	t	D F	P
Total IR	89.9	29.2	48.7	34.9	3.79	26.2	.001
High IR	94.0	27.2	61.4	27.9	3.54	29.5	.001
Low IR	-4.1	4.37	-12.7	9.88	3.17	17.62	.001
Total F	6.29	1.32	3.96	1.02	6.06	34.8	.001
F1	6.45	2.21	3.88	1.16	4.66	34.7	.001
F2	6.44	1.47	4.45	1.15	4.63	34.6	.001
F3	7.17	1.77	3.6	1.2	7.41	35.8	.001
F4	5.63	1.56	3.83	.91	4.46	35.6	.001
F5	6.34	1.54	4.56	1.49	3.53	30.8	.001
F6	5.99	1.63	3.52	1.47	4.83	32.1	.001
F7	5.41	2.36	3.5	1.54	3.01	35.9	.001
F8	5.17	1.70	3.63	1.66	2.77	30.6	.005
F9	6.98	1.99	3.51	1.61	5.9	34.1	.001
Total POC	9.99	3.14	8.44	2.56	1.66	34.06	.05
POC 1	10.04	3.96	8.4	4.24	1.20	28.57	N.S.
POC 2	10.0	4.32	8.95	4.81	.68	27.71	N.S.
POC 3	11.5	3.38	8.90	2.88	2.54	33.29	.008
POC 4	9.71	4.18	7.44	3.10	1.91	35.29	.03
POC 5	8.36	3.47	7.06	3.05	1.22	32.73	N.S.
POC 6	9.26	3.62	9.31	3.30	-.04	32.05	N.S.

Legend for Subscales:

F1 = Conventionalism

F2 = Authoritarian Submission

F3 = Authoritarian Aggression

F4 = Anti-intraception

F5 = Superstition and Stereotypy

F6 = Power and Toughness

F7 = Destructiveness and Cynicism

F8 = Projectivity

F9 = Sex

POC 1 = Leadership

POC 2 = Motivation

POC 3 = Communication

POC 4 = Decisions

POC 5 = Goals

POC 6 = Control

to be more toward System 4.

The assumptions in regard to the known groups, as noted above, were substantiated at well beyond the usually acceptable .05 level of significance for both the IR-scale and the F-scale. While the POC-scale did not demonstrate the extreme levels of statistical significance of the other scales, it did meet the standard level of .05, and in the hypothesized direction. It is felt that the POC-scale, which is a descriptive rather than psychometric instrument, may have been somewhat effected by the fact that both organizations were very large. The respondents were asked to evaluate their own, rather than a hypothetically smaller, organization. Thus, the social worker group may have evaluated their scores lower because of the large size of the State Welfare Department. This does not prevent us from accepting the POC-scale as a valid indicator of movement in the expected direction and acting as a valid indicator of organizational perception. Using a "one-tailed" test (Downie and Heath, 1965), the probability of the scores for the IR-scale and the F-scale occurring by chance alone were less than 5 out of 1,000 (.005). For the POC-scale, the probability of the scores occurring by chance alone were 5 out of 100 (.05). Because of these

very significant probability values, the scales utilized
can be considered reasonably valid indicators of differ-
ences in both the psychological and organizational dimen-
sions they are measuring.

After validation of the scales, data from the
experimental group were collected, keypunched and checked
for errors (consistency). Data were collected from per-
sonnel at the Franklin County Sheriff's Department between
March 25, 1975 and April 15, 1975.

Instrumentation

IR-Scale

Lundstedt originally devised seventy descriptive
statements to construct an instrument (IR-scale) to mea-
sure subjective interpersonal risk. Those statements were
judged to be representative and describing situations in
which subjective risk and utility were involved. They were
further assumed to describe where personal influence and
control were distributed or exchanged. To determine how
accurate these items were able to measure what was intend-
ed, item analysis was conducted. As noted by Lillibridge
(1967):

> A 10-step modified Likert scale was used to indi-
> cate the degree of agreement or disagreement with each

statement by respondents. Half of the statements indicate a high level of subjective interpersonal risk on the part of the respondent if agreed to. A low level of subjective interpersonal risk is indicated by agreement with the remainder.

Form A of the IR-scale, made up of the seventy statements in random order, was administered to a sample of 120 college students and industrial personnel. Item analysis resulted in the retention of 30 items (statements) which showed the highest correlation with the total score. Together these items constitute form B of the scale. For fifteen of the items agreement is scored in the low IR direction. Disagreement with high IR items is scored in the low IR direction and disagreement with low IR items is scored in the high IR direction. The respondent's final score is the difference between the subtotal of scores for high IR items and the subtotal for low IR items. An internal consistency coefficient of .912 (split-half with Spearman-Brown correction), N of 127, was computed indicating that the IR-scale is quite homogeneous. The sample for this reliability check included both college students and adults with approximately the same range of occupations as the sample of hospital personnel used in the present study but with a somewhat younger median age. Other demographic characteristics were essentially comparable for the two samples (pp. 75-76).

In a preliminary validity study employing form B of the IR-scale, Lundstedt and Long used a group very similar to that used for the reliability check. As this was at the peak of the Viet Nam war, they were asked questions related to it. They were directed to describe the strategy or procedure that they would follow to end the Viet Nam war if they had the power. A list of official positions from which to choose included the President,

Secretary of Defense; Secretary of Health, Education, and

Welfare; Secretary General of the United Nations, and

others. Lillibridge notes (1967):

> It was assumed that the respondents having a high level
> of subjective interpersonal risk would choose a strat-
> egy (as performed by a given official) that would
> characterize them as "doves" on this issue. Similarly,
> respondents adopting a "hawk" strategy were considered
> to have a low level of subjective interpersonal risk.
> Results were not clear-cut since there were at least
> 17 reversals in a sample of 120, and several of the
> remaining essays could not be reliably scored as
> reflecting a hawk or dove strategy. A trend towards
> a positive relationship between IR level and dove-like
> strategy was found (affording some support for the
> validity of IR theory), but it was evident that further
> studies were needed in any case (pp. 76-77).

Lillibridge (1967) conducted an item analysis on

the data from his study sample. He computed item-total

correlations for each of the thirty items (see Table 6) and

all were significant at the .01 level or beyond. Utilizing

Fisher's Z-transformation (Edwards, 1957, p. 305), the mean

item-total correlation was found to be .49 (S of .11).

These results confirmed that combination of all thirty

responses into a single score was justified.

Further, the mean and standard deviation for res-

ponses were computed for each item on the Form B scale.

A t-test was performed to determine if there was a statis-

tically significant difference from an assumed population

TABLE 6

ITEM ANALYSIS OF IR-SCALE (N=92)

Item No.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	t^a	Level of Significance of t^b	r^c
1	5.27	1.90	-1.16	N.S.	.464
2	5.94	1.86	2.27	.05	.545
3	7.06	1.49	10.04	.01	.492
4	6.70	2.21	5.21	.01	.289
5	7.47	1.64	11.52	.01	.475
6	7.02	1.59	9.17	.01	.489
7	7.05	1.47	10.11	.01	.398
8	6.94	1.81	7.63	.01	.357
9	7.31	1.50	11.57	.01	.404
10	6.31	1.71	4.54	.01	.473
11	6.18	1.81	3.60	.01	.371
12	7.18	1.49	10.81	.01	.353
13	7.10	1.66	9.24	.01	.512
14	7.14	1.54	10.21	.01	.479
15	7.17	1.66	9.65	.01	.525
16	7.46	1.77	10.62	.01	.472
17	6.45	1.77	5.69	.01	.592
18	6.32	1.91	4.12	.01	.542
19	7.13	1.67	9.36	.01	.527
20	7.19	1.54	10.52	.01	.428
21	6.09	2.18	2.60	.01	.589
22	7.85	1.82	12.38	.01	.606
23	7.35	2.19	8.10	.01	.651
24	6.78	1.91	6.43	.01	.615
25	5.64	1.82	0.74	N.S.	.418
26	6.30	1.87	4.10	.01	.440
27	5.68	1.73	1.00	N.S.	.372
28	6.42	1.69	5.22	.01	.567
29	6.08	2.06	2.70	.01	.463
30	7.00	1.72	8.36	.01	.599

$^a t = \dfrac{(\bar{X}-\mu)\sqrt{N}}{S.D.}$, where $\mu=5.5$ (the "neutral" response alternative).

^{b}Two-tailed test.

^{c}Correlation with total score.

SOURCE: Lillibridge, 1967, p. 78.

mean of 5.5, on a 10-point continuum. Signs were reversed

for items where agreement to an item indicates a low level

of subjective interpersonal risk (high interpersonal risk

behavior). Results, as found by Lillibridge, are also

shown in Table 6.

Inter-item correlations were also calculated by

Lillibridge; "Of 435 correlations, 160 were significant at

the .01 level. Fifteen items of the scale contributed

ninety-two percent of the significant inter-item correla-

tions. If the fifteen relatively non-intercorrelated items

are separately considered, the following picture appears.

Of 106 correlations, 14 are significant. Utilizing Fishers

2-transformation, the mean item-total correlation was found

to be .42 (S of .11). The mean item-total correlations

for the full thirty-item IR-scale and the fifteen-item

'abbreviated' scale are not significantly different"

(pp. 77-79). It appears that the items used in the IR-

scale (Form B) are discriminatory.

The F-Scale

As noted earlier, the California F-scale, as devel-

oped by Adorno, et al., (1950) has been validated as a

measurement of authoritarianism and prejudice by literally

hundreds of studies. Some of the original rationale and

and development of this scale is herein extracted from The

Authoritarian Personality (1950):

> The 38 items of the original F-scale are shown, in Table I (VII) [Appendix A], numbered in the order of their appearance on Form 78. If the reader considers that most of what has gone before in this volume was either known or thought about before construction of the F-scale began, it will be apparent that in devising the scale we did not proceed in a strictly empirical fashion. We did not consider starting with hundreds of items chosen more or less at random and then seeing by trial and error which ones might be associated with A-S and E. For every item there was a hypothesis, sometimes several hypotheses, stating what might be the nature of its connection with prejudice.

> The major source of these hypotheses was the research already performed in the present study. Available for the purpose was the following material: results, such as those given in preceding chapters, from the A-S, E, and PEC scales; numerous correlates of E derived from questionnaire studies, that is, from responses to factual and short essay questions pertaining to such topics as religion, war, ideal society, and so forth; early results from projective questions; finally, and by far the most important, material from the interviews and the Thematic Apperception Tests. Another important source of items was research in fields allied to the present one in which the authors had previously had part. Principal among these were several studies performed at the University of California on personality in relation to war morale and ideology and researches of the Institute of Social Research such as content analyses of speeches of anti-Semitic workers. Finally, there was the general literature on anti-Semitism and fascism, embracing both empirical and theoretical studies.

> It will have been recognized that the interpretation of the material of the present study was guided by a theoretical orientation that was present at the start. The same orientation played the most crucial role in the preparation of the F-scale. Once a

hypothesis had been formulated concerning the way in which some deep-lying trend in the personality might express itself in some opinion or attitude that was dynamically, though not logically, related to prejudice against outgroups, a preliminary sketch for an item was usually not far to seek: a phrase from the daily newspaper, an utterance by an interviewee, a fragment of ordinary conversation was usually ready at hand. (As will be seen, however, the actual formulation of an item was a technical proceeding to which considerable care had to be devoted).

As to what kinds of central personality trends we might expect to be the most. significant, the major guide, as has been said, was the research which had gone before; they were the trends which, as hypothetical constructs seemed best to explain the consistency of response on the foregoing scales, and which emerged from the analysis of clinical material as the likely sources of the coherence found in individual cases. Most of these trends have been mentioned before, usually when it was necessary to do so in order to give meaning to obtained results. For example, when it was discovered that the anti-Semitic individual objects to Jews on the ground that they violate conventional moral values, one interpretation was that this individual had a particularly strong and rigid adherence to conventional values, and that this general disposition in his personality provided some of the motivational basis for anti-Semitism, and at the same time expressed itself in other ways, e.g., in a general tendency to look down on and to punish those who were believed to be violating conventional values. This interpretation was supported by results from the E and PEC scales, where it was shown that items expressive of conventionalism were associated with more manifest forms of prejudice. Accordingly, therefore, adherence to conventional values came to be thought of as a variable in the person--something which could be approached by means of scale items of the F type and shown to be related functionally to various manifestations of prejudice. Similarly, a consideration of E-scale results strongly suggested that underlying several of the prejudiced responses was a general disposition to glorify, to be subservient to and remain uncritical toward

authoritative figures of the ingroup and to take an attitude of punishing outgroup figures in the name of some moral authority. Hence, authoritarianism assumed the proportions of a variable worthy to be investigated in its own right.

In the same way, a number of such variables were derived and defined, and they, taken together, made up the basic content of the F-scale. Each was regarded as a more or less central trend in the person which, in accordance with some dynamic process, expressed itself on the surface in ethnocentrism as well as in diverse psychologically related opinions and attitudes. These variables are listed below, together with a brief definition of each.

a. Conventionalism. Rigid adherence to conventional, middle-class values.

b. Authoritarian submission. Submissive, uncritical attitude toward idealized moral authorities of the group.

c. Authoritarian aggression. Tendency to be on the lookout for, and to condemn, reject, and punish people who violate conventional values.

d. Anti-intraception. Opposition to the subjective, the imaginative, the tender-minded.

e. Superstition and stereotypy. The belief in mystical determinants of the individual's fate; the disposition to think in rigid categories.

f. Power and "toughness." Preoccupation with the dominance-submission, strong-weak, leader-follower dimension; identification with power figures; over-emphasis upon the conventionalized attributes of the ego; exaggerated assertion of strength and toughness.

g. Destructiveness and cynicism. Generalized hostility, vilification of the human.

h. Projectivity. The disposition to believe that wild
    and dangerous things go on in the world; the pro-
    jection outwards of unconscious emotional impulses.

i. Sex. Exaggerated concern with sexual "goings-on."

These variables were thought of as going together to
form a single syndrome, a more or less enduring struc-
ture in the person that renders him receptive to anti-
democratic propaganda. One might say, therefore, that
the F-scale attempts to measure the potentially anti-
democratic personality. This does not imply that all
the features of this personality pattern are touched
upon in the scale, but only that the scale embraces a
fair sample of the ways in which this pattern charac-
teristically expresses itself (pp. 224-229).

As a result of their initial efforts, the team of

Adorno, et al., found that some items in the original

F-scale were useful in the measurement of more than one

of the variables noted. To add richness to the sub-scale,

items were often used to represent two (or more) ideas.

Successive forms of the F-scale were used to refine

its capability to measure authoritarianism. As noted in

Adorno, et al., (1950):

We may now inquire what it is that distinguishes
the items which turned out well statistically from
those turned out poorly. Can any general statements
be made about each of these two groups of items that
can serve as guides in the formulation of new items?
The first question concerns the nine groups of items
chosen to represent the variables that entered into
the conceptualization of F. Do most of the items with
high D.P.'s pertain to a few of the variables? Are
there some variables which simply do not belong to the
pattern we are considering? Three of the clusters;
Sex, Authoritarian Aggression, and Authoritarian

Submission, had mean D.P.'s above 2.0, the remaining
clusters having mean D.P.'s in the range 1.26-1.80.
Projectivity (1.70), Destructiveness and Cynicism
(1.56), and Conventionalism (1.26) were the least
satisfactory. However, it is to be noted that every
cluster has within it at least one item with a D.P.
above 2.0. At this stage, therefore, it seemed best
not to eliminate any of the variables but to give
attention to improving or replacing the poorer items
found in each cluster (p. 265).

Improvement, in successive refinements of the

scale, finally resulted in the third version of the F-scale

(forms 45 and 40). The F-scale clusters for forms 45 and

40 are also shown in Appendix A. These items began to

develop much greater reliability and improvement over

earlier forms. In a total sample of 1,518 subjects,

Adorno found:

The average of the reliability coefficients is .90,
their range .81 to .97. Not only is there a slight
improvement in reliability over Form 60 (av. r = .87)
and a very marked improvement over the original Form 78
(av. r = .74), but the scale has now been developed to
a point where it meets rigorous statistical require-
ments. A reliability of .90 may be interpreted to mean
that the scale can place individuals along a dimension--
in this case a broad and complex dimension--with a
small margin of error. In other words, the score
attained by an individual can be relied upon in the
sense that chance errors of measurement have been mini-
mized, so that in a repetition of the scale, at a time
when political-socioeconomic conditions were generally
the same as before, his new score would either be the
same as his first or fall within narrow limits above or
below it. The degree of reliability attained here is
within the range which characterizes acceptable intelli-
gence tests (pp. 257-259).

Further, the internal consistency of the scale items was found to be significant (p. 257):

> All of the items differentiate significantly between the high and the low quartiles. It is to be noted that numerous items taken over without change from Form 60 work much better here than in that instance. This is probably due in part to the fact that the diverse groups given Form 45-40 included more extreme scorers and in part to improvement of the scale as a whole: a good item differentiates the more sharply between the upper and lower quartiles the more successfully the total scale distinguishes individuals who are actually extreme with respect to the trends being measured.

This final version of F-scale is that which is used in the present study. Only one item, that which refers to post-war (WW II) reconstruction, was eliminated from the questionnaire used. It is felt that this instruments long and successful history will add depth and substance to the present study.

POC-Scale

The POC-scale is both descriptive and prescriptive in nature. The version of this scale (Form E) which was used in this study is the briefest form of this descriptive questionnaire, as derived from the works of Rensis Likert. In New Patterns of Management (1961), Likert developed a theory of management which envisioned four discrete types of organizational systems as shown in Table 7. Likert describes this concept as follows:

TABLE 7

LIKERT'S FOUR DISCRETE ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEMS

System of Organization			
Authoritative		Participative	
Exploitive Authoritative	Benevolent Authoritative	Consultative	Participative Group
SYSTEM 1	SYSTEM 2	SYSTEM 3	SYSTEM 4

Table [7] is organized as though there were four discrete types of organizational systems which fall at the four points shown on the suggested continuum. This oversimplifies the situation. The four different systems really blend into one another and make one continuum with many intermediate patterns.

When all the different management systems which involve at least a moderate degree of control or influence are examined, it becomes evident that they can be ordered, as is done in Table [7], along a continuum involving the kinds of controls and motivational forces used and the kinds of attitudinal responses evoked. When these different forms of organization are so arrayed, a significant and important observation emerges: all the many operating procedures and the performance characteristics of the different management systems form an orderly pattern along every horizontal dimension. There are also orderly relationships along the vertical dimensions which reflect the patterns of complementing interrelationships between the different operating procedures for each of the different forms of organization.

The orderly pattern displayed in this table reminds one of the periodic table in chemistry and apparently can serve some of the same purposes. It is possible to use it, for example, to interpolate within the

the table. Thus, for any organization which falls along the suggested continuum, it is possible, with minor deviations, to derive the probable patterns of leadership, organizational characteristics, and behavior which are typical of that system of organization when it is functioning at an optimum level.

Organizations which do not fall along the continuum shown in Table [7], because they involve different amounts of control from that shown, or which differ in the degree of specificity of behavior prescribed can be plotted, as suggested previously, in three-dimensional space. When this is done, the same process of interpolation can be applied as has been suggested for Table [7] (p. 234).

This entire conceptual framework for describing

the management characteristics of an organization in these

terms is contained in Appendix B.

The use of this POC-scale is to determine at what

points along the continuum the organization examined is

now perceived to exist. The combined scores of the members

of an organization create a clear profile of that organi-

zation's characteristics, as perceived by these members.

While this profile can provide invaluable information to

the manager, Likert (1961) offers some caveats:

The patterns depicted are intended to be illustrative. They do not attempt to cover all aspects of leadership and organizational behavior nor all characteristics of an organization. These patterns are based on a rough integration of results emerging from qualitative and quantitative research as well as material from general observation. They reflect historical trends as well as on patterns observed in different cultures. The characteristics as described are necessarily brief,

general, and illustrative and are intended to indicate the general pattern only. No attempt is made to introduce the qualifications which might be appropriate at many points in the table (pp. 233-234).

The ultimate purpose of the POC-scale is to attempt to determine what needs to be done in order to fully implement the theory of participative-group organization as elaborated by Likert:

I. Nature of the organization
   A. Integrated system
      It is an integrated, internally consistent management system. The operating procedures for all such processes as selection, training, compensation, communication, decision-making, and supervision required to apply it to any particular company or plant need to be complementary in the manner indicated in Chapter 14.
   B. Structure
      The overlapping group form of organization appears to come closest to the requirements specified by the principle of supportive relationships. In addition, there is substantial research to show that the communication and influence processes are most effective in groups to which an individual feels highly loyal and is highly attracted. The highly effective communication and influence processes called for by the newer theory require an organizational structure which will facilitate these processes. The evidence, both theoretical and experimental, indicates that the overlapping group form of organizational structure meets these requirements better than any other form of organization now known. Consequently, the overlapping group structure is the basic pattern of the newer theory and is applied fully by our model organization.
   C. Character of work groups
      The work groups of the organization are highly effective groups and have all the performance

characteristics typical of such groups.
D. Leadership
The leadership of the organization has all the
technical and managerial skills ordinarily
required. In addition, the philosophy of man-
agement and leadership skills required to build
and operate an interaction-influence system
consisting of highly effective groups is pre-
sent.
E. Atmosphere
To function as specified by the principle of
supportive relationships, the organization pro-
vides a supportive, ego-building atmosphere,
one in which people feel valued and respected
and in which confidence and trust grow. The
atmosphere is permeated by ego-enhancing rather
than ego-deflating and threatening points of
view toward people.
F. Personnel
The organization is staffed by persons with
appropriate aptitudes and training to perform
the different functions for which they are
responsible. In addition to the abilities and
skills usually required, the members of the
organization have adequate sensitivity to the
reactions of others and a satisfactory level
of skills in the leadership and membership roles
necessary for functioning well in face-to-face
groups.
G. Cooperative working relationships
In a friendly and supportive atmosphere, the
members of the organization have sufficient
interaction with the other members of the work
groups and units of which they are part to
achieve a high level of confidence and trust
and an effective flow of information and of
influence. This requires at least a minimum
level of stability in personnel assignments.
Rapid turnover and shifts in personnel tend to
prevent the establishment of a high level of
cooperative working relationships.
II. Operating characteristics
A. The principle of supportive relationships which
has been proposed for the newer theory specifies
conditions that lead to a full and efficient

flow of all relevant information in all directions--upward, downward, and between peers--throughout the organization. This full and open flow of useful and relevant information provides at all points in the organization accurate data to guide action, to call attention to problems as they arise, and to assure that sound decisions based on all available facts are made.

B. The principle of supportive relationships calls for an exercise of influence comparable with the flow of information. In organizations which effectively use the newer theory, consequently, every person feels, and is correct in his feeling, that he can and does exercise influence upon the decisions and behavior of all those with whom he is in more or less regular contact. Through them he exerts at least some influence upon the entire organization.

Persons in organizations operating under the newer theory, in comparison with those in most existing organizations, exercise greater influence upon what happens in the organization. This is true at every hierarchical level from nonsupervisory employees to the head of the organization. The application of the newer theory results in a greater total amount of influence being exercised through the organization. As a consequence, the organization can more fully mobilize and focus all its resources to accomplish its goals than can present-day organizations.

C. This efficient flow of communication and exercise of influence throughout the organization has important consequences for decision-making. All the relevant information and technical knowledge existing in the organization on a particular problem usually flow to the point or points where the decisions on the problem are made. Not only does information flow efficiently, but in addition, ideas, experience, and suggested solutions also flow to the decision-making points as a result of the influence process required by the newer theory. As a consequence, sound decisions are made based on more

adequate facts than is usually the case today.
The substantial amount of accurate information
flowing through the organization also results
in the relevant parts of the organization being
promptly aware of problems and able to deal with
them rapidly and effectively.

The participation provided by the influence pro-
cess has important consequences. The over-all
objectives of the organization are a satisfac-
tory integration of the needs and desires of the
members of the organization and of all persons
functionally related to it, such as consumers,
shareholders, and suppliers. Moreover, the
over-all objectives of the organization, the
objectives of the various departments, and the
goals of work groups and of individuals in work
groups are in general harmony, and all are
polarized toward achieving the objectives of
the organization. This results in behavior
efficiently focused on achieving the organiza-
tion's objectives.

D. A high level of effective, coordinated motiva-
tion is achieved. This uses fully and in an
additive manner all motivational forces which
are accompanied by favorable attitudes. The
principle of supportive relationships is used
as a guide to accomplish this.

1. The organization's objectives are embraced
   by its members. Each endeavors to implement
   these objectives since he sees them as
   objectives which, in part at least, he has
   helped create. He is aware that he has
   influenced them or can do so and that these
   objectives reflect his own needs and desires.

2. The reward system of the organization, like
   its objectives, is established through a pro-
   cess of interaction and influence. In this
   way a system of financial and related rewards
   is developed which has a high probability of:
   (a) being viewed as equitable by all inter-
   ested parties; (b) helping to build highly
   effective groups; and (c) rewarding behavior
   which helps the organization achieve its
   goals.

3. Each member recognizes that the more adequately the organization's objectives are met, the greater is the extent to which his own goals and desires are fulfilled. This results in the members setting high performance goals for themselves and their work group. The full motivational force of the goals of highly effective groups is present (pp. 237-240).

Responses to the early forms of the POC-scale were examined to determine the extent of intercorrelation among items, and between items and total score. The first sets of coefficients were found to be so high as to raise suspicion as to their possible spuriousness. The danger of "response set," or tendency to score all items at about the same point on the continuum was also examined. After re-testing with some items reversed and with headings removed, the split-half reliability coefficients (+ .97 and + .99) were found to be strong enough to show a substantial amount of correlation among responses.

These tests indicated that the instrument which was derived from these testing processes can be used as ". . . a reliable instrument to measure the nature of the management system of any organization in which there is at least a minimum level of control or coordination; i.e., it is not laissez-faire in character" (Likert, 1967, p. 122). The revised form is useable to measure the

entire management system of an organization, or any unit

within it. This makes it especially useful for the present

study.

Lundstedt (1972) describes the usefulness of

Likert's expansion upon the simple bipolar "X" and "Y"

system of McGregor (1960); also pointing out the possi-

bility of future expansion, to include laissez-faire

organizational behavior as well. This expansion is more

than simply an addition of a laissez-faire option, as

noted by Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939). This larger

taxonomy is described by Lundstedt below, and shown in

Figure 6:

> Subsequent improvements of McGregor's bipolar
> system have been made by Likert, who has enlarged it
> considerably within a four-fold system which deals
> much more specifically and explicitly with the organi-
> zation as such. He distinguishes between two authori-
> tarian and two democratic systems of management by
> splitting the X and Y in McGregor's schema. Likert
> calls his four systems "exploitive authoritative,"
> "benevolent authoritative," "consultative," and "parti-
> cipative." The four are correlated with seven psycho-
> social and organizational dimensions called leadership,
> motivation, goals, decision-making, communication,
> control and interaction-influence, which specify quali-
> tative and quantitative differences between the four.

> The added value of the Likert schema lies in the
> increased information it provides about organizational
> variables, thus making analysis of the organization
> more penetrating and complete. The 26 additional
> categories, or 28 in all, not only deepen explanatory
> power but increase choices for decision-making. As

Response to Much
Strain and Crisis

Response to Little
Strain and Few Crises

Response to Much
Strain and Crisis

Tight Formal
Organizational Control
by Top Management

Moderate Formal
Organizational Control
by Top Management

No Formal
Organizational Control
by Top Management

(Alternative quantitive and qualitative scale)

2. Authoritarian
(Theory X)

Democratic
(Theory Y)

Laissez-faire
(Theory Z)

(Lewin, Lippitt, and White's formulation)

3. Exploitive   Benevolent   Consultative Participative
Authoritative Authoritative
(Theory X_1) (Theory X_2) (Theory Y_1) (Theory Y_2)

(Likert's formulation)

4. Authoritarian
(Theory X)

Democratic
(Theory Y)

(McGregor's implied formulation)

SOURCE: Lundstedt, 1972, p. 332.

FIG. 6--A Comparison of Organizational Forms

effective decision-making rests in large part on good
information, managers and administrators would natur-
ally be assisted by such increased precision. Communi-
cation and problem solving are, moreover, facilitated
by the common language of Likert's schema.

Absence of any categories describing the laissez-
faire or theory Z form seems to be a curious oversight
in this schema, and weakens its analytic power. Evalu-
ation of the positive side of laissez-faire organiza-
tional behavior, in contrast to its negative aspects,
is also made difficult by the omission. Furthermore,
if organizations do indeed have individual character-
istics which distinguish them from other organizations,
then it would be important to understand how such
individual differences may affect various facets of an
organization, especially its productive effort and its
capacity to retain loyal commitment to it on the part
of its members.

Figure [6] illustrates four ways of looking at an
organization, particularly in terms of its policies
and behaviors governing explicit exercise of managerial
control over its members. Control is defined as that
form imposed behaviorally by managers in work relation-
ships. It is evident that a wide variety of forms of
control may be possible, and this point naturally leads
to speculation about the other dimensions of organiza-
tional life which may be similarly distributed along
such a continuum (p. 332).

This approach is of interest to future research into the
complexity of various law enforcement organizations. Be-
cause of the somewhat undereducated and less sophisticated
nature of the subjects in the study, however, it was felt
the Likert POC-scale (Form E) would be a more appropriate
starting point for later expansion. While, as noted by
Lundstedt (1972), "Not all reductionism is either

practical or useful" (p. 333), it is the most reasonable taxonomy to be used in this case, keeping the problem to a manageable size.

The POC-scale, therefore, provides a sound descriptive measure of an organization, as perceived by its members. The sub-scales of leadership, motivation, communication, decisions, goals, and control are also provided for in the descriptive format. A great amount of the participative-group organizational concept is based on Likert's negative response to the question, "If a manager permits his subordinates to exercise influence on what goes on in his department, does he have correspondingly less influence?" (1961, p. 179). This linkage between the theorized influence sharing position of the "System 4" manager and the concept of interpersonal risk, allows us to relate the POC-scale and the IR-scale in the course of our analysis.

Data derived from the questionnaire package administered to Franklin County Sheriff's Department personnel (Appendix C), was hand-coded onto IBM 3886 optical character reader sheets. These sheets allowed for a much shorter period of time from coding to data cards. Keypunching is eliminated from this process as cards are generated by a

program using the tape generated by the optical scanner.
Cards generated were subjected to detailed checks for
errors and run until errors were completely eliminated.
The Social Sciences SPSS Manual (1975), was used to gen-
erate the various statistics used in the following analyses
of data. The IBM computer, located at The Ohio State
University Computer Center was utilized for the processing
of all data.

CHAPTER VI

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The eight hypotheses which were presented in

Chapter IV were tested by the use of a quasi-experimental,

ex-post-facto research design (Campbell and Stanley, 1966).

As noted by Adams (1975):

> In principle, quasi-experiments fall below the "true"
> or controlled experiment in quality of information
> yielded. In practice, however, there is some overlap
> in quality. Well-done or well-situated quasi-experi-
> ments may be conducted in situations where true experi-
> ments are for various reasons difficult or impossible.
> In many instances, therefore, the quasi-experiment is
> the method of choice. And whether by necessity or
> preference, it is used more frequently than the true
> experiment (p. 60).

Because of the 24-hour nature of an operational

law enforcement agency, it was felt that the ex-post-facto

design would be the most practicable. Using what is com-

monly referred to as a "one-shot" design, the present study

provides both trend patterns and indications in the analy-

ses of questionnaire results according to selected cate-

gories of respondents. Careful control over the adminis-

tration of the instruments, use of an experimental group

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which closely approximates a total population, and with

extensive and detailed statistical analyses for the hypo-

thesized factors helps to qualify this study as an example

of one of the more powerful applications of a quasi-

experimental design.

The weaknesses of an experimental design which does

not have matched individuals or groups for comparison

purposes are obvious. The use of a design of this type

in an operational law enforcement agency is not without

merit and may, in terms of non-obtrusiveness, be more

realistic than a true experimental design.

The following analyses of the outcome data are

presented with the acknowledgement that they are derived

from a design which is less than a "true" experiment.

Inferences and conclusions will be presented in light of

the exploratory and quasi-experimental nature of the

design. While generalizability is somewhat limited, strong

and useful implications as to trends and directions accord-

ing to the underlying theories are possible.

Description of the Population

Demographic characteristics of the study population

were obtained from an information sheet completed by all

respondents immediately prior to the questionnaires (see Appendix C). This information permits for the development of a "profile" of the Franklin County Sheriff's Department, allowing for an examination of questionnaire outcomes within a known population.

When this study began, there were 195 persons assigned or attached to the Franklin County Sheriff's Department. Three persons left the department before they were given the opportunity to complete the questionnaire. Another individual was absent at a training course. Two additional persons were either on hospital or sick leave. Two other individuals were members of the janitorial staff and were believed to be of little value in this study. Of the 189 persons left to survey, 186 (98.4%) completed the questionnaires. It is reasonable to argue that this response level provides an extremely strong approximation of a total population for analysis and strengthens the generalizability potential for the findings.

An examination of the ages of respondents reveals a very broad range, from 18 to 71 years of age. As shown by the data in Table 8, the average age for all personnel approximates 30 years. Because of the current emphasis on the 30 year-old cut-point, it was used in our later

TABLE 8

AGE RANGES OF ALL PERSONNEL

Age Range	Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Cumulative Frequency (%)
18-25	33	17.7	17.7
26-30	46	24.8	42.5
31-40	44	23.6	66.1
41-50	39	21.0	87.1
51-71	24	12.9	100.0
	186	100.0	100.0

Mean = 36.4   Median = 33.5   Mode = 27

analyses.

In terms of racial composition, there were 168 White and 18 Black respondents; no other racial group was represented. Blacks accounted for 9.6% of the study group, a percentage that closely approximates the proporation of Blacks in the Franklin County population (11%).

The stated levels of educational achievement of respondents are displayed in Table 9. It is interesting to note that almost 40% of the personnel have progressed beyond a high school education. [This percentage is even higher (52.1%) when one examines deputies as a separate category. See Table 19]. This rather high percentage of deputies with more than 12 years of education suggests that the Franklin County Sheriff's Department is in an

TABLE 9

EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT

Education (Years)	Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Cumulative Frequency (%)
0-8	2	1.1	1.1
9-11	15	8.1	9.1
12 (HS)	97	52.2	61.3
13-15	53	28.5	89.8
16 (BA, BS)	10	5.3	95.2
16+	9	4.8	100.0
	186	100.0	100.0

enviable position on this variable.

In addition, fully one-third of the personnel in the Franklin County Sheriff's Department indicated that they had previous police experience in another agency. Data in Table 10 show that this experience also has been in some depth, with most indicating from two to five-plus years of service prior to joining the Franklin County Sheriff's Department.

Respondents identified their present assignment as shown by the data in Table 11.

As shown by the data in Table 12, an unexpectedly large majority of the personnel were in their present assignment for more than one year. This fact, when combined with other length of service data, tended to

TABLE 10

PREVIOUS POLICE EXPERIENCE

Police Experience (%)	Area of Experience (%)		Length of Experience (%)	
Yes = 63	Patrol	= 35	1 Yr or less= 9	
No = 123	Detective	= 13	2-5 Yrs	=26
186	Administration=	13	5+ Yrs	=28
	Corrections	= 22		63

TABLE 11

PRESENT ASSIGNMENT

	Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Cumulative Frequency (%)
Patrol	59	31.7	31.7
Detective	18	9.7	41.4
Administration	50	26.9	68.3
Corrections	59	31.7	100.0
	186	100.0	100.0

TABLE 12

TIME IN PRESENT ASSIGNMENT

	Frequency	Relative Frequency (%)	Cumulative Frequency (%)
0-3 mos	7	3.7	3.7
3-6 mos	20	10.7	14.4
6 mos-1 yr	45	24.4	38.8
1 yr+	114	61.2	100.0
	186	100.0	100.0

complicate and confound some of the later analyses on this dimension.

Previous service in other areas of assignment within the Franklin County Sheriff's Department was also quite extensive. As shown by the data in Table 13, from 11% to 33% of each assignment category was filled with those who had experience in at least one other assignment area.

TABLE 13

OTHER EXPERIENCE IN FCSD

	Yes	No	% Yes
Patrol	53	133	28.4
Detective	21	165	11.2
Administrative	28	158	15.0
Corrections	63	123	33.4

Distribution of rank is shown by the data in Table 14.

In summary, this descriptive material has presented a profile of a "typical" member of the Franklin County Sheriff's Department, with the following general characteristics shown in Table 15.

TABLE 14

RANK OF RESPONDENTS

	Frequency	Cumulative Frequency (%)
Deputy	108	58.0
Sergeant	18	67.6
Lieutenant	9	72.4
Captain	2	73.0
Other*	48	100.0
	186	100.0

*Includes both high-ranking (the Sheriff, two Chief Deputies) and non-ranking (secretaries, clerks) personnel.

TABLE 15

PROFILE OF FCSD "TYPICAL" MEMBER

Age	33.5
Race	White
Education	HS+
Length of Service	45.5 mos
No Previous Police Experience .	67%
Present Job	Patrol/Corrections
Rank	Deputy

This composite sketch allows us to examine the remaining analyses of data with a somewhat more informed and realistic picture of the individual undergoing the hypothesized socialization process which will be described below.

Results

In Chapter IV, eight hypotheses derived from the theories of Interpersonal Risk, Authoritarian Personality and Profile of Organizational Characteristics were developed for testing. In this section, each of those eight hypotheses will be again presented, followed by the analysis of the results obtained for each hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a negative relationship between subjects' scores on the IR-scale and scores on the F-scale.

Scores on the IR-scale, F-scale and POC-scale were obtained from all 186 respondents. In coding these scales, a high score on the IR-scale indicated high IR behavior, a high score on the F-scale indicated high authoritarianism, and a high score on the POC-scale indicated a position close to the "System 4" side of the organizational continuum.

Utilizing the SPSS program package, correlation matrices were generated for total and high and low IR-scale scores, as shown in Table 16.

While the correlation coefficient scores between total IR-scale scores and total scores for the F-scale are not particularly strong, they are statistically significant

TABLE 16

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN
THE IR-SCALE AND F-SCALE

| | TOTAL POPULATION (N = 186) F-Scale | |
	r	P
Total IR	-.1648	.012
High IR	.088	N.S.
Low IR	-.4946	.001

allowing for the rejection of the null hypotheses of no

association. The association is in the hypothesized

direction and substantiates a negative relationship between

the total population's scores on the IR-scale and scores

on the F-scale.

It is interesting to note the quite strong negative

correlations between low IR-scale scores and the F-scale

scores. This suggests that the items which are measuring

low IR are much more strongly correlated to F-scale scores

than those measuring high IR. This is true when low IR is

compared to the correlation coefficient of the combined

score of both sub-scales as well. This presents implica-

tions for the possibility of the use of a shortened version

of the IR-scale when used in conjunction with the F-scale.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a positive correlation between scores on the IR-scale indicating high interpersonal risk behavior and movement of scores toward "System 4" on the POC-scale.

Again, as in the previous hypothesis, correlation coefficients were generated between total IR-scale scores, IR-subscale scores, total POC-scale scores and are shown in Table 17.

TABLE 17

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN
THE IR-SCALE AND POC-SCALE

| | TOTAL POPULATION (N = 186) POC-Scale | |
	γ	P
Total IR	-.1367	.031
High IR	-.1047	N.S.
Low IR	-.1429	.026

While there was not a strong correlation, it was statistically significant and negative. This allows for both rejection of the null hypotheses and tentative rejection of the directional hypothesis.

In order to examine this unexpected finding in greater detail, a number of other analyses were introduced to investigate this outcome in more detail.

The first procedure was to generate a series of scattergrams and to develop regression slopes on the relationship between IR-scale scores and POC-scale scores over length of service. The first set of slopes is shown in Figure 7. This relationship appears to be contrary to the theory, indicating that an increase in IR-scale scores results in a correlated movement of POC-scale scores in a shift toward the "System 1" side of the continuum.

Closer examination of the scattergrams for these data suggested one clue to the reasons underlying this unexpected correlation. There was an obvious clustering of cases near the 240-month point (between 172 and 280) that scored significantly higher on the POC-scale than the immediately previous 108-month grouping and closely approximating the POC-scale demonstrated by those at the beginning of length of service. This presented an unusual situation in which both extremes on the length of service continuum were similar on POC-scale scores.

In examining this problem, it was discovered that the majority of this cluster was in the "other" category. These individuals are older law enforcement persons and supervisory personnel now in various administrative and supervisory positions. It was disclosed by the data that
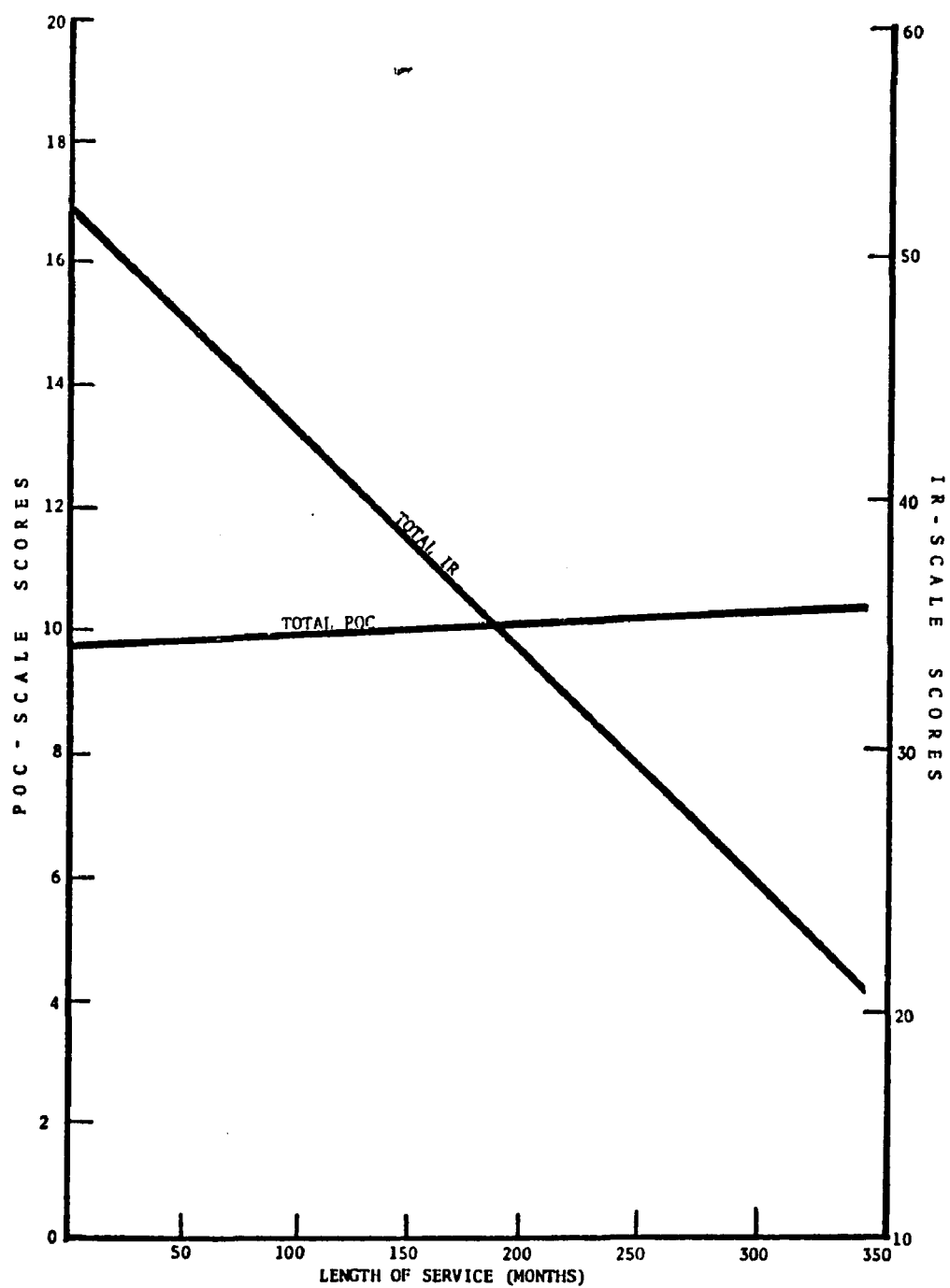
FIG. 7--IR-Scale and POC-Scale vs. Length of Service
Total Population (N = 186)

these individuals are those who entered the criminal jus-
tice system at a time when individual rights were not as
important as social control. Socialized under that even
more authoritarian atmosphere, it seems reasonable to argue
that these individuals may have developed a quite different
perspective on organizational characteristics. It is also
reasonable to conclude that these individuals might have a
different interpretation of the meaning of the System 4
side of the POC continuum from the other, relatively
junior, personnel. These senior individuals have been
subjected to the socialization process for a very long time
and may envision participative management from a more
authoritarian position in which only such senior personnel
participate in decisions and policy-making. This might
offer at least a partial explanation of the interaction
between lower IR-scale scores and higher F-scale scores,
as anticipated by the theory, and the paradoxical higher
POC-scale scores for this very senior group.

To examine the effects of this senior group on
correlations and slopes for all three scales, an analysis
was conducted with the length of service cut-off point at
172 months. The data from this analysis generated the
slopes shown in Figure 8. It can be seen that this
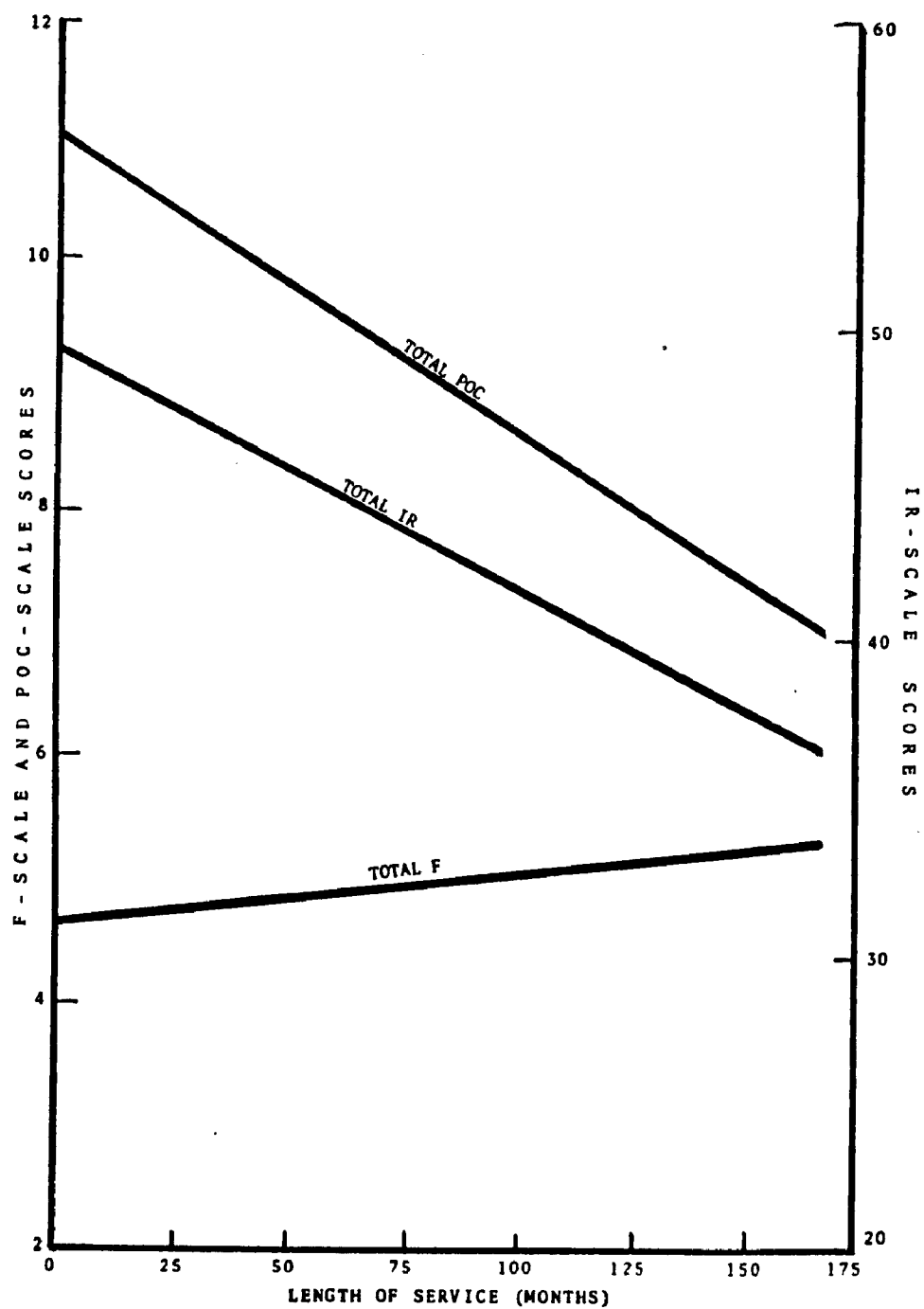
FIG. 8--IR-Scale, POC-Scale and F-Scale vs.
Length of Service (172 months)
All Deputies (N = 103)

procedure discloses a strong and statistically significant correlation between IR-scale scores and scores on the POC-scale. Because the present study did not employ matched groups, it is reasonable to argue that the previous correlations were due more to this weakness in research design than to the effects of socialization within the organization.

When the effect of these confounding variables are controlled, it is possible to again reject the null hypothesis, but this time for an alternative hypothesis which is both statistically significant and in the direction expected from the theory.

Hypothesis 3: Newly appointed deputies (less than one year of service) will reflect a higher level of interpersonal risk behavior by a higher IR-scale score and lower authoritarianism as reflected in F-scale scores as a group than groups who have served longer.

The data shown in Table 18 reflects a t-test comparison of scores for all deputies on all three scales used in the present study. As can be seen, the comparison of differences between IR-scale scores for deputies with less than one year of service and those with more than one year are not statistically significant and do not permit

TABLE 18

T-TESTS FOR ALL DEPUTIES IN GROUPINGS
BASED ON LENGTH OF SERVICE

	<1 Yr→1 Yr t	<1 Yr→1 Yr P	<3 Yr→3 Yr t	<3 Yr→3 Yr P	<5 Yr→5 Yr t	<5 Yr→5 Yr P
Total IR	.45	N.S.	.68	N.S.	2.74	.004
High IR	-.25	N.S.	-.07	N.S.	1.85	.034
Low IR	1.87	.038	1.65	.05	2.82	.003
Total F	-2.19	.021	-.55	N.S.	-.34	N.S.
F1	-.33	N.S.	.17	N.S.	-.23	N.S.
F2	-1.26	N.S.	-.76	N.S.	-.55	N.S.
F3	-1.73	.05	.58	N.S.	.57	N.S.
F4	-1.88	.037	-.55	N.S.	-.72	N.S.
F5	-2.22	.02	-1.56	N.S.	-1.24	N.S.
F6	-1.30	N.S.	.10	N.S.	1.00	N.S.
F7	-2.58	.009	-.94	N.S.	-1.51	N.S.
F8	-3.14	.003	-1.42	N.S.	-.83	N.S.
F9	-2.37	.014	.08	N.S.	-.64	N.S.
Total POC	-.75	N.S.	.72	N.S.	.51	N.S.
POC 1	-.37	N.S.	.54	N.S.	.90	N.S.
POC 2	-2.02	.028	.86	N.S.	1.24	N.S.
POC 3	.30	N.S.	.98	N.S.	1.78	.039
POC 4	-.49	N.S.	-.17	N.S.	-.54	N.S.
POC 5	-1.50	N.S.	-.50	N.S.	-1.99	.025
POC 6	.46	N.S.	1.14	N.S.	-.16	N.S.

Legend for Subscales:

F1 = Conventionalism
F2 = Authoritarian Submission
F3 = Authoritarian Aggression
F4 = Anti-intraception
F5 = Superstition and Stereotypy
F6 = Power and Toughness
F7 = Destructiveness and Cynicism
F8 = Projectivity
F9 = Sex

POC 1 = Leadership
POC 2 = Motivation
POC 3 = Communication
POC 4 = Decisions
POC 5 = Goals
POC 6 = Control

the rejection of the null hypothesis. At the breaking point of one year or less, the difference between the groups on the F-scale scores was statistically significant and in the direction of the hypothesized relationship. This allows us to reject the null hypothesis and to accept the alternative in the direction predicted.

In an attempt to determine at what point the level of IR-scale scores does begin to be significantly different between groupings based on years of service, two more analyses were undertaken, at three years and five years, respectively. At the three year point there were no statistically significant differences between scales and subscales, with the exception of the low IR-scale. It should be noted that while there is no significant difference between groups on the F-scale scores at three years, the mean of the less than three year grouping rose considerably from the less than one year group (from 3.9 to 4.49). Since low IR-scale scores seem to be strongly related to the F-scale scores, this seems to be an example of that instruments' sensitivity to change in F-scale scores, causing it to show significant differences for all groups.

At the five year cutpoint, the IR-scale scores

begin to be statistically different at high levels of

significance for the total scale and both subscales. This

suggests that this is the point in length of service when

there is a lowering of IR-scale scores among those in the

grouping beyond five years that is strong enough to result

in a significant difference. It appears that the sociali-

zation process which was expected to cause this lowering

trend in IR-scale scores takes longer than anticipated.

These data have further significance for inferences from

Hypothesis 4, and will be discussed there.

An analysis of variance, as shown by the data in

Table 19, using the three year cutpoint, disclosed results

similar to those obtained by t-tests, with the exception

of the IR-scale scores, which reached a level of statisti-

cal significance on the total IR-scale and the low IR-

scale. Scores only began to approach significance

($P = <.10, >.05$) for the high IR-scale. This suggests

that the IR-scale scores are rising faster than this

research design could detect.

While there does appear to be a socialization

process at work for newer deputies, resulting in lower

scores of the IR-scale and higher scores on the F-scale,

it is somewhat different from the hypothesized relations.

TABLE 19

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR DEPUTY SCORES ON ALL
SCALES AND SUBSCALES FOR FOUR VARIABLES

| | AGE | | EDUCATION | | LENGTH OF SERVICE | | ASSIGNMENT Pat/Det | |
| | 30/30+ | | 12/12+ | | <3/3+ | | Corr/Admin | |
	t	P	t	P	t	P	t	P
Total IR	7.36	.01	8.51	.01	8.11	.01	.48	N.S.
High IR	2.39	N.S.	3.02	N.S.	3.14	*	1.23	N.S.
Low IR	12.23	>.01	13.23	>.01	11.72	.01	.02	N.S.
Total F	1.06	N.S.	8.50	>.01	1.38	N.S.	2.57	N.S.
F1	.06	N.S.	.005	N.S.	.69	N.S.	.628	N.S.
F2	.701	N.S.	4.29	>.05	1.42	N.S.	.548	N.S.
F3	.455	N.S.	4.81	>.05	.269	N.S.	3.468	*
F4	2.20	N.S.	.971	N.S.	.180	N.S.	.454	N.S.
F5	2.39	N.S.	4.559	>.05	4.237	>.05	.995	N.S.
F6	.592	N.S.	.825	N.S.	.2520	N.S.	1.323	N.S.
F7	.559	N.S.	3.760	*	.006	N.S.	2.483	N.S.
F8	.779	N.S.	12.169	>.01	.3255	N.S.	.7627	N.S.
F9	1.70	N.S.	19.698	>.01	2.838	N.S.	1.126	N.S.
Total POC	1.34	N.S.	2.33	N.S.	.259	N.S.	.226	N.S.
POC 1	3.4	*	.436	N.S.	.779	N.S.	.102	N.S.
POC 2	.572	N.S.	2.18	N.S.	1.48	N.S.	.018	N.S.
POC 3	.869	N.S.	.031	N.S.	3.00	*	.521	N.S.
POC 4	1.21	N.S.	1.80	N.S.	.294	N.S.	1.65	N.S.
POC 5	3.3	*	6.68	.01	4.51	.05	.112	N.S.
POC 6	3.3	*	3.33	*	.024	N.S.	1.497	N.S.

*:P = >.10, <.05

Legend for Subscales:

F1 = Conventionalism
F2 = Authoritarian Submission
F3 = Authoritarian Aggression
F4 = Anti-intraception
F5 = Superstition and Stereotypy
F6 = Power and Toughness
F7 = Destructiveness and Cynicism
F8 = Projectivity
F9 = Sex

POC 1 = Leadership
POC 2 = Motivation
POC 3 = Communication
POC 4 = Decisions
POC 5 = Goals
POC 6 = Control

While the socialization toward a higher F-scale score follows the hypothesized pattern, the lowering of the IR-scale scores takes longer than anticipated. At either three years or five years, depending on the type of analysis, the change in IR-scale scores does reach a level of statistical significance which would allow us to reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4:   Interpersonal risk behavior will decrease, as shown by decreasing IR-scale scores, with length of service.

        4a. As IR-scale scores decrease, F-scale scores will increase in negative correlation.

        4b. As IR-scale scores decrease, POC-scale score will move toward the System 1 side of the continuum in a positive correlation.

The data for the IR-scale scores over length of service for all respondents produced the correlation coefficients shown in Table 20. These correlations are statistically significant and permit the rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis, in the direction predicted. These relationships are displayed as slopes in Figure 9.

TABLE 20

IR-SCALE SCORES AND LENGTH OF SERVICE

| | TOTAL POPULATION (N = 186) Length of Service | |
	γ	P
Total IR	-.3505	.0001
High IR	-.16045	.014
Low IR	-.52898	.0001

The correlation coefficients for the F-scale scores of the total population are shown by the data in Table 21.

TABLE 21

F-SCALE SCORES AND LENGTH OF SERVICE

| | TOTAL POPULATION (N = 186) Length of Service | |
	γ	P
Total F	.2955	.0001
F1	.14383	.025
F2	.23166	.000
F3	.2004	.003
F4	.1788	.007
F5	.2987	.0001
F6	.2086	.002
F7	.1832	.006
F8	.1773	.007
F9	.1654	.012

All of the scale and subscale correlations, while not particularly strong, are statistically significant and
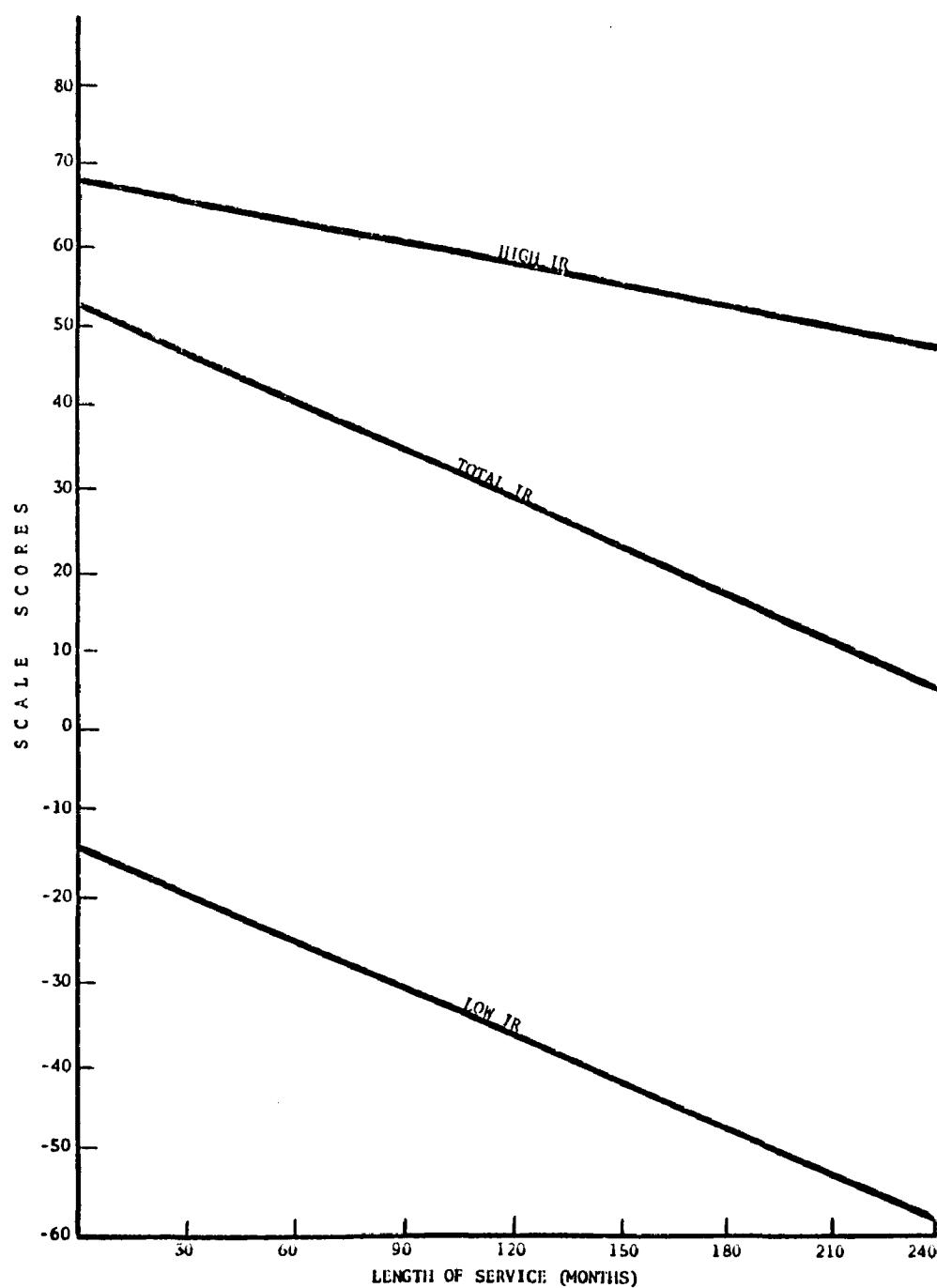
FIG. 9--IR-Scale Scores vs. Length of Service
For All Personnel, FCSD (N = 186)

in the predicted direction. This permits the rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis in the direction anticipated. These relationships are also displayed as slopes in Figure 10.

The correlation coefficients of the POC-scale scores for the total population on length of service are shown by the data in Table 22.

TABLE 22

POC-SCALE SCORES AND LENGTH OF SERVICE

| | TOTAL POPULATION (N = 186) Length of Service | |
	γ	P
Total POC	.0689	N.S.
POC 1	.0997	N.S.
POC 2	.0903	N.S.
POC 3	-.0004	N.S.
POC 4	.0815	N.S.
POC 5	.1013	N.S.
POC 6	.0265	N.S.

All of the correlation coefficients were too weak to reach a level of statistical significance. When γ's are as near zero as are those displayed by the above data, the signs are not particularly indicative of directionality. Small variance or a confounding effect can change the directional signs very easily. The data shown in
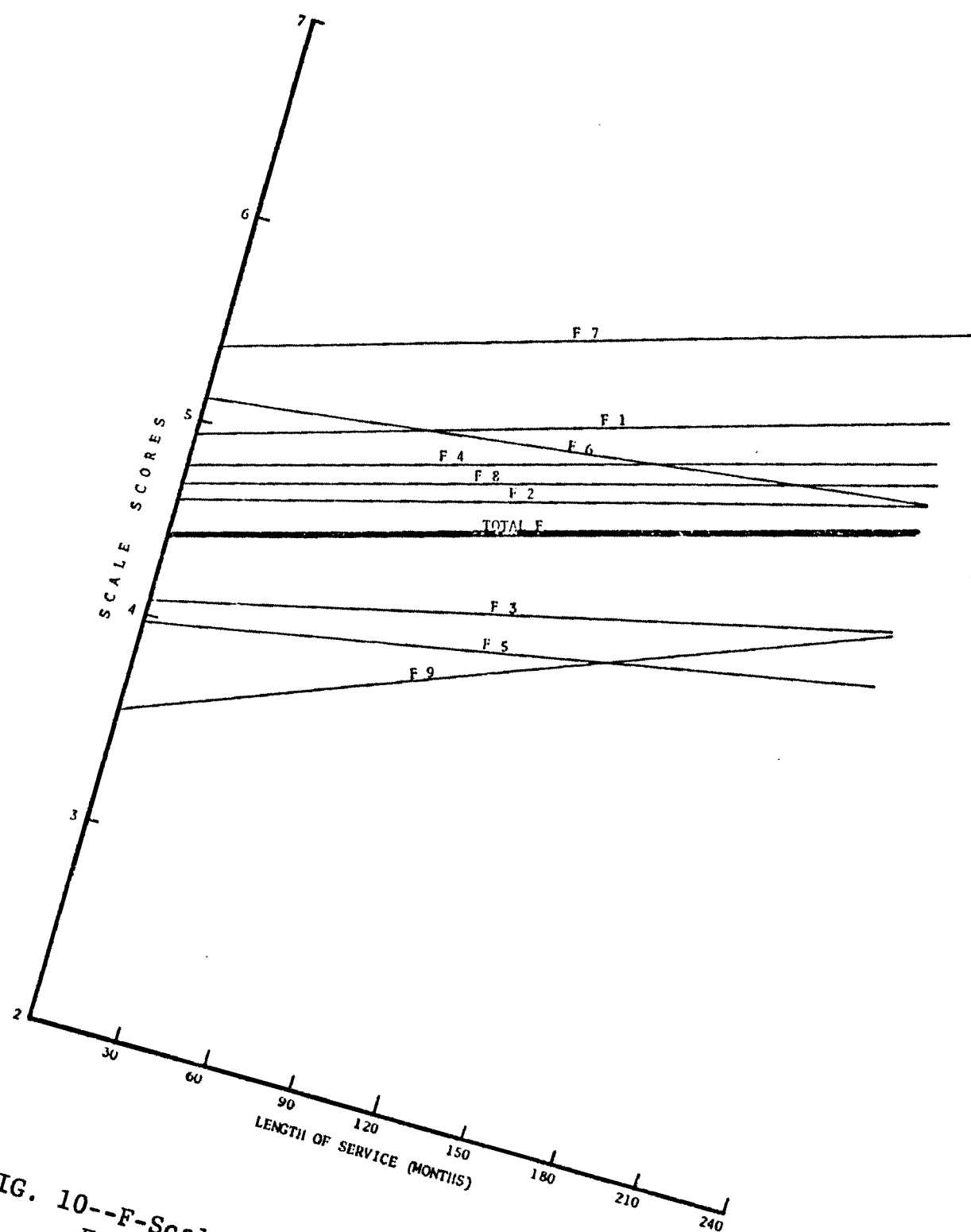
FIG. 10--F-Scale Scores vs. Length of Service
For All Personnel, FCSD (N = 186)

Table 22 and displayed as slopes in Figure 11 do not permit the rejection of the null hypothesis and allows no directional inference.

Recalling the confounding effect of the "other" group in Hypothesis 2, it was thought appropriate to conduct another analysis on the POC-scale scores in relation to length of service. In this second analysis, just scores for deputies were utilized in order to examine the effects of POC-scale scores and length of service on only that group. The resulting correlation coefficients are shown in Table 23.

TABLE 23

POC-SCALE SCORES AND LENGTH OF SERVICE

	DEPUTIES (N = 108) Length of Service	
	r	P
Total POC	.12699	.095
POC 1	.10615	N.S.
POC 2	.09711	N.S.
POC 3	.0004	N.S.
POC 4	.1603	.048
POC 5	.2387	.006
POC 6	.0725	N.S.

As shown by these data, the POC-scale scores have an even stronger correlation in the direction opposite from what one would expect from the theory. This result leads
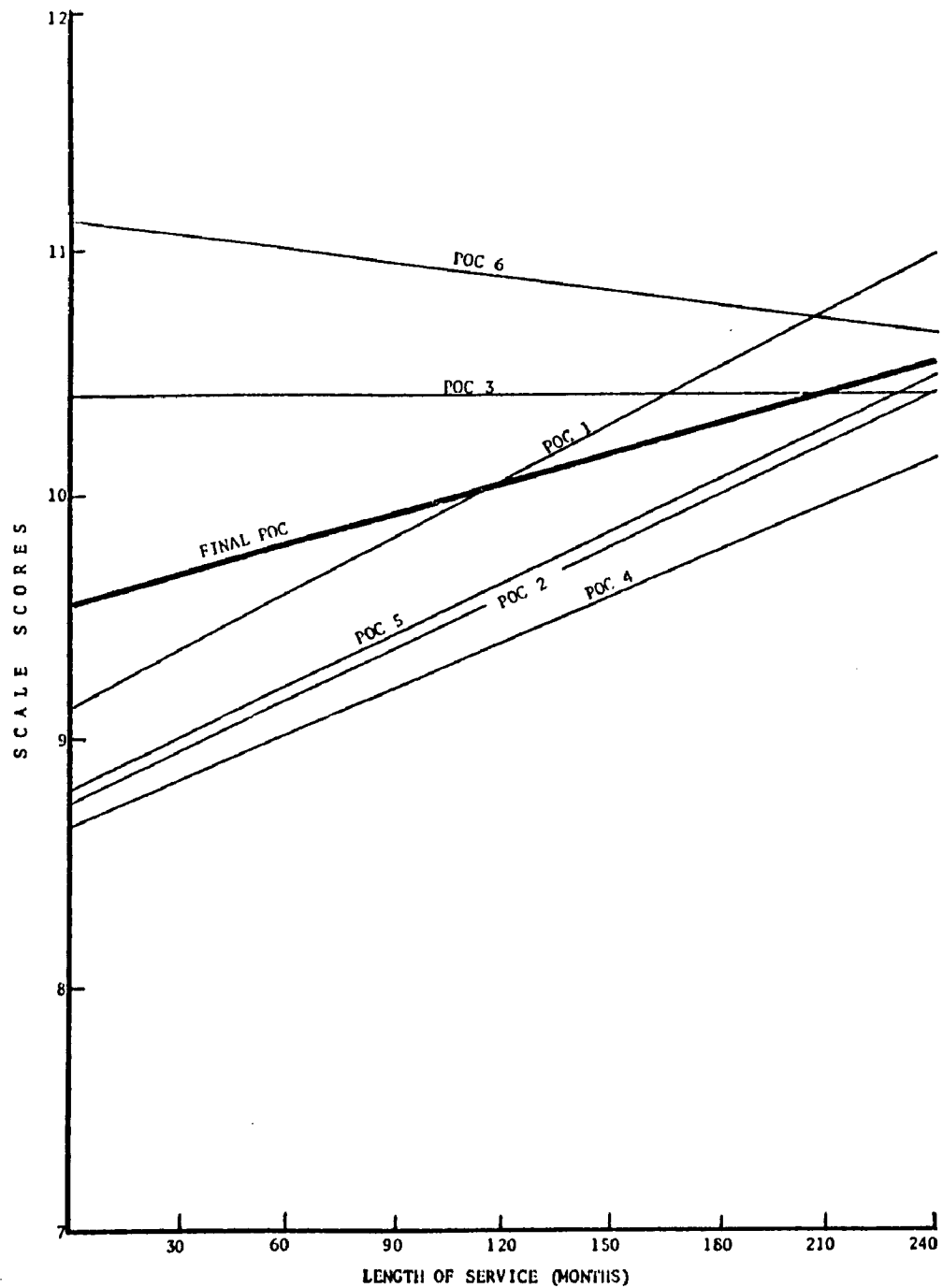
FIG. 11--POC-Scale Scores vs. Length of Service
For All Personnel, FCSD (N = 186)

to further suspicion that a similar confounding factor to that found in Hypothesis 2 was causing a strong pull in the direction indicated by the data.

As noted in Hypothesis 2, a grouping of individuals was found at the extreme end of the length of service continuum. This group's scores on the POC-scale effected the overall POC-scale scores and caused them to indicate a correlation opposite to that predicted. Examination of the scattergram of the POC-scale and length of service plots for all deputies disclosed a similar group of high POC-scale scores for five very long-term deputies (beyond the 172-month point).

Another set of scatterplots and correlation coefficients were generated, using 172 months as the cutpoint to control for the effect of the group of deputies with a very long period of employment. Correlation coefficients for this third analysis are shown in the data in Table 24. As shown by these data, when controlling for the extreme scorers at the far end of the length of service continuum, a statistically significant negative correlation resulted. While this correlation is not inordinately strong, it is in the direction one would expect from the theory. A graphic representation of the slopes is shown

TABLE 24

POC-SCALE SCORES AND LENGTH OF SERVICE

	DEPUTIES MINUS EXTREMES (N = 103) Length of Service	
	γ	P
Total POC	-.19098	.026
POC 1	-.16062	.0525
POC 2	-.2387	.007
POC 3	-.2779	.002
POC 4	-.0855	N.S.
POC 5	-.0376	N.S.
POC 6	-.0450	N.S.

in Figure 12. Again, this kind of problem suggests

further a weakness of the ex-post-facto design, which

would have been more clearly defined by matched groups.

It is interesting to note that the three POC sub-

scales that show the most significant correlations are

leadership, motivation and communication. It is reason-

able to argue that these three subscales are possibly

tapping interpersonal characteristics, suggesting why they

relate more closely to the shifts in the two psychometric

scales. This can be seen graphically by an examination

of the slopes of the POC-scale and subscales of all

deputies shown in Figure 13. The other three POC-subscales

can be logically suspected of tapping an organizational

rather than a personal dimension.
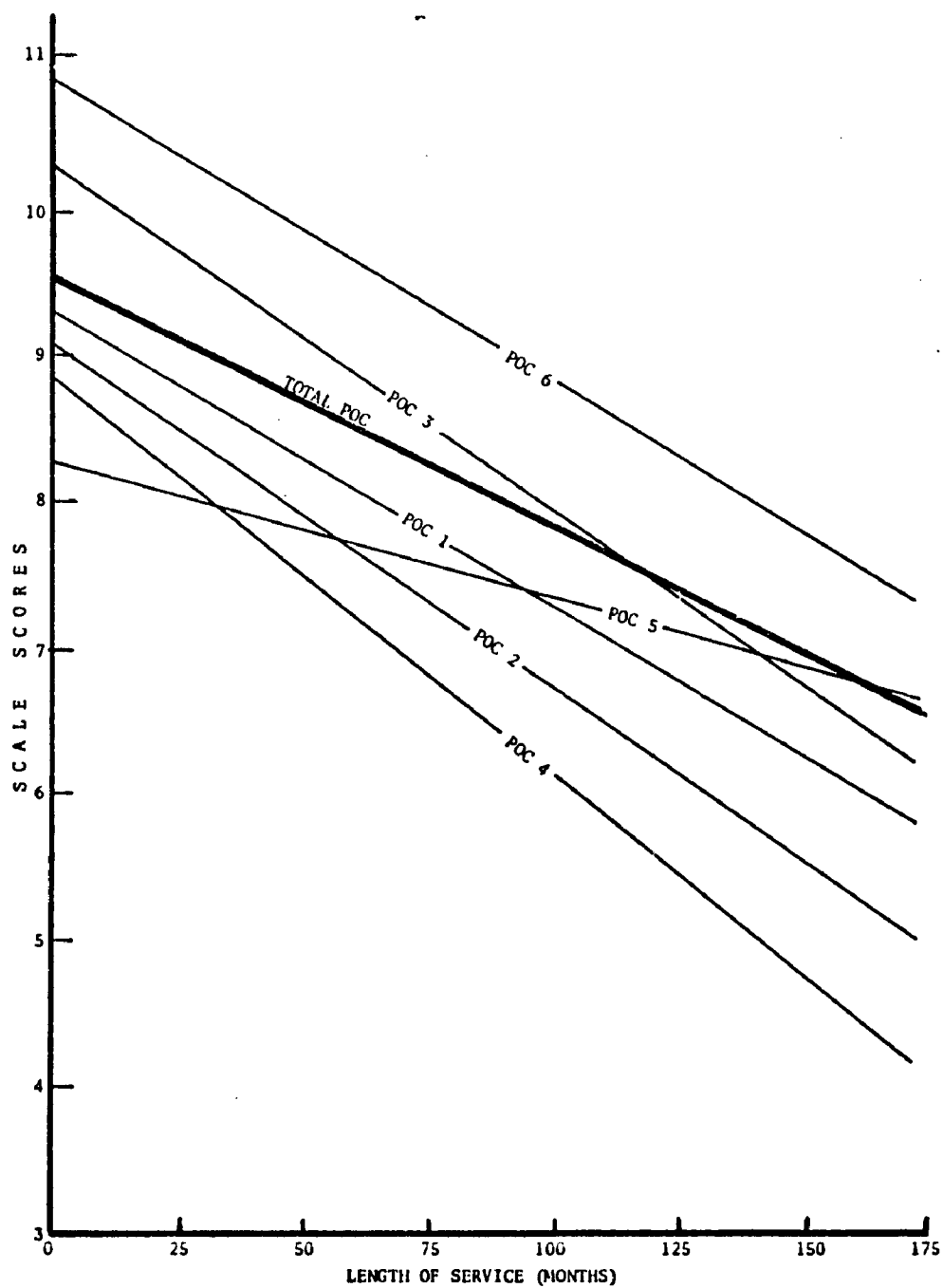
FIG. 12--POC-Scale Scores vs. Length of Service
(172 months) for All Deputies (N = 103)
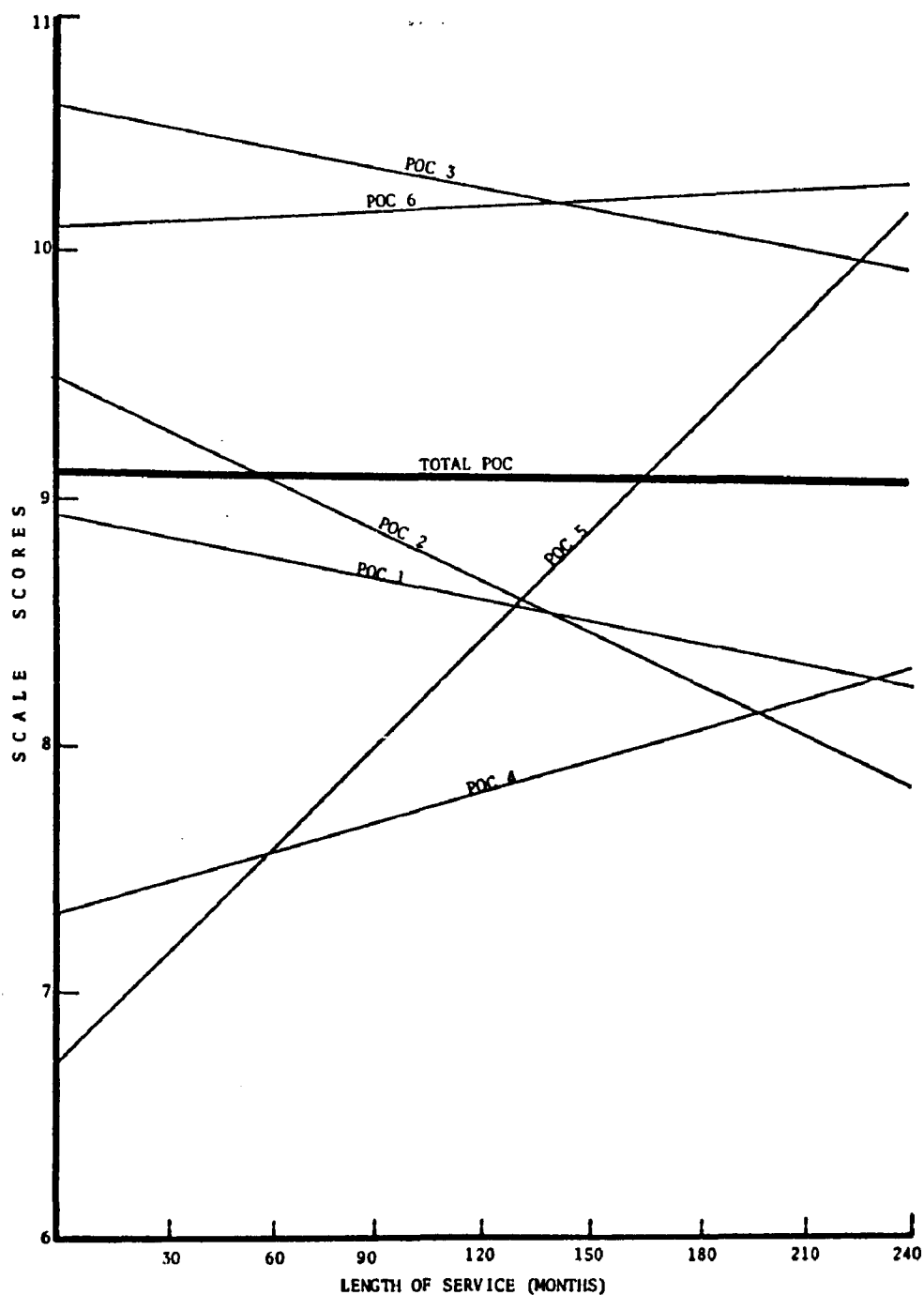
FIG. 13--POC-Scale Scores vs. Length of Service
For All Deputies (N = 108)

In the present study group, it could be argued that these last three subscales (decisions, goals and control) could be as easily related as closer to System 4 by an authoritarian person in an organization perceived to be authoritarian, in which that persons' opinions and values are honored. Observation in the organizational setting indicates that this might well be the case with the "old-hands," the very persons whose scores seem to be inconsistent with the theory and tend to confound findings.

Hypothesis 5: Deputies will exhibit higher interpersonal risk behavior, as shown by higher IR-scale scores than ranking officers, (Sergeant, Lieutenant, Captain).

The t-test data displayed in Tables 25 and 25a indicate that IR-scale scores for deputies permit the rejection of the null hypothesis, at a level of statistical significance, between every category except Captain and "other." When scores for all ranking officers (Sergeant, Lieutenant, and Captain) are combined there is still a statistically significant difference in the hypothesized direction.

In the case of the difference between scores on the IR-scale between deputies and Captains, the very small number of Captains (2) is a confounding factor. Using such

TABLE 25

T-TESTS OF MEANS BETWEEN DEPUTIES
AND OTHER CATEGORIES OF RANK

	DEPUTY - SGT		DEPUTY - LT		DEPUTY - CPT	
	t	P	t	P	t	P
Total IR	2.02	.025	2.99	.007	-.58	N.S.
High IR	.90	N.S.	1.45	N.S.	-.61	N.S.
Low IR	2.73	.005	5.44	.000	-.46	N.S.
Total F	-1.10	N.S.	-5.62	.000	-1.15	N.S.
F1	-.30	N.S.	-.77	N.S.	1.45	N.S.
F2	-1.61	N.S.	-1.28	N.S.	-2.12	N.S.
F3	.11	N.S.	-2.20	.025	.36	N.S.
F4	-.60	N.S.	-2.08	.032	.10	N.S.
F5	-1.14	N.S.	-4.40	.000	-4.60	.009
F6	-.90	N.S.	-3.91	.001	-.06	N.S.
F7	-.20	N.S.	-.41	N.S.	.44	N.S.
F8	-.73	N.S.	-1.90	.042	-2.78	.034
F9	-.27	N.S.	-.09	N.S.	-.66	N.S.
Total POC	-1.36	N.S.	-.09	N.S.	.09	N.S.
POC 1	-1.84	.039	-.62	N.S.	-2.61	N.S.
POC 2	-.30	N.S.	-.18	N.S.	1.15	N.S.
POC 3	-1.59	N.S.	.04	N.S.	.48	N.S.
POC 4	-.82	N.S.	-.27	N.S.	.27	N.S.
POC 5	-2.01	.027	-.00	N.S.	-.02	N.S.
POC 6	-.48	N.S.	.67	N.S.	.26	N.S.

Legend for Subscales:

F1 = Conventionalism
F2 = Authoritarian Submission
F3 = Authoritarian Aggression
F4 = Anti-intraception
F5 = Superstition and Stereotypy
F6 = Power and Toughness
F7 = Destructiveness and Cynicism
F8 = Projectivity
F9 = Sex

POC 1 = Leadership
POC 2 = Motivation
POC 3 = Communication
POC 4 = Decisions
POC 5 = Goals
POC 6 = Control

TABLE 25a

T-TESTS OF MEANS BETWEEN DEPUTIES
AND OTHER CATEGORIES OF RANK

	DEPUTY - OTHER		DEPUTY - SGT/LT/CPT	
	t	P	t	P
Total IR	-1.42	N.S.	2.58	.006
High IR	-.81	N.S.	1.06	N.S.
Low IR	-2.15	.017	4.09	.000
Total F	1.50	N.S.	-2.53	.007
F1	2.39	.009	-.11	N.S.
F2	1.13	N.S.	-2.07	.02
F3	1.08	N.S.	-.82	N.S.
F4	2.05	.02	-1.52	N.S.
F5	.49	N.S.	-3.20	.001
F6	1.51	N.S.	-2.14	.018
F7	.89	N.S.	-.28	N.S.
F8	.77	N.S.	-1.81	.037
F9	-.08	N.S.	-1.05	N.S.
Total POC	-3.61	.000	-1.02	N.S.
POC 1	-3.02	.001	-2.17	.017
POC 2	-1.75	.04	-.19	N.S.
POC 3	-2.55	.006	-.83	N.S.
POC 4	-3.60	.000	-.66	N.S.
POC 5	-3.52	.000	-1.47	N.S.
POC 6	-2.80	.003	.09	N.S.

Legend for Subscales:

F1 = Conventionalism
F2 = Authoritarian Submission
F3 = Authoritarian Aggression
F4 = Anti-intraception
F5 = Superstition and Stereotypy
F6 = Power and Toughness
F7 = Destructiveness and Cynicism
F8 = Projectivity
F9 = Sex

POC 1 = Leadership
POC 2 = Motivation
POC 3 = Communication
POC 4 = Decisions
POC 5 = Goals
POC 6 = Control

a small group is somewhat like comparing a large group to a single case. Averaging of scores between two individuals tend to be quite suspect and of little value.

The category of "others" has been explained earlier as one that contains a grouping of persons that creates some confusion in analysis. While this group was not a subject of analysis for this hypothesis, it is of interest that there is no significant difference between deputies and "others" on IR-scale and F-scale scores but very significant differences on every scale of the POC. This tends to reaffirm the argument presented in Hypothesis 2 which contends there is a rather unusual orientation toward organizational characteristics for this group. This is the only group that shows high levels of statistical significance on every POC-scale score when related to rank.

In summary, it is possible to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative in the stated direction. Hypothesis 6: Deputies with some college education will exhibit higher interpersonal risk behavior as shown by higher IR-scale scores than deputies with a high school diploma or less.

As shown by the data in Figure 14 and Table 26, there is a statistically significant difference between
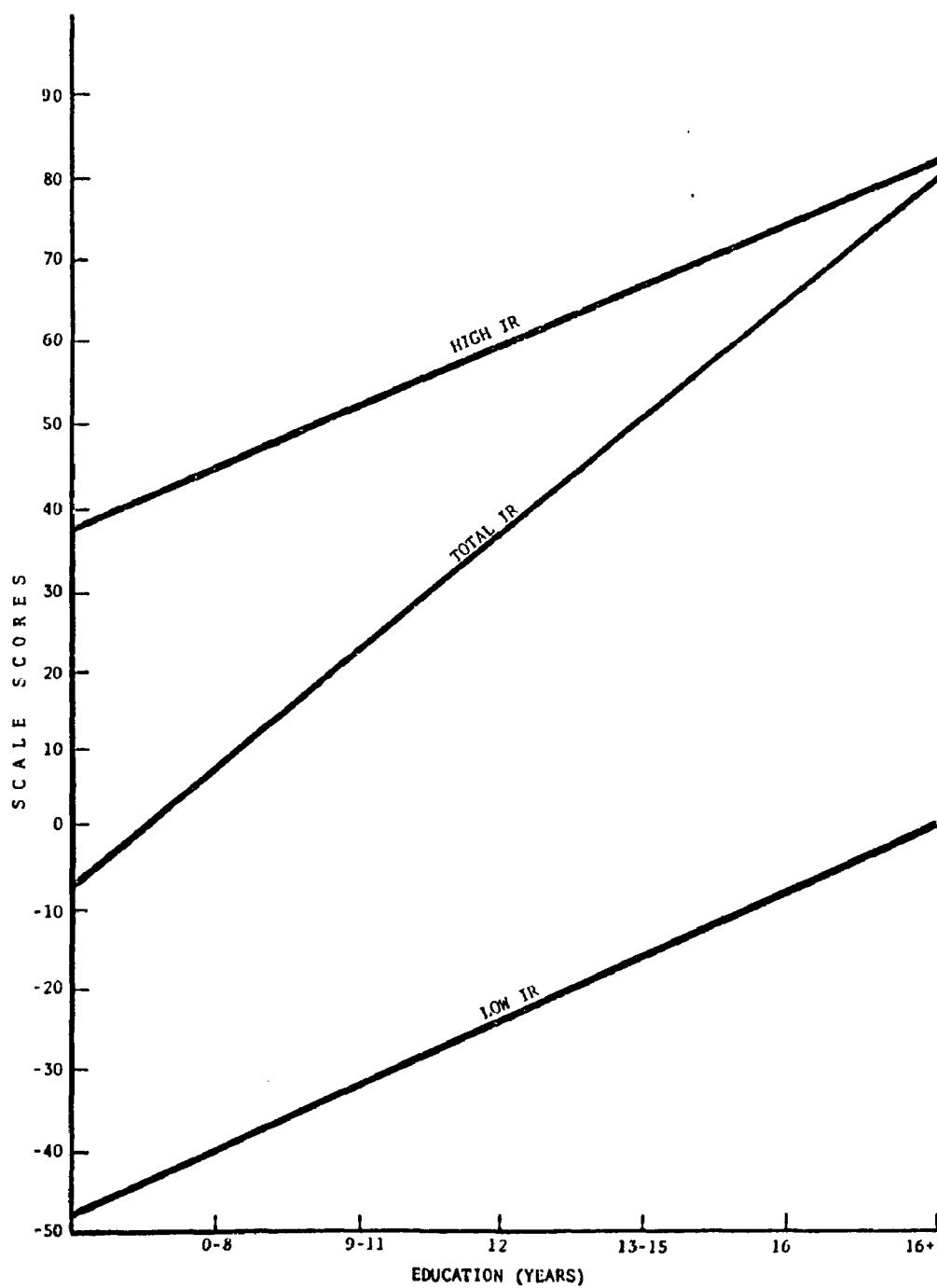
FIG. 14--IR-Scale Scores vs. Education
For All Deputies (N = 108)

TABLE 26

T-TESTS OF MEANS FOR DEPUTIES COMPARING
RACE/ASSIGNMENT/AND EDUCATION

| | CORRECTIONS | | ALL | | EDUCATION | |
| | Black | White | Black | White | <12 | >12 |
	t	P	t	P	t	P
Total IR	.11	N.S.	.96	N.S.	-3.00	.002
High IR	.42	N.S.	.89	N.S.	-1.72	.045
Low IR	-.46	N.S.	.78	N.S.	-4.19	.000
Total F	-1.31	N.S.	-2.18	.023	2.69	.004
F1	-1.16	N.S.	-1.93	.038	2.23	.014
F2	-.99	N.S.	-1.46	N.S.	1.70	.047
F3	-1.64	N.S.	-2.69	.009	2.31	.012
F4	-.55	N.S.	-1.09	N.S.	2.27	.012
F5	-.43	N.S.	-1.52	N.S.	1.82	.036
F6	-1.55	N.S.	-1.86	.042	1.03	N.S.
F7	-.94	N.S.	-.91	N.S.	1.40	N.S.
F8	.48	N.S.	-1.00	N.S.	2.90	.002
F9	.13	N.S.	-1.46	N.S.	2.32	.011
Total POC	.41	N.S.	.18	N.S.	1.53	N.S.
POC 1	-.37	N.S.	-.43	N.S.	.66	N.S.
POC 2	-.21	N.S.	1.09	N.S.	1.54	N.S.
POC 3	-.20	N.S.	-.59	N.S.	.18	N.S.
POC 4	1.87	N.S.	1.18	N.S.	1.35	N.S.
POC 5	.77	N.S.	.75	N.S.	2.83	.003
POC 6	.11	N.S.	-.25	N.S.	1.86	.033

Legend for Subscales:

F1 = Conventionalism
F2 = Authoritarian Submission
F3 = Authoritarian Aggression
F4 = Anti-intraception
F5 = Superstition and Stereotypy
F6 = Power and Toughness
F7 = Destructiveness and Cynicism
F8 = Projectivity
F9 = Sex

POC 1 = Leadership
POC 2 = Motivation
POC 3 = Communication
POC 4 = Decisions
POC 5 = Goals
POC 6 = Control

IR-scale scores for deputies with 12 or less years of education and those with more than 12 years. This permits the rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the alternative in the predicted direction.

An analysis of variance was also conducted with the data in order to test the effect of education upon all scales and subscales. The data shown in Table 19 indicate that a statistically significant difference remains between deputies with 12 or less years of education and more than 12 years. This finding lends further support for the hypothesized relationships.

Education was also examined in relation to F-scale and POC-scale scores. As shown by the data in Figure 15 and Tables 19 and 26, there was also a statistically significant difference on F-scale scores between deputies with 12 years or less education and those with more than 12. As shown by Figure 15, the slopes and directions of all the F-scale scores were all in negative correlation to IR-scale scores, adding further reconfirmation in the predictions which were verified in Hypothesis 1.

POC-scale scores, as shown by the data in Figure 16 and Tables 19 and 26, were negatively correlated with education, but did not reach a level of statistical
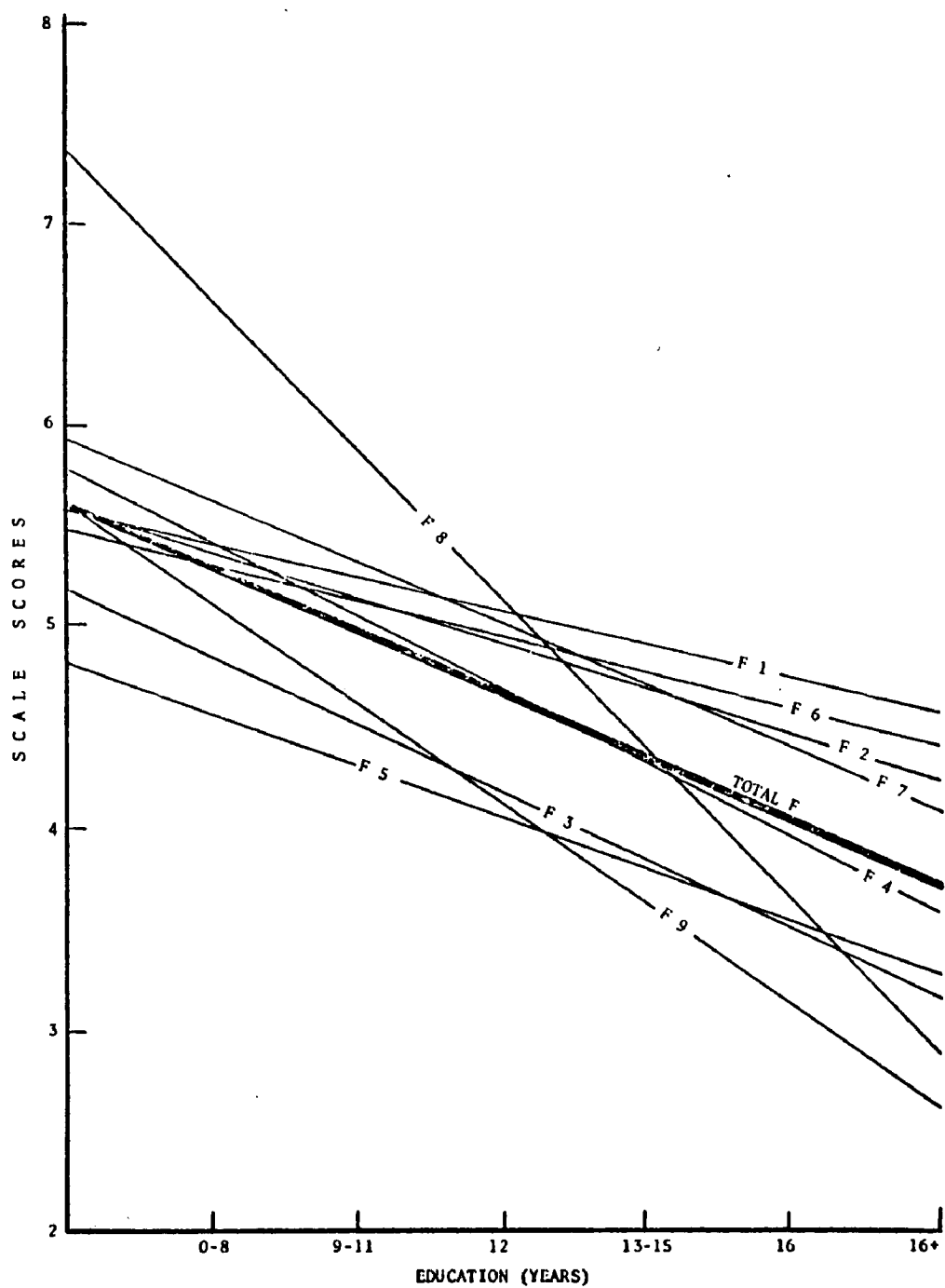
FIG. 15--F-Scale Scores vs. Education
For All Deputies (N = 108)
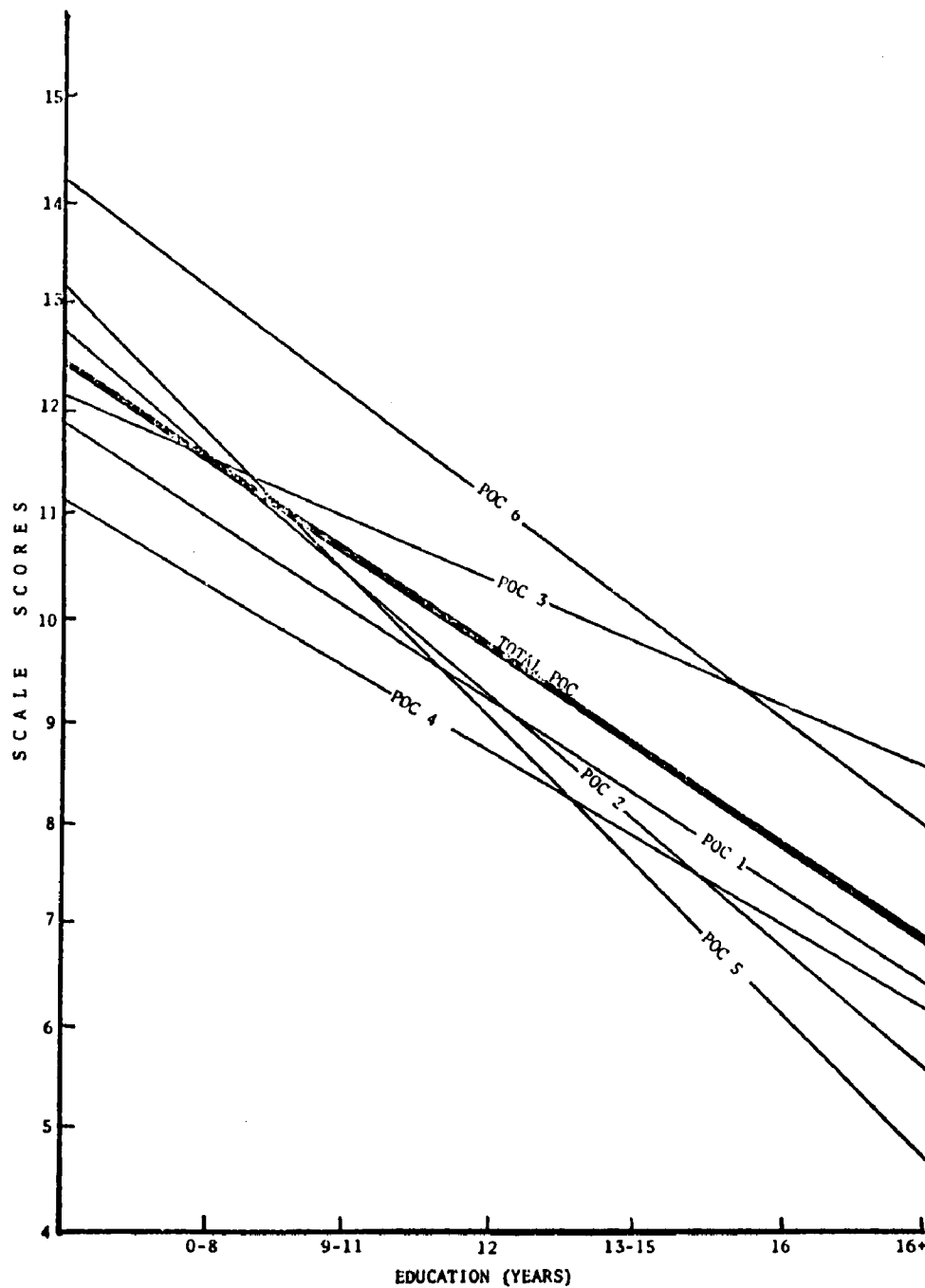
FIG. 16--POC-Scale Scores vs. Education
For All Deputies (N = 108)

significance which would permit the rejection of the hypothesis of no difference. This finding of a slightly negative relationship between POC-scale and IR-scale scores suggests that the deputies with more education are possibly able to better perceive the generally authoritarian/autocratic nature of a para-military law enforcement agency. This perception seems to lead these more educated deputies to rate such an organization more toward the System 1 side of the continuum. The relationship between the slopes of the three scales and education are clearly shown in Figure 17. This is a very interesting finding in regard to administrative implications from the present study and will be examined in the conclusions contained in the following chapter.

Hypothesis 7:   Deputies assigned to the corrections center will exhibit higher interpersonal risk behavior as shown by IR-scale scores than those in other assignment categories.

As shown by the data in Table 27, there were no statistically significant differences attained between deputies assigned to corrections and those assigned to other individual categories, or all other categories as a group. This does not permit the rejection of the null
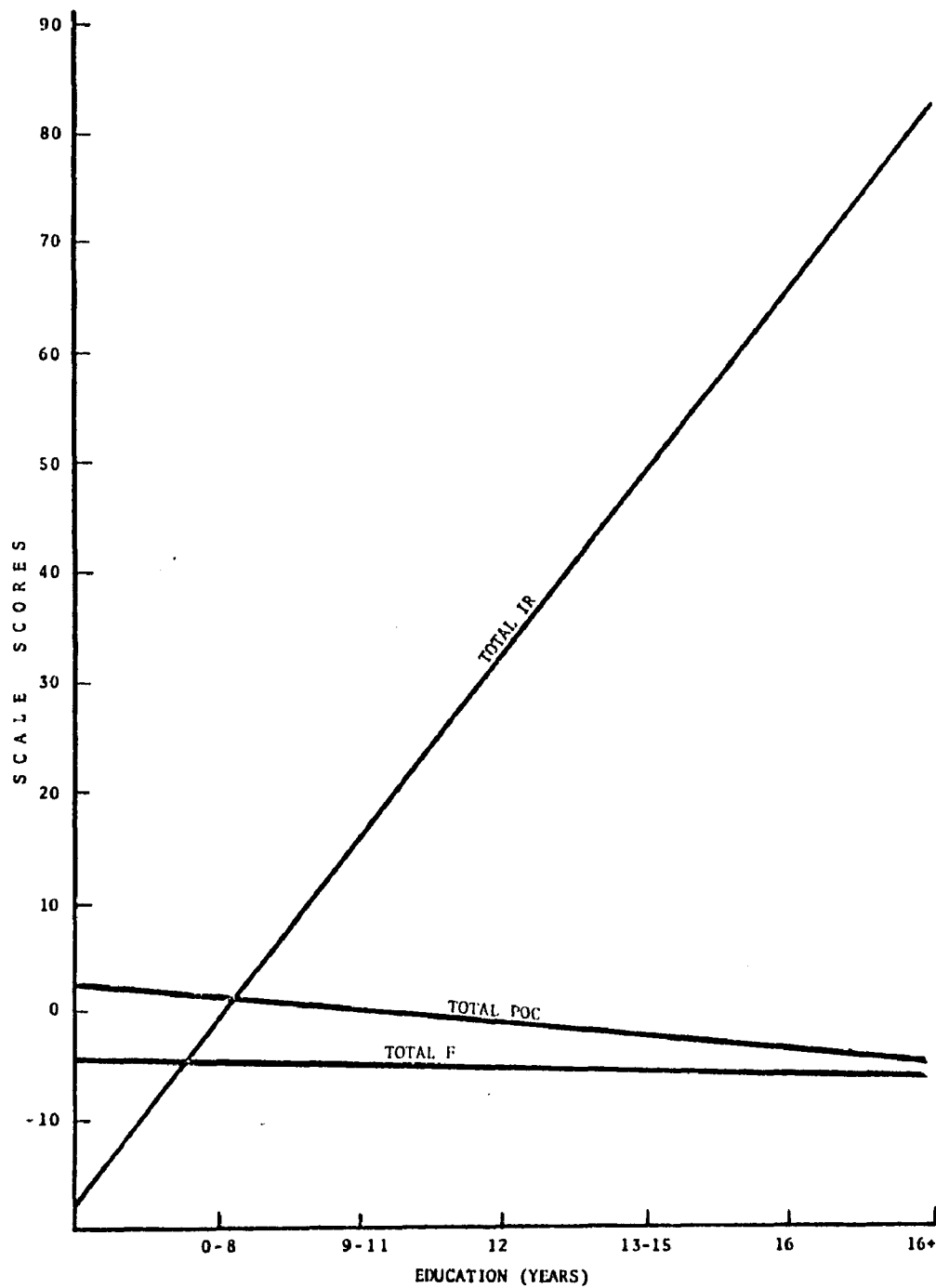
FIG. 17--IR-Scale, POC-Scale and F-Scale vs.
Education, All Deputies (N = 108)

TABLE 27

T-TESTS BETWEEN DEPUTIES ASSIGNED TO CORRECTIONS
AND OTHER ASSIGNMENT CATEGORIES

|	Corrections and Patrol		Corrections and Detective		Corrections and Administration		Corrections and All Others	
	t	P	t	P	t	P	t	P
Total IR	.96	N.S.	1.18	N.S.	.01	N.S.	.95	N.S.
High IR	1.40	N.S.	.84	N.S.	.51	N.S.	1.33	N.S.
Low IR	.00	N.S.	1.37	N.S.	-.71	N.S.	.11	N.S.
Total F	2.27	.013	-.09	N.S.	.40	N.S.	1.54	N.S.
F1	1.71	.046	-.71	N.S.	.50	N.S.	1.12	N.S.
F2	1.85	.034	-.18	N.S.	1.71	.047	1.59	N.S.
F3	1.65	.05	-.25	N.S.	.46	N.S.	1.16	N.S.
F4	3.22	.000	.10	N.S.	1.44	N.S.	2.59	.006
F5	1.15	N.S.	-.55	N.S.	.52	N.S.	.72	N.S.
F6	2.43	.009	.36	N.S.	.23	N.S.	1.76	N.S.
F7	1.02	N.S.	1.05	N.S.	-2.15	.02	.36	N.S.
F8	1.66	.05	-.09	N.S.	-.27	N.S.	.99	N.S.
F9	.85	N.S.	-.63	N.S.	.39	N.S.	.58	N.S.
Total POC	.06	N.S.	-.69	N.S.	2.01	.027	.44	N.S.
POC 1	-.22	N.S.	-1.87	N.S.	1.54	N.S.	-.11	N.S.
POC 2	.39	N.S.	-.08	N.S.	1.85	.036	.74	N.S.
POC 3	.94	N.S.	-.01	N.S.	1.26	N.S.	.95	N.S.
POC 4	-.24	N.S.	-.00	N.S.	2.34	.013	.51	N.S.
POC 5	.30	N.S.	-.22	N.S.	1.75	.046	.70	N.S.
POC 6	-1.18	N.S.	-1.19	N.S.	.70	N.S.	.97	N.S.

Legend for Subscales:

F1 = Conventionalism
F2 = Authoritarian Submission
F3 = Authoritarian Aggression
F4 = Anti-intraception
F5 = Superstition and Stereotypy
F6 = Power and Toughness
F7 = Destructiveness and Cynicism
F8 = Projectivity
F9 = Sex

POC 1 = Leadership
POC 2 = Motivation
POC 3 = Communication
POC 4 = Decisions
POC 5 = Goals
POC 6 = Control

hypothesis.

The assignment procedures for the Franklin County Sheriff's Department lead to the logical assumption that most of those assigned to the corrections center would be quite junior. It seemed reasonable to argue that higher levels of IR-score would result from their relatively short exposure to the socialization process. As shown by the data, however, the median length of service for those deputies assigned to the corrections center was 43 months. This was much longer than expected and it is reasonable to conclude from the previous analyses of the effect of length of service that this group had already begun leveling off in the socialization process, having been given the opportunity to serve in at least some of the other assignment categories.

As shown by the analysis of variance data in Table 19, the factor of assignment had no significant effect on any of the scales or subscales. This indicates that, with this population, assignment is not a very useful item for analysis. In all cases the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Hypothesis 8: Black deputies will exhibit higher levels of interpersonal risk behavior, as shown by higher IR-scale

scores than other racial groups.

> 8a. Black deputies will exhibit lower levels of authoritarianism, as shown by lower F-scale scores than other racial groups.
>
> 8b. Black deputies will score further toward the System 4 end of the POC-scale continuum than other racial groups.

As shown by the data in Table 26, the Black deputies' IR-scale scores were not particularly different from White deputies' scores at a level of statistical significance. This prevents the rejection of the null hypothesis and does not indicate the acceptance of a directional, or alternative hypothesis.

Black deputies did have lower F-scale scores at a level of statistical significance, permitting the rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of an alternative hypothesis in the expected direction.

Scores on the POC-scale showed no statistically significant difference between Black and White deputies. This again does not allow for the rejection of the null hypothesis or the acceptance of any directional alternative.

The findings suggest that the Black deputies are

less authoritarian (except those assigned to corrections) than their White counterparts. The lower levels of IR-scale scores, which are indicators of "trust," can be argued as reasonable in a basically White-dominated organization. While the Black deputy seems to be less authoritarian and somewhat less trusting, the POC-scale scores suggest that their perception of the organization is quite equal. Implications of these findings, along with those previously discussed, will be explored in the following chapter.

Summary of Results

Three of the eight hypotheses were supported on the basis of data obtained. The three hypotheses supported were those that predicted a relationship between inter-personal risk and authoritarianism, interpersonal risk and rank, and interpersonal risk and education. These three findings provide further evidence to support the validity of interpersonal risk theory.

Two more hypotheses, which were composed of multiple sub-hypotheses, were supported in some cases and rejected in others. The portion of Hypothesis 3 which predicted a relationship between deputies with less than one year of service and those with more and their IR-scale

scores was not supported by the data. The prediction in the part of that hypothesis, that there would be a negative and statistically significant difference between F-scale scores for deputies with less than one year of service, was supported by the data and in the direction predicted.

Hypothesis 8 predicted relationships between race and interpersonal risk, race and authoritarianism, and race and organizational perception. The predicted relationships between race and interpersonal risk, and race and organizational perception were not supported by the data. The prediction of the relationship between race and authoritarianism was supported by the data at a level of significance which permitted the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Two other hypotheses were not supported by the data for the total population, but showed statistically significant relationships when subjected to sequential analyses designed to control for confounding factors. A relationship was predicted in Hypothesis 2, in which interpersonal risk and organizational perception would be positively correlated. The data indicated this relationship to be in the opposite direction. A second analysis, controlling for extreme scorers, resulted in data which

supported the hypothesis in the expected direction at a level of statistical significance.

Hypothesis 4 predicted relationships between length of service and the three scale scores of interpersonal risk, authoritarianism, and organizational perception. The first two relationships were supported by the data. The relationship between organizational perception and length of service was again found to be confounded by similarly extreme scorers to those found in Hypothesis 2. After controlling for this factor, the data supported this third sub-hypothesis at a level of statistical significance.

Only one hypothesis, which predicted a relationship between assignment categories and interpersonal risk, was not confirmed by the data at a level of statistical significance sufficient to reject the null hypothesis.

Of the eight hypotheses, three were confirmed, and one was rejected. The relationships contained within the remaining four hypotheses were found to be sufficiently more complex than originally conceived and required additional analyses. After controlling for suspected confounding variables in two of the hypotheses, it was possible to reject the null hypothesis in all cases.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The present study sought to establish hypothesized relationships between Lundstedt's Interpersonal Risk theory and two other theoretical constructs: Adorno's Authoritarianism and Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics. These relationships were further examined within a framework of the processes and interactions in the socialization of the new deputy in a large county law enforcement agency. This investigation into the dynamics of the police socialization process is considered both timely and relevant when viewed within the context of the current and urgent problems of law enforcement, corrections and police administration in America.

Before launching into the interpretation, it is necessary to bear in mind that this research was, by nature of its ex-post-facto research design, exploratory and

quasi-experimental only. Comparison of scale scores by groupings according to length of service, assignment or other parameters are conducted with the foreknowledge that the compared scorers cannot be considered the same as identical persons measured at different points in the socialization process. This dissertation has primarily pointed out the indications, trends and patterns that seem to be significantly related to the socialization process, at least for the population studied. The interpretation and discussion of data, while admittedly limited in scope, do provide some directional signposts for those who might follow with true experimental research into this significant area of interest to the police administrator.

During the course of the present study, 98.4% of the available personnel at the Franklin County Sheriff's Department were surveyed by means of a four-part questionnaire package. This package was primarily designed to collect measurement levels of interpersonal risk, as shown by IR-scale scores; organization perception, as shown by POC-scale scores and; authoritarianism, as shown by F-scale scores. In addition, demographic data were collected in order to relate the scale scores to a number of hypothesized relationships between selected characteristics and

the police socialization process. The respondents were divided into four major categories--patrol, detective, administration and corrections--in order to examine the effects of these different role models on scale scores.

The demographic data show a number of interesting factors that had not been anticipated by the researcher prior to the conduct of the study. First of all, the average length of service (45.5 months) was much longer than expected. This appears to be in great part the result of a rather large cluster of "old hands," those with over 15 years of service, at the extreme end of the length of service continuum. Another alternative explanation stems from the fact that the present Sheriff has only recently begun to hire a significant number of new personnel for the corrections center.

Also related to length of service information is the disclosure that the respondents' had served much longer in their current assignments than was expected. Over 60 percent indicated that they had been in their present assignment for a period of over one year. The selection out process, as proposed in earlier chapters, was seen as a function of the individual's socialization to expected role behaviors. It is reasonable to argue that this

process is occurring, but at a slower rate than originally expected. This slower, but clearly defined, process was described by the combined outcomes of several hypotheses, and as shown by the data.

It cannot be established what amount of effect that the previous police experience of over one-third of the respondents might have exerted on the data. It seems reasonable to propose that this previous police socialization might be still another confounding factor in the data obtained from the present study. These kinds of problems would have been eliminated if it had been possible to conduct a longitudinal or panel design controlling for these confounding variables.

Conclusions

Some of the hypothesized socialization processes in the Franklin County Sheriff's Department were shown to take somewhat longer than anticipated to reach a measurable level of difference. The relationship between IR (trust) and F (authoritarianism) is rather strong, but the change in IR-scale scores appears to take place at a much slower rate than the change in F-scale scores. This is especially evident when the total IR-scale score is used.

One of the more important findings from this study is the discovery that the items on the <u>low</u> IR-scale appear to be very strongly correlated to the F-scale. Further, this subscale demonstrates a greater amount of sensitivity to small amounts of change in F-scale scores. This not only provides further evidence for the validity of Interpersonal Risk theory, but implies that a much shorter form of the IR-scale might be developed to be used as in independent measure of change in authoritarianism. The use of shorter, but valid scales in survey methods is a significant aid to field research.

Earlier research by Lillibridge (1967) and Thomas (1968) examined the effect of education on IR-scale scores. While Lillibridge collected data which seemed to indicate a strong relationship between education and IR-scale scores, Thomas was unable to replicate these findings. The present study finds education to be one of the most significant factors in differentiation of scorers on both IR-scale and F-scale items.

This finding is particularly significant for the police administrator. Experience and logic dictate that persons with characteristics of high authoritarianism and low interpersonal risk are poor candidates for law

enforcement assignments which require effective interpersonal interaction. Scale scores in this pattern would tend to indicate a person most likely to be unsuited for work with persons in a situation of powerlessness, such as with inmates, for example. Using the scales as indicators of these psychological characteristics, the police administrator might reasonably be able to assign personnel to the tasks they are better suited to perform.

Further, the implications of education as such a strong factor leads one to assume that action to increase education in personnel will create the desired changes in interpersonal risk and authoritarianism. For the police administrator, this makes a prescriptive package designed to accomplish measurable results along selected psychological dimensions.

Another significant finding is revealed by the results of the POC-scale scores. It seems that this instrument is unexpectedly sensitive to outlying or extreme scores. Within the Franklin County Sheriff's Department was found a paradoxical group of extreme scorers located at the far end of the length of service continuum. Their scores on the POC-scale confounded analyses of the relationship between the POC-scale scores and the scores of

other scales.

This group of long-term "old hands" can be seen as a very worthwhile topic for future in-depth investigation. The data show that this group seems to have followed the socialization pattern anticipated in regard to scores on the IR-scale and F-scale. However, this group seems to have developed an orientation toward the concepts measured by the POC-scale that runs contrary to the underlying theory. It is tentatively advanced that this may be due in part to their position as old and honored law enforcement "leaders" (without regard to rank). As they have become members of the decision-making clique within the para-military and authoritarian structure of the organization, they seem to have perceived this as more toward the participative (System 4) side of the POC continuum. Perhaps they also have rationalized adaptively to avoid true insight into the nature of the organization and their relationship to it. This is much in the way the subjects in early dissonance theory experiments rationalized the boring experimental tasks. It seems highly worthwhile to suggest exploration of this question in greater depth, using a more rigorous experimental design, such as a longitudinal study.

The factor of race does not appear to be particularly significant in differentiating scores on the IR-scale within the Franklin County Sheriff's Department. The ages of the Black deputies were examined and found to be a non-contributory factor, as was length of service. Only the factor of education seemed to differentiate between scores on the IR-scale for Black deputies and for their White counterparts.

It appears that the kind of Black persons who choose to become a deputy, have most of the same psychological orientation, at least as measured by IR-scale scores, as their fellow White deputies. The socialization process on the Black deputy, therefore, seems to be similar to that for the White deputy without the need for a "pre-socialization" to the White, power-structure norms.

Recommendations and Implications

The present study has opened up fruitful directions for additional research into the socialization process and its effect on the law enforcement officer. A refinement and elaboration of more precise research techniques and instruments designed specifically for measurement of this sector of public service is justified. Such research

should yield important insights into the nature, etiology and management of this long recognized, but inadequately researched process.

For other quasi-experimental studies into the socialization process in law enforcement, however, it appears that the IR-scale (especially the low IR-scale), the F-scale, and the POC-scale are useful and valid measures of important psychological, social and organizational processes in law enforcement administration.

The implications for the law enforcement administrator of the availability of valid measures of such important concepts as interpersonal risk and authoritianism are extremely relevant. Components of these constructs are interwoven into many facets of all public service agencies. Knowledge about their presence, and extent of their presence, can be a highly useful tool for the police executive, especially in the design and administration of selection, placement and training programs.

The concepts embodied in the POC-scale give the police administrator the ability to quickly describe the organization's present orientation and develop prescriptions for desired changes. If the results from the profile of organizational characteristics are not in harmony with

the stated goals of that organization, specific changes can be identified to bring them into alignment.

While the caveat of the exploratory nature of the present study is again enjoined, it does seem that Interpersonal Risk theory can be a valid and useful tool for the police administrator. Used judiciously and under controlled conditions, it gives similarly valid indications of several other psychological, social and organizational processes.

Law enforcement's concern with the human dimensions of management is relatively new, but growing. Future programs will require more sensitive analyses of the psychological dimensions of modern police organization and administration. It is hoped that the close of this dissertation may serve as a starting point for a continuing evaluation and re-evaluation of those major elements of policy formation, policy implementation and policy evaluation in the modern era of law enforcement.

APPENDIX A

TABLE 1 (VII)
THE F SCALE: FORM 78

2. Although many people may scoff, it may yet be shown that astrology can explain a lot of things.

3. America is getting so far from the true American way of life that force may be necessary to restore it.

6. It is only natural and right that women be restricted in certain ways in which men have more freedom.

9. Too many people today are living in an unnatural, soft way; we should return to the fundamentals, to a more red-blooded, active way of life.

10. It is more than a remarkable coincidence that Japan had an earthquake on Pearl Harbor Day, December 7, 1944.

12. The modern church, with its many rules and hypocrisies, does not appeal to the deeply religious person; it appeals mainly to the childish, the insecure, and the uncritical.

14. After we finish off the Germans and Japs, we ought to concentrate on other enemies of the human race such as rats, snakes, and germs.

17. Familiarity breeds contempt.

19. One should avoid doing things in public which appear wrong to others, even though one knows that these things are really all right.

20. One of the main values of progressive education is that it gives the child great freedom in expressing those natural impulses and desires so often frowned upon by conventional middle-class society.

23. He is, indeed, contemptible who does not feel an undying love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.

24. Today everything is unstable; we should be prepared for a period of constant change, conflict, and upheaval.

28. Novels or stories that tell about what people think and feel are more interesting than those which contain mainly action, romance, and adventure.

30. Reports of atrocities in Europe have been greatly exaggerated for propaganda purposes.

31. Homosexuality is a particularly rotten form of delinquency and ought to be severely punished.

32. It is essential for learning or effective work that our teachers or bosses outline in detail what is to be done and exactly how to go about it.

35. There are some activities so flagrantly un-American that, when responsible officials won't take the proper steps, the wide-awake citizen should take the law into his own hands.

38. There is too much emphasis in college on intellectual and theoretical topics, not enough emphasis on practical matters and on the homely virtues of living.

39. Every person should have a deep faith in some supernatural force higher than himself to which he gives total allegiance and whose decisions he does not question.

42. No matter how they act on the surface, men are interested in women for only one reason.

43. Sciences like chemistry, physics, and medicine have carried men very far, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.

46. The sexual orgies of the old Greeks and Romans are nursery school stuff compared to some of the goings-on in this country today, even in circles where people might least expect it.

47. No insult to our honor should ever go unpunished.
50. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.
53. There are some things too intimate or personal to talk about even with one's closest friends.
55. Although leisure is a fine thing, it is good hard work that makes life interesting and worthwhile.
56. After the war, we may expect a crime wave; the control of gangsters and ruffians will become a major social problem.
58. *What* a man does is not so important so long as he does it well.
59. Human nature being what it is, there will always be war and conflict.
60. Which of the following are the most important for a person to have or to be? *Mark X the three most important.*

> artistic and sensuous
> popular, good personality
> drive, determination, will power
> broad, humanitarian social outlook
> neatness and good manners
> sensitivity and understanding
> efficiency, practicality, thrift
> intellectual and serious
> emotional expressiveness, warmth, intimacy
> kindness and charity

65. It is entirely possible that this series of wars and conflicts will be ended once and for all by a world-destroying earthquake, flood, or other catastrophe.
66. Books and movies ought not to deal so much with the sordid and seamy side of life; they ought to concentrate on themes that are entertaining or uplifting.
67. When you come right down to it, it's human nature never to do anything without an eye to one's own profit.
70. To a greater extent than most people realize, our lives are governed by plots hatched in secret by politicians.
73. Nowadays when so many different kinds of people move around so much and mix together so freely, a person has to be especially careful to protect himself against infection and disease.
74. What this country needs is fewer laws and agencies, and more courageous, tireless, devoted leaders whom the people can put their faith in.
75. Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped.
77. No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.

TABLE 3 (VII)

MEANS AND DISCRIMINATORY POWERS OF THE F-SCALE ITEMS (FORM 78)[a]

Item	Mean	D.P.$_P$[b]	Rank D.P.$_P$	D.P.$_{AS}$[c]	Rank D.P.$_{AS}$	Final Rank[d] (D.P.$_P$+D.P.$_{AS}$)
2. (Astrology)	2.60	1.74	(22)	1.24	(11)	(18)
3. (Force to preserve)	3.04	1.98	(18)	1.05	(17)	(15)
6. (Women restricted)	2.93	1.75	(21)	0.41	(32)	(26)
9. (Red-blooded life)	3.99	2.04	(15)	-0.08	(35)	(29)
10. (Pearl Harbor Day)	2.22	2.20	(9)	1.37	(6)	(8)
12. (Modern church)	4.67	0.19	(38)	-1.18	(38)	(38)
14. (Rats...germs)	4.44	1.60	(26.5)	0.85	(24)	(23.5)
17. (Familiarity)	3.33	1.86	(19)	1.56	(4)	(10)
19. (One should avoid)	3.63	0.76	(36)	0.70	(27)	(35)
20. (Progressive education)	3.28	1.07	(33)	-0.25	(37)	(37)
23. (Undying love)	3.62	2.61	(4)	1.17	(13)	(5)
24. (Things unstable)	5.01	0.79	(35)	0.88	(22)	(33)
28. (Novels or stories)	3.02	1.29	(30)	0.76	(26)	(27)
30. (Reports of atrocities)	4.20	0.43	(37)	0.66	(28)	(36)
31. (Homosexuals)	3.22	2.16	(10)	1.18	(12)	(13)
32. (Essential for learning)	3.31	1.67	(24)	1.10	(16)	(20)
35. (Law in own hands)	2.50	1.42	(29)	0.62	(29.5)	(28)
38. (Emphasis in college)	3.91	1.20	(31)	1.14	(15)	(25)
39. (Supernatural force)	3.97	2.54	(6)	1.26	(9.5)	(4)
42. (For one reason)	2.06	1.05	(34)	0.59	(31)	(34)
43. (Sciences like chemistry)	4.35	2.79	(3)	0.97	(18)	(6)
46. (Sex orgies)	3.64	2.11	(12.5)	0.93	(20)	(14)
47. (Honor)	3.00	2.09	(14)	1.65	(3)	(7)
50. (Obedience and respect)	3.72	3.09	(1)	1.55	(5)	(2)
53. (Things too intimate)	4.82	1.99	(17)	-0.23	(36)	(32)
55. (Leisure)	5.20	2.11	(12.5)	1.26	(9.5)	(11)
56. (Crime wave)	4.60	1.16	(32)	0.62	(29.5)	(31)
58. (What a man does)	3.48	1.70	(23)	0.87	(23)	(22)
59. (Always war)	4.26	2.59	(5)	1.91	(2)	(3)
60. (Important values)	4.17	1.60	(26.5)	0.31	(34)	(30)
65. (World catastrophe)	2.58	1.55	(28)	0.90	(21)	(23.5)
66. (Books and movies)	4.10	2.48	(7)	0.38	(33)	(19)
67. (Eye to profit)	3.71	2.21	(8)	0.78	(25)	(17)
70. (Plots by politicians)	3.27	1.85	(20)	1.15	(14)	(16)
73. (Infection and disease)	4.79	2.02	(16)	1.34	(8)	(12)
74. (Tireless leaders)	5.00	1.66	(25)	0.94	(19)	(21)
75. (Sex crimes)	3.26	2.81	(2)	2.07	(1)	(1)
77. (No sane person)	4.12	2.12	(11)	1.36	(7)	(9)
Mean/Person/Item	3.71	1.80		0.89		

[a] The four groups on which these data are based are: Group A: U.C. Public Speaking Class Women (N = 140); Group B: U.C. Public Speaking Class Men (N = 52); Group C: U.C. Extension Psychology Class Women (N = 40); Group D: Professional Women (N = 63). In obtaining the over-all means, the individual group means were not weighted by N.

[b] D.P.$_P$ is based on the difference between the high quartile and the low quartile on the F scale distribution.

[c] D.P.$_{AS}$ is based on the difference between the high quartile and the low quartile on the A-S scale distribution. E.g., the D.P.$_{AS}$ of 1.24 on Item 2 indicates that the mean of the low quartile on A-S was 1.24 points lower than the mean of the high quartile on A-S.

[d] For each item the sum of D.P.$_P$ + D.P.$_{AS}$ is obtained. The final rank of an item is the rank of this sum in the distribution of sums for the whole scale.

TABLE 7 (VII)
F-Scale Clusters: Forms 45 and 40

a. *Conventionalism:* Rigid adherence to conventional, middle-class values.

1. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.

12. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.

37. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.

41. The business man and the manufacturer are much more important to society than the artist and the professor.

b. *Authoritarian Submission:* Submissive, uncritical attitude toward idealized moral authorities of the ingroup.

1. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.

4. Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.

8. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.

21. Young people sometimes get rebellious ideas, but as they grow up they ought to get over them and settle down.

23. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.

42. No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.

44. Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering.

c. *Authoritarian Aggression:* Tendency to be on the lookout for, and to condemn, reject, and punish people who violate conventional values.

12. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.

13. What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.

19. An insult to our honor should always be punished.

25. Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped, or worse.

27. There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.

34. Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feebleminded people.

37. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.

39. Homosexuals are hardly better than criminals and ought to be severely punished.

d. *Anti-intraception:* Opposition to the subjective, the ima. ative, the tender-minded.

    9. When a person has a problem or worry, it is best for him not to think about it, but to keep busy with more cheerful things.

    31. Nowadays more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.

    37. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.

    41. The businessman and the manufacturer are much more important to society than the artist and the professor.

e. *Superstition and Stereotypy:* The belief in mystical determinants of the individual's fate; the disposition to think in rigid categories.

    4. Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.

    8. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.

    16. Some people are born with an urge to jump from high places.

    26. People can be divided into two distinct classes: the weak and the strong.

    29. Some day it will probably be shown that astrology can explain a lot of things.

    33. Wars and social troubles may someday be ended by an earthquake or flood that will destroy the whole world.

f. *Power and "Toughness":* Preoccupation with the dominance-submission, strong-weak, leader-follower dimension; identification with power figures; overemphasis upon the conventionalized attributes of the ego; exaggerated assertion of strength and toughness.

    2. No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power.

    13. What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.

    19. An insult to our honor should always be punished.

    22. It is best to use some prewar authorities in Germany to keep order and prevent chaos.

    23. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.

    26. People can be divided into two distinct classes: the weak and the strong.

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

g. *Destructiveness and Cynicism:* Generalized hostility, vilification of the human.

    6. Human nature being what it is, there will always be war and conflict.

    43. Familiarity breeds contempt.

h. *Projectivity:* The disposition to believe that wild and dangerous things go on in the world; the projection outwards of unconscious emotional impulses.

18. Nowadays when so many different kinds of people move around and mix together so much, a person has to protect himself especially carefully against catching an infection or disease from them.

31. Nowadays more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.

33. Wars and social troubles may someday be ended by an earthquake or flood that will destroy the whole world.

35. The wild sex life of the old Greeks and Romans was tame compared to some of the goings-on in this country, even in places where people might least expect it.

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

i. *Sex:* Exaggerated concern with sexual "goings-on."

25. Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped, or worse.

35. The wild sex life of the old Greeks and Romans was tame compared to some of the goings-on in this country, even in places where people might least expect it.

39. Homosexuals are hardly better than criminals and ought to be severely punished.

SOURCE: The Authoritarian Personality, Adorno, et al., Harper and Row: New York, N.Y. (1950).

APPENDIX B

TABLE 14-1

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Operating characteristics	System of organization			
	Authoritative			Participative
	Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Consultative	Participative group
1. Character of motivational forces				
a. Underlying motives tapped	Physical security, economic security, and some use of the desire for status	Economic and occasionally ego motives, e.g., the desire for status	Economic, ego, and other major motives, e.g., desire for new experience	Full use of economic, ego, and other major motives, as, for example, motivational forces arising from group processes
b. Manner in which motives are used	Fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards	Rewards and some actual or potential punishment	Rewards, occasional punishment, and some involvement	Economic rewards based on compensation system developed through participation. Group participation and involvement in setting goals, improving methods, appraising progress toward goals, etc.

TABLE 14-1 (Continued)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS (Continued)

Operating characteristics	System of organization			
	Authoritative			Participative
	Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Consultative	Participative group
c. Kinds of attitudes developed toward organization and its goals	Attitudes usually are hostile and counter to organization's goals	Attitudes are sometimes hostile and counter to organization's goals and are sometimes favorable to the organization's goals and support the behavior necessary to achieve them	Attitudes may be hostile but more often are favorable and support behavior implementing organization's goals	Attitudes generally are strongly favorable and provide powerful stimulation to behavior implementing organization's goals
d. Extent to which motivational forces conflict with or reinforce one another	Marked conflict of forces substantially reducing those motivational forces leading to behavior in support of the organization's goals	Conflict often exists; occasionally forces will reinforce each other, at least partially	Some conflict, but often motivational forces will reinforce each other	Motivational forces generally reinforce each other in a substantial and cumulative manner
e. Amount of responsibility felt by each member of organization for achieving organization's goals	High levels of management feel responsibility; lower levels feel less. Rank and file feel little and often welcome opportunity to behave in ways to defeat organization's goals	Managerial personnel usually feel responsibility; rank and file usually feel relatively little responsibility for achieving organization's goals	Substantial proportion of personnel feel responsibility and generally behave in ways to achieve the organization's goals	Personnel feel real responsibility for organization's goals and are motivated to behave in ways to implement them

Table 14-1 (*Continued*)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS (*Continued*)

Operating characteristics	System of organization			
	Authoritative			Participative
	Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Consultative	Participative group
f. Attitudes toward other members of the organization	Subservient attitudes toward superiors coupled with hostility; hostility toward peers and contempt for subordinates; distrust is widespread	Subservient attitudes toward superiors; competition for status resulting in hostility toward peers; condescension toward subordinates	Cooperative, reasonably favorable attitudes toward others in organization; may be some competition between peers with resulting hostility and some condescension toward subordinates	Favorable, cooperative attitudes throughout the organization with mutual trust and confidence
g. Satisfactions derived	Usually dissatisfaction with membership in the organization, with supervision, and with one's own achievements	Dissatisfaction to moderate satisfaction with regard to membership in the organization, supervision, and one's own achievements	Some dissatisfaction to moderately high satisfaction with regard to membership in the organization, supervision, and one's own achievements	Relatively high satisfaction throughout the organization with regard to membership in the organization, supervision, and one's own achievements
2. Character of communication process				
a. Amount of interaction and communication aimed at achieving organization's objectives	Very little	Little	Quite a bit	Much with both individuals and groups
b. Direction of information flow	Downward	Mostly downward	Down and up	Down, up, and with peers
c. Downward communication				

TABLE 14-1 (Continued)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS (Continued)

Operating characteristics	System of organization			
	Authoritative			Participative
	Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Consultative	Participative group
(1) Where initiated	At top of organization or to implement top directive	Primarily at top or patterned on communication from top	Patterned on communication from top but with some initiative at lower levels	Initiated at all levels
(2) Extent to which communications are accepted by subordinates	Viewed with great suspicion	May or may not be viewed with suspicion	Often accepted but at times viewed with suspicion. May or may not be openly questioned	Generally accepted, but if not, openly and candidly questioned
d. Upward communication				
(1) Adequacy of upward communication via line organization	Very little	Limited	Some	A great deal
(2) Subordinates' feeling of responsibility for initiating accurate upward communication	None at all	Relatively little, usually communicates "filtered" information but only when requested. May "yes" the boss	Some to moderate degree of responsibility to initiate accurate upward communication	Considerable responsibility felt and much initiative. Group communicates all relevant information
(3) Forces leading to accurate or distorted information	Powerful forces to distort information and deceive superiors	Occasional forces to distort; also forces for honest communication	Some forces to distort along with many forces to communicate accurately	Virtually no forces to distort and powerful forces to communicate accurately

TABLE 14-1 (*Continued*)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS (*Continued*)

Operating characteristics	System of organization			
	Authoritative			Participative
	Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Consultative	Participative group
(4) Accuracy of upward communication via line	Tends to be inaccurate	Information that boss wants to hear flows; other information is restricted and filtered	Information that boss wants to hear flows; other information may be limited or cautiously given	Accurate
(5) Need for supplementary upward communication system	Need to supplement upward communication by spy system, suggestion system, or some similar devices	Upward communication often supplemented by suggestion system and similar devices	Slight need for supplementary system; suggestion system may be used	No need for any supplementary system
e. Sideward communication, its adequacy and accuracy	Usually poor because of competition between peers and corresponding hostility	Fairly poor because of competition between peers	Fair to good	Good to excellent
f. Psychological closeness of superiors to subordinates (i.e., how well does superior know and understand problems faced by subordinates?)	Far apart	Can be moderately close if proper roles are kept	Fairly close	Usually very close
(1) Accuracy of perceptions by superiors and subordinates	Often in error	Often in error on some points	Moderately accurate	Usually quite accurate

TABLE 14-1 (Continued)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS (Continued)

Operating characteristics	System of organization			
	Authoritative			Participative
	Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Consultative	Participative group
3. Character of interaction-influence process				
a. Amount and character of interaction	Little interaction and always with fear and distrust	Little interaction and usually with some condescension by superiors; fear and caution by subordinates	Moderate interaction, often with fair amount of confidence and trust	Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust
b. Amount of cooperative teamwork present	None	Virtually none	A moderate amount	Very substantial amount throughout the organization
c. Extent to which subordinates can influence the goals, methods, and activity of their units and departments				
(1) As seen by superiors	None	Virtually none	Moderate amount	A great deal
(2) As seen by subordinates	None except through "informal organization" or via unionization	Little except through "informal organization" or via unionization	Moderate amount both directly and via unionization	Substantial amount both directly and via unionization
d. Amount of actual influence which superiors can exercise over the goals, activity, and methods of their units and departments	Believed to be substantial but actually moderate unless capacity to exercise severe punishment is present	Moderate to somewhat more than moderate, especially for higher levels in organization	Moderate to substantial, especially for higher levels in organization	Substantial but often done indirectly, as, for example, by superior building effective interaction-influ-

TABLE 14-1 (Continued)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS (Continued)

Operating characteristics	System of organization			
	Authoritative			Participative
	Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Consultative	Participative group
e. Extent to which an adequate structure exists for the flow of information from one part of the organization to another, thereby enabling influence to be exerted	Downward only	Almost entirely downward	Largely downward but small to moderate capacity for upward and between peers	Capacity for information to flow in all directions from all levels and for influence to be exerted by all units on all units
4. Character of decision-making process				
a. At what level in organization are decisions formally made?	Bulk of decisions at top of organization	Policy at top, many decisions within prescribed framework made at lower levels	Broad policy and general decisions at top, more specific decisions at lower levels	Decision-making widely done throughout organization, although well integrated through linking process provided by overlapping groups
b. How adequate and accurate is the information available for decision-making at the place where the decisions are made?	Partial and often inaccurate information only is available	Moderately adequate and accurate information available	Reasonably adequate and accurate information available	Relatively complete and accurate information available based both on measurements and efficient flow of information in organization

TABLE 14-1 (Continued)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS (Continued)

	System of organization			
Operating characteristics	Authoritative			Participative
	Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Consultative	Participative group
c. To what extent are decision-makers aware of problems, particularly those at lower levels in the organization?	Often are unaware or only partially aware	Aware of some, unaware of others	Moderately aware of problems	Generally quite well aware of problems
d. Extent to which technical and professional knowledge is used in decision-making	Used only if possessed at higher levels	Much of what is available in higher and middle levels is used	Much of what is available in higher, middle, and lower levels is used	Most of what is available anywhere within the organization is used
e. Are decisions made at the best level in the organization so far as				
(1) Having available the most adequate and accurate information bearing on the decision?	Decisions usually made at levels appreciably higher than levels where most adequate and accurate information exists	Decisions often made at levels appreciably higher than levels where most adequate and accurate information exists	Some tendency for decisions to be made at higher levels than where most adequate and accurate information exists	Overlapping groups and group decision processes tend to push decisions to point where information is most adequate or to pass the relevant information to the decision-making point
(2) The motivational consequences (i.e., does the decision-making process help to create the necessary motivations in those persons who have to carry out the decision?)	Decision-making contributes little or nothing to the motivation to implement the decision, usually yields adverse motivation	Decision-making contributes relatively little motivation	Some contribution by decision-making to motivation to implement	Substantial contribution by decision-making processes to motivation to implement

TABLE 14-1 (*Continued*)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS (*Continued*)

Operating characteristics	System of organization			
	Authoritative		Participative	
	Exploitive authoritative	*Benevolent authoritative*	*Consultative*	*Participative group*
f. Is decision-making based on man-to-man or group pattern of opperation? Does it encourage or discourage teamwork?	Man-to-man only, discourages teamwork	Man-to-man almost entirely, discourages teamwork	Both man-to-man and group, partially encourages teamwork	Largely based on group pattern, encourages teamwork
5. Character of goal-setting or ordering				
a. Manner in which usually done	Orders issued	Orders issued, opportunity to comment may or may not exist	Goals are set or orders issued after discussion with subordinate(s) of problems and planned action	Except in emergencies, goals are usually established by means of group participation
b. To what extent do the different hierarchical levels tend to strive for high performance goals?	High goals pressed by top, resisted by subordinates	High goals sought by top and partially resisted by subordinates	High goals sought by higher levels but with some resistance by lower levels	High goals sought by all levels, with lower levels sometimes pressing for higher goals than top levels
c. Are there forces to accept, resist, or reject goals?	Goals are overtly accepted but are covertly resisted strongly	Goals are overtly accepted but often covertly resisted to at least a moderate degree	Goals are overtly accepted but at times with some covert resistance	Goals are fully accepted both overtly and covertly

TABLE 14-1 (Continued)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS (Continued)

Operating characteristics	System of organization			
	Authoritative		Participative	
	Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Consultative	Participative group
c. How accurate are the measurements and information used to guide and perform the control function, and to what extent do forces exist in the organization to distort and falsify this information?	Very strong forces exist to distort and falsify; as a consequence, measurements and information are usually incomplete and often inaccurate	Fairly strong forces exist to distort and falsify; hence measurements and information are often incomplete and inaccurate	Some pressure to protect self and colleagues and hence some pressures to distort; information is only moderately complete and contains some inaccuracies	Strong pressures to obtain complete and accurate information to guide own behavior and behavior of own and related work groups; hence information and measurements tend to be complete and accurate
c. Extent to which the review and control functions are concentrated	Highly concentrated in top management	Relatively highly concentrated, with some delegated control to middle and lower levels	Moderate downward delegation of review and control processes; lower as well as higher levels feel responsible	Quite widespread responsibility for review and control, with lower units at times imposing more rigorous reviews and tighter controls than top management

TABLE 14-1 (Continued)

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT
SYSTEMS BASED ON A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS (Continued)

Operating characteristics	System of organization			
	Authoritative			Participative
	Exploitive authoritative	Benevolent authoritative	Consultative	Participative group
d. Extent to which there is an informal organization present and supporting or opposing goals of formal organization	Informal organization present and opposing goals of formal organization	Informal organization usually present and partially resisting goals	Informal organization may be present and may either support or partially resist goals of formal organization	Informal and formal organization are one and the same; hence all social forces support efforts to achieve organization's goals
7. Performance characteristics				
a. Productivity	Mediocre productivity	Fair to good productivity	Good productivity	Excellent productivity
b. Excessive absence and turnover	Tends to be high when people are free to move	Moderately high when people are free to move	Moderate	Low
c. Scrap loss and waste	Relatively high unless policed carefully	Moderately high unless policed	Moderate	Members themselves will use measurements and other steps in effort to keep losses to a minimum
d. Quality control and inspection	Necessary for policing	Useful for policing	Useful as a check	Useful to help workers guide own efforts

SOURCE: New Patterns of Management, Likert (1961), pp. 223-233.

APPENDIX C

A STUDY OF PERSONNEL AND

ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE

FRANKLIN COUNTY SHERIFF'S DEPARTMENT

At the Direction of

HARRY J. BERKEMER
Sheriff, Franklin County

Conducted by

CLIFFORD E. SIMONSEN
Program for the Study of
Crime and Delinquency
The Ohio State University

Part I - Background Information

Please answer each of the first eleven questions in this section. Don't skip any of them. If you work in <u>corrections</u> at the Franklin County Corrections Center, answer the last five questions also. This is a very important study to help the Sheriff. We do <u>not</u> want your name, and of course, it is all completely confidential.

The first part is composed of general information about you. It will allow us to separate responses into several groups for study. It is very important that all answers are complete. Mark an "X" in the appropriate response block for each question.

<div align="center">Thank you.</div>

1. How old are you?   _____

2. What is your race?   White   ( )
                                            Black   ( )
                                            Other   ( )

3. How many years of school have   8 or less   ( )
    you had?   9 - 11   ( )
                                         12 (HS)   ( )
                                         13 - 15   ( )
                                         16 (BA)   ( )
                                             16+   ( )

4. How long have you been with the   _____   _____
    Franklin County Sheriff's De-   (yrs)   (mos)
    partment?

5. Were you employed in either a   Yes   ( )
    police or corrections job before   No   ( )
    you came to the Franklin County
    Sheriff's Department?

6. If you checked "yes" to question   Patrol   ( )
    #5, what was your former job area?   Detective   ( )
                                        Administrative   ( )
                                          Corrections   ( )

7. How long did you do that kind of   1 yr. or less   ( )
    work?   2 - 5 yrs.   ( )
                                             5+ yrs.   ( )

8. What is your present job at   Patrol   ( )
    the Franklin County Sheriff's   Detective   ( )
    Department?   Administrative   ( )
                                          Corrections   ( )

9. How long have you been on this
   job assignment?

0 - 3 mos.	( )
3 - 6 mos.	( )
6 mos. - 1 yr.	( )
1 yr.+	( )

10. How many other kinds of jobs
    have you held at the Franklin
    County Sheriff's Department?

Patrol	( )
Detective	( )
Administrative	( )
Corrections	( )

11. What is your present rank?

Deputy	( )
Sergeant	( )
Lieutenant	( )
Captain	( )
Other	( )

*** Fill out questions 12 - 15 only if you are presently working
in corrections at the Franklin County Corrections Center ***

12. Are you assigned to one location
    for your job?

Yes	( )
No	( )

13. In your job, do you have direct
    contact with inmates at the
    Franklin County Corrections Center?

Yes	( )
No	( )

14. What is the total amount of ex-
    perience you have had working
    directly with prisoners?

0 - 3 mos.	( )
3 mos. - 6 mos.	( )
6 mos. - 1 yr.	( )
1 yr.+	( )

15. How many hours of formal training
    have you had in human behavior?

None	( )
1 - 5 Hours	( )
5 - 10 Hours	( )
10+ Hours	( )

Part II

This questionnaire is <u>not</u> a test. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. We are only interested in your <u>personal</u> opinion, so read each statement carefully and answer it the way <u>you</u> <u>really</u> <u>feel</u>, not the way you think we want you to answer.

Thank you.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please read each statement carefully. Then, to each give your
very first reactions. If you agree with a statement, mark the appropriate box in the
AGREE column. If you disagree, make your response in the DISAGREE column.
The boxes are numbered so that you may indicate the extent to which you agree or
disagree with a statement. For example, a (1) in the AGREE column would indicate
mild agreement while a (5) in the AGREE column would indicate strong agreement.
(2), (3), and (4) are varying degrees of these extremes.

	AGREE	DISAGREE
1. UNLESS YOU KNOW A PERSON VERY WELL IT IS BEST NOT TO TAKE ANY CHANCES BY GIVING THEM TOO MUCH FREEDOM AND RESPONSIBILITY IN YOUR MUTUAL WORK WITH THEM.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2. EVEN IF YOU DON'T KNOW TOO MUCH ABOUT A PERSON, I STILL THINK IT'S WORTH-WHILE TO GAMBLE ON ANOTHER PERSON'S ABILITY TO HANDLE A JOB.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3. MOST PEOPLE CAN'T BE TRUSTED WITH TOO MUCH INFLUENCE AND RESPONSIBIL-ITY BECAUSE YOU CAN NEVER BE SURE ABOUT THE WAY THEY WILL USE THEM WHEN YOU ARE NOT AROUND TO KEEP AN EYE ON THINGS.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4. AS A RULE, GOOD SUPERVISION REQUIRES THAT PEOPLE BE CAREFULLY WATCHED AND CONTROLLED TO AVOID MISTAKES AND LAZINESS.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5. OF COURSE, IT USUALLY DEPENDS ON THE PERSON AS AN INDIVIDUAL, BUT MOST PEOPLE WILL COME THROUGH FOR YOU IF YOU GIVE THEM A CHANCE ON THEIR OWN.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6. I DON'T KNOW ABOUT YOU, BUT I'M CAREFUL NEVER TO STICK MY NECK OUT IN DELEGATING AUTHORITY TO OTHERS. I'VE BEEN BURNED TOO MANY TIMES.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7. UNLESS YOU KNOW A PERSON VERY WELL AND CAN TRUST THEM COMPLETELY IT'S BEST TO KEEP A CAREFUL, CLOSE, CHECK ON THEIR EVERY MOVE.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8. I'VE RUN THE RISK OF GIVING PEOPLE A LOT OF INFLUENCE AND RESPONSIBILITY ON THE JOB, AND WOULD DO IT AGAIN EVEN THOUGH SOME HAVE FAILED TO MEASURE UP.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9. PEOPLE HAVE MANY GOOD UNTAPPED RESOURCES, AND TO REACH THE RESOURCES YOU HAVE TO GIVE THEM LOTS OF ROOM AND INFLUENCE TO EXPRESS THEIR TALENTS.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10. UNLESS YOU KEEP A CLOSE EYE ON EMPLOYEES UNWARRANTED LIBERTIES WILL INVARIABLY BE TAKEN BY THEM.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11. IT IS BEST TO DELEGATE AUTHORITY AND INFLUENCE FREELY BECAUSE YOU CAN NEVER TELL WHEN YOU WILL DISCOVER SOMEONE WITH EXCEPTIONAL SKILLS.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12. A MANAGER, SUPERVISOR, OR BOSS OBVIOUSLY IS NAIVE AND FOOLISH IF HE OR SHE THINKS AN EMPLOYEE CAN ACCEPT AUTHORITY WITHOUT CLOSE SUPERVISION.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

	AGREE					DISAGREE				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

13. THERE IS NO SUCH THING AS A GOOD BET. YOU HAVE TO WATCH PEOPLE CAREFULLY AND TAKE PAINS NOT TO GIVE THEM TOO MUCH AUTHORITY AND FREEDOM.

14. OUR MOST IMPORTANT RESOURCE IS PEOPLE, AND LIKE EVERYTHING ELSE IN LIFE YOU HAVE TO TAKE SOME LONG SHOTS ON THEM VERY FREQUENTLY.

15. SOME OF OUR VERY BEST PEOPLE WERE LONG SHOTS.

16. I STRONGLY FEEL THAT IF IT WERE NOT FOR A GAMBLING SPIRIT AND A FAITH IN THE FUTURE EVEN THOUGH UNKNOWN, A LOT OF QUALIFIED PEOPLE WOULD NOT HAVE BEEN DISCOVERED.

17. DON'T TAKE TOO MANY UNNECESSARY CHANCES WITH NEW EMPLOYEES OR STAFF. SUPERVISE THEM CLOSELY, AND DON'T GIVE THEM TOO MUCH AUTHORITY BECAUSE IF YOU DO THEY MAY JUST DISAPPOINT YOU.

18. MY IDEA OF A GOOD ADMINISTRATOR IS SOMEONE WHO WOULD TAKE A RISK ON ANY PROMISING NEW EMPLOYEE THAT SEEMED TO FIT A ROLE.

19. IF PEOPLE KNOW YOU ARE TAKING A CHANCE ON THEM THEY WILL WORK HARDER AND BETTER FOR YOU.

20. EVERY PERSON HAS A DIFFERENT APPROACH TO A JOB AND YOU HAVE TO HAVE FAITH IN THEIR NATIVE INDIVIDUAL COMMON SENSE AND ABILITY TO COME UP WITH THE RIGHT SOLUTIONS TO PROBLEMS.

21. THERE IS REALLY ONLY TWO WAYS OF DOING A JOB, THE RIGHT WAY AND THE WRONG WAY. IT WOULD BE FOOLISH AND RISKY NOT TO WATCH A PERSON CLOSELY TO MAKE SURE THEY DO THE JOB RIGHT.

22. MOST EMPLOYEES TODAY ARE REALLY THE SAME AS BEFORE; GIVE THEM AN INCH AND THEY TAKE A MILE.

23. YOU CAN ONLY TRUST YOUR OWN ASSOCIATES WITH WHOM YOU HAVE WORKED FOR MANY YEARS, AND EVEN THEN IT IS BEST TO BE CAREFUL.

24. PEOPLE HAVE TO BE REMINDED OF THEIR RESPONSIBILITIES BY CONSTANT AND CLOSE SUPERVISION, ESPECIALLY ABOUT IMPORTANT DETAILS.

25. GAMBLING ON PEOPLE IS A RISKY BUSINESS.

26. GAMBLING IS, AFTER ALL, A NATURAL PART OF EVERYDAY LIFE.

27. LIFE IS A GAMBLE, AND IT IS BEST TO TAKE RISKS.

28. A GOOD EXECUTIVE TAKES RISKS, ESPECIALLY ON PEOPLE.

29. RISK TAKING IS BASIC IN MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION.

30. THE SOCIAL INFLUENCE AND POWER IN AN ORGANIZATION, WHICH ONE NEEDS TO DO A GOOD JOB OF ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION, TENDS TO BE A FIXED QUANTITY; IF YOU GIVE AWAY SOME OF IT TO OTHERS JUST THAT MUCH MORE CONTROL OVER THEM IS LOST.

Part III

Again, this is <u>not</u> <u>a</u> <u>test</u>. We want you to answer each item with <u>your</u> <u>own</u> <u>opinion</u> about the management style at the Franklin County Sheriff's Department. Place an "x" in one of the 5 spaces under the comment that best describes the Franklin County Sheriff's Department <u>in</u> <u>your</u> <u>opinion</u>. Each statement-scale indicates a movement toward the next opinion-statement as you move from left to right.

Thank you.

PROFILE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Organizational variables	SYSTEM 1	SYSTEM 2	SYSTEM 3	SYSTEM 4	Item no.
How much confidence and trust is shown in subordinates?	Virtually none	Some	Substantial amount	A great deal	1
How free do they feel to talk to superiors about job?	Not very free	Somewhat free	Quite free	Very free	2
How often are subordinate's ideas sought and used constructively?	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very frequently	3
Is predominant use made of 1 fear, 2 threats, 3 punishment, 4 rewards, 5 involvement?	1, 2, 3, occasionally 4	4, some 3	4, some 3 and 5	5, 4, based on group-set goals	4
Where is responsibility felt for achieving organization's goals?	Mostly at top	Top and middle	Fairly general	At all levels	5
How much cooperative teamwork exists?	Very little	Relatively little	Moderate amount	Great deal	6
What is the usual direction of information flow?	Downward	Mostly downward	Down and up	Down, up, and sideways	7
How is downward communication accepted?	With suspicion	Possibly with suspicion	With caution	With a receptive mind	8
How accurate is upward communication?	Usually inaccurate	Often inaccurate	Often accurate	Almost always accurate	9
How well do superiors know problems faced by subordinates?	Not very well	Rather well	Quite well	Very well	10
At what level are decisions made?	Mostly at top	Policy at top, some delegation	Broad policy at top, more delegation	Throughout but well integrated	11
Are subordinates involved in decisions related to their work?	Almost never	Occasionally consulted	Generally consulted	Fully involved	12
What does decision-making process contribute to motivation?	Not very much	Relatively little	Some contribution	Substantial contribution	13
How are organizational goals established?	Orders issued	Orders, some comments invited	After discussion, by orders	By group action (except in crisis)	14
How much covert resistance to goals is present?	Strong resistance	Moderate resistance	Some resistance at times	Little or none	15
How concentrated are review and control functions?	Very highly at top	Quite highly at top	Moderate delegation to lower levels	Widely shared	16
Is there an informal organization resisting the formal one?	Yes	Usually	Sometimes	No—same goals as formal	17
What are cost, productivity, and other control data used for?	Policing, punishment	Reward and punishment	Reward, some self-guidance	Self-guidance, problem-solving	18

LEADERSHIP — MOTIVATION — COMMUNICATION — DECISION — GOALS — CONTROL

Part IV

This is the last one! Again, this is <u>not</u> a test. Give us your own personal reaction to each statement. You do not need to worry about hidden meanings, there are none. Just answer with your true feelings.

Thank you.

	AGREE	DISAGREE

1. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.

2. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.

3. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.

4. The businessman and the manufacturer are much more important to society than the artist and the professor.

5. Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.

6. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.

7. Young people sometimes get rebellious ideas, but as they grow up they ought to get over them and settle down.

8. No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.

9. Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering.

10. What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.

11. An insult to our honor should always be punished.

12. Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped, or worse.

13. There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.

14. Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feebleminded people.

15. Homosexuals are hardly better than criminals and ought to be severely punished.

16. When a person has a problem or worry, it is best for him not to think about it, but to keep busy with more cheerful things.

17. Nowadays more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.

18. Some people are born with an urge to jump from high places.

19. People can be divided into two distinct classes: the weak and the strong.

20. Some day it will probably be shown that astrology can explain a lot of things.

21. Wars and social troubles may someday be ended by an earthquake or flood that will destroy the whole world.

22. No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power.

23. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.

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

25. Human nature being what it is, there will always be war and conflict.

26. Familiarity breeds contempt.

27. The wild sex life of the old Greeks and Romans was tame compared to some of the goings-on in this country, even in places where people might least expect it.

28. Nowadays when so many different kinds of people move around and mix together so much, a person has to protect himself especially carefully against catching an infection or disease from them.

	AGREE				DISAGREE			
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

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