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Domestic Violence Within Law Enforcement Families: The Link Between Traditional Police Subculture and Domestic Violence Among Police

by

Lindsey Blumenstein

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts
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Date of Approval
July 13, 2009

Keywords: police stress, intimate partner violence, police personality, gender, Tobit regression

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ABSTRACT

The most recent research in police domestic violence has shown that officers may perpetrate domestic violence at a higher rate than the general population, 28% versus 16%, respectively (Sgambelluri, 2000). Traditional police sub-culture has been identified, in several studies, as contributing to higher work stress, and using force on the job (Alexander et al., 1993; Drummond, 1976; Johnson et al, 2005; Kop and Euwema, 2001; Sgambelluri, 2000; Wetendorf, 2000). This research, however, has not fully examined the link between adherence to the traditional police sub-culture and officer involvement in domestic violence. This study attempts to identify whether officers who adhere to the aspects of the traditional police sub-culture are more likely to use violence against their intimate partner using two types of domestic violence—physical assault and psychological violence—as well as examine gender's moderating influence on police domestic violence and traditional police sub-culture. Using a survey created from existing scales, 250 officers were contacted within several departments in Central Florida, of these, 90 officers responded. Using Tobit and Logistic Regression the study found that officers who adhere to aspects of the traditional police subculture are more likely to engage in psychological domestic violence. There was no relationship found between traditional police culture and physical domestic violence. A thorough discussion of the results and future research directions is also included.

Chapter One

Introduction

The Women's Movement in the 1970's influenced the public's awareness of the victims and offenders of domestic violence, giving women a voice that had not previously been heard. Police were called upon to take these crimes more seriously; the public came to rely on the police to protect potential victims of domestic violence and arrest offenders. Yet some of those same officers were themselves "batterers with a badge."

The number of research articles on domestic violence skyrocketed from less than a dozen in 1974 to more than 200 in the 1980's (Johnson et al., 2005; Stith and Straus, 1995; Walton and Zigley, 2000). Yet, the police officers that were batterers—the same police who were responding to domestic abuse disputes and keeping victims safe—were essentially ignored in this literature as perpetrators.

Beginning in the 1990's, researchers began to look at violence within police families. Two key studies helped to raise public and organizational awareness of the high number of officers involved in domestic disputes. Johnson (1991), who testified before the US Congress, reported that over 40% of the officers surveyed in her study reported being violent with their spouse. Neidig et al. (1992) conducted a subsequent study and found similar results; about 40% of the officers in their survey inflicted violence on their spouses. The behaviors cited included slapping, kicking, hitting, chocking, or using a gun. The most recent research has shown that officers may perpetrate domestic violence

at a higher rate than the general population, 28% versus 16%, respectively (Sgambelluri, 2000).

It is important to identify factors that may make officers prone to commit violent acts against their significant others, as well as ascertain the differences between officers who engage in domestic violence and those who do not. Traditional police sub-culture has been identified, in several studies, as contributing to higher work stress and using force on the job (Alexander et al., 1993; Drummond, 1976; Johnson et al., 2005; Kop and Euwema, 2001; Sgambelluri, 2000; Wetendorf, 2000). This research, however, has not fully examined the link between adherence to the traditional police sub-culture and officer involvement in domestic violence. Also, only one study has examined gender as it relates to intimate partner violence among police officers. This study found that burnout has an effect on violence use at different rates for males and females (Johnson, 2000). Effective responses cannot be produced unless there is an accurate understanding of this behavior. Therefore the following study will try to answer the following questions:

1) Are officers who adhere to the components of traditional police sub-culture more likely to engage in domestic violence?
2) Does gender moderate the influence of traditional police sub-culture on police domestic violence?

Chapter Two discusses the previous and current literature as it relates to traditional police culture, police domestic violence, and gender. Chapter Three gives a detailed explanation of the research questions and hypotheses. Chapter Four discusses the data collection techniques and the measures used in the survey. Chapter Five presents the results. Chapter Six discusses the results in the context of the research questions and literature, study limitations, policy implications and future research.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

This chapter will review the extant literature within the realm of police culture, covering the constructs of the traditional police culture, negative consequences of the traditional culture, police domestic violence and the relationship between gender and police domestic violence. It is from this literature that the working hypotheses were developed.

Since the seminal work of William Westley (1970), scientists have studied the existence of a sub-culture within the police organization. In that time, researchers have explored the characteristics of this sub-culture, and whether more than one culture exists (Chan, 1997; Cochran and Bromley, 2003; Herbert, 1998; Kappeler et al., 1994; Manning, 1995; Paoline 2004; Reiner, 1985; Reuss-Ianni, 1983; Skolnick, 1966; Terrill et al., 2003; Van Maanen, 1974; Westley 1970). Westley (1970) studied police in Indiana in the 1950's in order to identify a "single" police culture. He focused on the shared norms and values among police that serve to control the strains that are created while working in a dangerous and hostile work environment. Westley highlighted the loyalty and secrecy among officers. He identified the shared norms and values—including a coercive authority over citizens, or an authoritarian personality; distrust and suspicion of the public including a cynical attitude; a strong emphasis on law enforcement tactics; assessing people and situations in terms of their potential threat; and burnout. All of these features are together known as the monolithic police culture.

Research has evaluated the effects of traditional police sub-culture on various outcomes such as work stresses (Gershon, 2000; Jackson and Maslach, 1982; Roberts and

Levenson, 2001) and use of force on the job (Henkel, et al., 1997; Kop and Euwema, 2000; Terrill et al., 2003). Very few studies have assessed the effects of this sub-culture on domestic violence in police families (Erwin et al., 2005; Johnson, 2000; Johnson et al., 2005 (Sgambelluri, 2000), and only one of these studies has included gender as a variable of interest (Johnson, 2000). Each of these studies has shown how a specific construct of the traditional police sub-culture can adversely affect officers. Most of these studies have included only one construct of the traditional sub-culture (Johnson et al., 2005; Sgambelluri, 2000); no study has yet to incorporate a comprehensive model of traditional police sub-culture to study the various negative outcomes that accompany traditional officers. The current study includes three recognized characteristics of the traditional police sub-culture—authoritarianism, cynicism and burnout—creating a comprehensive model and thus a better understanding of its effect on police officer domestic violence.

Existence of a Traditional Police Sub-Culture

The notion of a single police culture existed for a number of years until changes in the demographics of police personnel occurred. Women, as well as African Americans, Latinos, and other racial groups were hired by law enforcement agencies. As the makeup of police changed, so did their collective norms and values producing a subculture or subcultures that were different from the "traditional" one identified by Westley (Chan, 1996; Cochran and Bromley, 2003; Herbert, 1998; Manning, 1995; Paoline et al., 2000; Paoline, 2004).

It appears there is no longer a single police culture; instead researchers are identifying multiple cultures that are adhered to by subgroups of officers. There is not yet a consensus among researchers regarding the nature of these modern police cultures, but every study on police culture has identified a sub-culture that is consistent with the

characteristics of the “traditional” police sub-culture (Paoline, 2004). Examples of these sub-cultures—that embody the same characteristics of the “traditional” police subculture—are Broderick’s (1977) “Enforcer,” Brown’s (1988) “Old Style Crime Fighter,” Cochran and Bromley’s (2003) “Sub-Cultural Adherents,” and White’s (1972) “Tough Cops.”

Although there is no longer a single police culture, research has shown that the traditional police sub-culture still exists. Some of the characteristics of the “traditional” subculture include negative views towards citizens, favorable outlooks towards aggressive police tactics, and an emotional exhaustion of officers over a short period of time. The traditional police sub-culture creates a harmful environment in which officers are more likely to engage in negative behaviors, such as violence (Erwin et al., 2005; Henkel et al., 1997; Johnson, 2000; Johnson et al., 2005; Kop and Euwema, 2001; Sgambelluri, 2000; Terrill et al., 2003).

In past decades, a majority of officers adhered to the “traditional” subculture of police. Many of these officers have retired and fewer of the new generation of officers adhere to the norms and values of the traditional police culture. There are no longer a large number of officers considered to be “traditional.” Despite this, research has shown the traditional police sub-culture continues to exist despite changes in demographics, as well as changes in the structure and goals of policing (Cochran and Bromley, 2003). This suggests that its effect is strong.

Constructs of Traditional Police Sub-Culture

Over the years there have been a number of studies on the traditional police sub-culture. Although researchers have not yet come to a consensus on the proportion of officers that adhere to this traditional culture, they have agreed that this sub-culture

exists, and have identified the key characteristics that comprise it. Three accepted characteristics of this culture are—authoritarianism, cynicism and burnout.

The occupational environment of the police officer is often a risky and dangerous one. In order to cope with this atmosphere, officers adopt certain attitudinal beliefs and behaviors (Brown, 1988; Herbert, 1998; Manning, 1995; Paoline, 2004; Reiner, 1985; Reuss-Ianni, 1983; Skolnick, 1966; Terrill et al., 2003; Westley, 1970). To combat the dangerous violence that may occur, officers use aggressive law enforcement tactics (Brown, 1988; Reuss-Ianni, 1983). The occupational description of a police officer can be ambiguous; officers adhering to the traditional police culture will adopt a strictly crime fighting view of their role. This attitude constitutes selectively performing duties, using coercion over and aggression towards citizens, and rejecting any other job descriptions such as those that might reflect community policing. The use of aggressive law enforcement tactics and a coercive authority over citizens is linked to an authoritarian personality of officers that spills over into other parts of their lives (Terrill et al., 2003).

Cynicism is a characteristic that has been traced to the traditional police culture (Cochran and Bromley, 2003; Paoline, 2004; Reuss-Ianni, 1983; Skolnick, 1966; Terrill et al., 2003; Westley, 1970). Historically, officers have believed that citizens outside of the police profession would be of no assistance to them in their duties, and even if they were to help they would do more harm than good (Paoline, 2004; Sparrow et al. 1990). This coupled with a common “we-versus-them” attitude held by officers in the traditional police culture, has created an environment of suspicion and distrust of the public. Police officers carry these attitudes with them in their daily interactions with citizens, as well as with fellow officers who may not share the same belief system, making them feel they must “maintain an edge” while fulfilling their duties (Cochran and Bromley, 2003; Van

Maanen, 1974). This creates tension between officers and a feeling that everyone is against them, leading to a destructive work environment, and therefore creating a situation for violence to occur.

Police officers experience prolonged periods of stress daily, as compared to the general population. The very nature of policing, including threats to life and exposure to violence, can create high levels of emotional exhaustion This emotional exhaustion, in turn, can produce harmful consequences in the officers' occupational and personal lives. Officers who adhere to the traditional police culture are more likely to experience burnout due to aggressive law enforcement tactics and the cynical attitude they adopt. These dimensions create a highly demanding and taxing environment in which police officers are more likely to internalize daily interactions that create greater levels of stress and pressure which in turn lead to burnout.

These three constructs of traditional police sub-culture described above—authoritarianism, cynicism and burnout—are frequently referenced in the literature. Each of these aspects of the traditional police sub-culture has been linked to particular officer attitudes and behaviors especially those related to aggression and violence.

The current research will use these three constructs as a proxy measure of the traditional police sub-culture, and will study the effect of this culture on officer's involvement in domestic violence. The next section describes theory and research that links officer adherence to these constructs to negative consequences.

Negative Consequences of the Traditional Police Sub-Culture

Recent research has evaluated the effects of traditional police sub-culture on various outcomes, such as work stresses (Gershon, 2000; Jackson and Maslach, 1982; Roberts and Levenson, 2001) and use of force on the job (Henkel, et al., 1997; Kop and

Euwema, 2001; Terrill et al., 2003). These studies show that adherence to the various components of the traditional culture produces negative consequences for officer.

The unique stress experienced by those in a helping profession has been documented within the past 20 years (Jackson and Maslach, 1982). The close contact that officers have with other people's problems can lead to frustration, tension and fatigue, as well as emotional exhaustion, which the officers often bring home with them. Several studies have been conducted examining the amount of emotional exhaustion or burnout and officer experiences, and the effect on his or her family life (Gershon, 2000; Jackson and Maslach, 1982; Roberts and Levenson, 2001). Each of these studies found that officers with high levels of stress are more likely to display anger (Gershon, 2000; Jackson and Maslach, 1982; Roberts and Levenson, 2001), withdraw from social contact (Jackson and Maslach, 1982), experience physical exhaustion (Roberts and Levenson, 2001), and use negative outlets for coping such as alcohol and gambling (Gershon, 2000). Officers with high levels of stress are also at higher risk for poor marital outcomes.

Police officers often find themselves in situations where it becomes necessary to use force. Researchers have become interested in the reasons one chooses to use or misuse force in a particular situation. Two studies in particular have examined the impact of the "traditional" police sub-culture on the use or misuse of force by officers (Kop and Euwema, 2001; Terrill et al., 2003). Kop and Euwema (2001) studied Dutch officers' burnout and depersonalization, or isolation, from the public and use of force. Using qualitative and quantitative data, Kop and Euwema (2001) found that as depersonalization increased, officers felt more positively about using force, and were less interested in the problems of citizens.

Terrill et al. (2003) used data from the Project on Policing Neighborhoods to test the assertion that differences across officers in the use of coercive authority (including force) are a result of variation in culture alignments. The researchers developed a classification scheme based on officers' attitudes. They found that officers who adhered to the "traditional" police culture are more likely to display coercive authority, using behavior such as pushing or hitting, more frequently, and at higher levels. Their findings indicate that officer's use of force is related to officer's embodiment of the "traditional" police culture. Terrill et al's (2003) research demonstrates that the values within the "traditional" culture of policing are tied to use of force.

Previous research on police culture has indicated some important relationships between using force, or aggressiveness, and personifying the "traditional" characteristics of police culture. Though these studies have specified important relationships, none of these studies have linked adherence to the "traditional" culture of policing to domestic violence within the home.

Police Domestic Violence and Traditional Police Sub-Culture

Only a few researchers have studied domestic violence within police families (Erwin et al., 2005; Gershon, 2000; Johnson, 1991, 2000; Johnson et al., 2005; Neidig et al., 1992; Sgambelluri, 2000). These studies have documented a high frequency of officer-involved domestic violence. Even fewer studies have taken on the challenge of identifying the effects of police culture on officer-involved domestic violence.

Gershon (2000) conducted a study to assess the relationship between police work stress and domestic violence by police officers. Gershon (2000) developed a new police stress questionnaire and administered it to a large sample of sworn law enforcement in Baltimore, Maryland. By doing this, she was able to identify the prevalence of stress and

its outcomes in male and female officers, as well as the coping mechanisms used to control stress. Although this study looked at domestic violence, it was only concerned with how stress was related to domestic violence; this study did not look at stress in the context of the “traditional” police culture in its testing of officers’ use of domestic violence.

Erwin et al. (2005) compared officers charged with intimate partner violence to those who had not been charged to identify risk factors. The findings indicated that minority officers were more likely to be accused of domestic violence, accused officers were treated similar to civilians in the processing of the case, and accused officers were more likely to be assigned to high crime districts. The authors did not measure the impact of any risk factors that reflect the “traditional” police sub-culture, including work stress.

Johnson et al. (2005) examined the relationship between violence exposure and domestic violence by police. They created measures of burnout, authoritarian spillover, alcohol use, department withdrawal, and violence exposure. The findings suggest that the relationship between violence exposure and domestic violence is a mediated process. When spousal violence occurs due to external burnout or authoritarianism, the amount of violence exposure becomes important. This study is significant because it identifies burnout and authoritarianism, two central aspects of traditional police culture, as factors leading to domestic violence. This study is only one of a minority that actually looked at the relationship between features of police culture and domestic violence.

These few studies are central to understanding domestic violence in law enforcement. They show a connection between traditional police culture and spousal abuse by officers. The research of Johnson et al. (2005), described above, is the most relevant to the current study because they show a relationship between characteristics of

police culture and violence in the home. The current study builds upon Johnson et al's (2005) study not only by adding to the literature on police culture and domestic violence, but also by researching a more comprehensive model of traditional police sub-culture including three recognized characteristics of this culture.

Gender, Traditional Police Sub-Culture, and Domestic Violence

The previous studies explored the relationship between characteristics of the police sub-culture and domestic violence. Only one study to date has looked at the effect of gender on this relationship (Johnson, 2000). With more women entering the police force, it becomes important to study the influence of gender on these relationships. Johnson (2000) examined the impact of gender and burnout on violence at home. Overall, she found that male officers, who experience high external burnout, are more likely to use violence. Female officers, who experience high internal burnout, are less likely to use violence. Importantly, Johnson (2000) found that the women who experience high levels of external burnout (as above, males are generally more likely than females to experience high levels of external burnout) are more likely to be involved in various types of violence. When this female external burnout occurs, female violence equals or exceeds that of male officers.

The study by Johnson indicates that gender has an effect on aspects of the traditional sub-culture and police domestic violence. The current study builds on the findings of Johnson's study by examining the relationship among three facets of traditional police sub-culture and domestic violence.

Chapter Three

Research Questions and Methodology

This chapter sets forth the research questions addressed by this study and outlines the methods used. Information is provided regarding subject selection, survey administration, and measurement of the variables.

Domestic violence within law enforcement families is rarely studied due to its delicate nature and the difficulty of accessing data within police departments (Johnson, 2000). That violence within police families is a problem has been documented, but no consensus exists regarding why this is the case. Researchers have made some significant steps in studying domestic violence in law enforcement, but more investigation is needed to understand why some officers are more prone to commit violence in the home compared to other officers.

This study attempts to fill the gap in the literature regarding the relationship between aspects of the traditional police sub-culture and domestic violence against intimate partners by police. The study will assess the link between adherence to specific aspects of the traditional police sub-culture—authoritarianism, cynicism, and burnout—and officer-involved domestic violence. The current study will also try to include gender as a moderating variable between traditional police sub-culture and police domestic violence.

Research Questions

Based on previous literature, the current study will seek to answer the following questions in order to assess the relationship between traditional police sub-culture, as well as gender, on police officer domestic violence:

1) Are officers who adhere to the components of traditional police sub-culture more likely to engage in domestic violence?
2) Does gender moderate the influence of traditional police sub-culture on police domestic violence?

Sample and Data Collection

A survey was used to measure each subject's adherence to the three common constructs of traditional police sub-culture—authoritarianism, cynicism, and burnout—and subject involvement in physical and psychological abuse of an intimate partner. Items solicited demographic information including gender, which will be used as a hypothesized moderating variable.

A convenience sample of police officers was used. A group of local municipal and county police departments was contacted to ascertain which agencies had a mechanism in place to distribute surveys to their officers (e.g. physical mailboxes for employees) and would cooperate with the research. The seventeen following agencies in the Tampa, FL area were contacted: Bradenton Police Department, Clearwater Police Department, Dade City Police Department, Gulfport Police Department, Hillsborough County Sheriffs Office, Lakeland Police Department, Manatee County Sheriffs Office, Orlando Police Department, Pinellas County Sheriffs Office, Pinellas Park Police Department, Sarasota County Sheriffs Office, Sarasota Police Department, St. Petersburg Beach Police Department, St. Petersburg Police Department, Tampa Police Department,

Tarpon Springs Police Department, and Temple Terrace Police Department. Ultimately, four of these departments agreed to cooperate. Although it is impossible to know from which department the surveys came, the departments surveyed were varied in size; they included two small, one medium and one large agency (They are not named as they were promised agency-level confidentiality.)

Surveys were distributed to the total population of 250 officers who worked for these four agencies through departmental mailboxes. (The executives at each agency provided information on the total number of sworn personnel.) Officers were assured complete confidentiality. Officers were asked to complete the survey and either place the completed instrument in a drop box near the department mailboxes or return the survey using self-addressed stamped envelopes. Ninety officers returned the surveys for a response rate of 36%.

This type of sampling comes with both weaknesses and strengths. One important weakness of using this convenience sample is that the results generated on the nature of the police sub-culture and the frequency of interpersonal violence on the part of police will not necessarily be generalizable. Although these results may not be generalizable, this sample is satisfactory for testing relationships among the variables—traditional police sub-culture, police domestic violence. This sample comes entirely from Central Florida, which further limits generalizability. On the positive side, the only other data set on this subject came from the northern United States, and the current dataset will give a picture of southern United States. Another weakness is the lack of survey tracking. There were no identifying characteristics on the survey, such as names or numbers, and therefore it was not possible to follow up with officers. However, because this topic is extremely sensitive, the assurance of confidentiality was crucial.

Measures

The following variables were measured: Intimate Partner Violence, Burnout, Cynicism and Authoritarianism, as well as gender, race, age, and years on the force. The following section details the scales, and questions used to measure each of these variables. The instrument is included as Appendix A.

Dependent Variable: Intimate Partner Violence

The dependent variable for this study is police domestic violence. In order to ascertain the frequency of interpersonal violence, a revised version of one of the most widely used scales, the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2; Straus et al., 1996) was utilized. The CTS2 was developed to measure the extent to which partners in dating, cohabitating, or marital relationships engage in different forms of aggression, and to examine the reasoning and negotiation tactics used in a conflict (Straus et al., 1996). The CTS2 is the second version of the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS), which was developed in response to recommendations and critiques to enhance the CTS (Connelly et al., 2005; Newton et al., 2001). The CTS2 has been updated and improved to include a simplified format, new scales and improved items (Straus et al., 1996).

The CTS2 has 5 subscales—Negotiation, Psychological Aggression, Physical Assault, Sexual Coercion, and Injury. Each subscale is scored independently, and therefore it is possible to choose which subscales to use (Straus et al., 1996). The Psychological Aggression and Physical Assault scales were used in this study. The Psychological Aggression scale measures types of verbal and nonverbal aggressive acts towards one's partner (Straus et al., 1996). This scale references 8 behaviors including "Insulted or swore at partner" and "Destroyed something of partners," and has a Cronbach's alpha of .79 in previous studies (Straus et al., 1996). The responses range

from “Never” to “More than 20 times” and reflect prevalence of each behavior over the officer’s lifetime. There has been little to no research conducted on psychological abuse within the law enforcement population, and so the inclusion of this measure in this study was important for advancing the study of police domestic violence. The Physical Assault scale measures types of physical violence by a partner (Straus et al., 1996). This scale references 12 behaviors including “Pushed or shoved partner” and “Used knife or gun on partner,” and has a Cronbach’s alpha of .86 in previous studies (Straus et al., 1996). This measure of domestic violence provides more detail than a single question—because it inquires about a range of behaviors; such a measure has not been used in previous studies. Due to the sensitive nature of the subject, and the population being studied, the sub-scale Sexual Coercion was not chosen because the questions in this scale may more highly affect the willingness of officers to respond as compared to the other two scales included. The Negotiation sub-scale, which measures emotions towards one’s partner (such as caring), was not used because it is not directly relevant to the current study. Also, the Injury sub-scale was not used because it measures the actual types of injuries that have been inflicted on the partner, such as bone or tissue damage, which is not relevant to the objectives of this study.

Straus et al. (1996) performed the preliminary psychometric analyses for the CTS2. The alpha reliability coefficients show all of the scales have good internal consistencies. The coefficients ranged from .79 to .95 and are as high as or higher than the coefficients reported for the original CTS (Straus et al., 1996). Also, preliminary evidence has been found for construct and discriminant validity. The correlation between the Psychological Aggression and Physical Assault scales was assessed to test construct validity. The correlations were high ranging from .67 to .71, which contributed to the

validity of the CTS2 (Straus et al., 1996). By assessing correlations of scales for which there is no theoretical basis to expect correlation, Straus et al. (1996) were able to show evidence of discriminant validity. Straus et al. (1996) argued that because the CTS2 is fundamentally the same as the original version of the CTS, the evidence of the reliability and validity might be applied to the CTS2.

Some additional studies have been conducted on the psychometric properties of the CTS2 since the early work of Straus et al. (1996). Newton et al. (2001) found results similar to that of Straus et al. concerning factor validity using a sample of high-risk postpartum women. Straus (2004) published the first study on the cross-cultural reliability and validity of the CTS2. His results included high alpha coefficients of internal consistency as well as construct validity, which was present in at least two of the five sub-scales. These results are adequate to promote use of the CTS2 in a variety of settings and populations (Straus, 2004). Connelly et al. (2005) also examined the psychometric properties of the CTS2. They found acceptable internal consistency of the total scale, which included all five sub-scales, with alphas ranging from .70 to .84, although the subscale scores ranged from .46 to .80, which is slightly different from the original findings, yet still satisfactory. Each of these studies indicates that the psychometric properties of the CTS2 are satisfactory.

As described above, the CTS2 was utilized to measure the dependent variable Domestic Violence. This instrument asked the participants to indicate the number of times over their lifetime they have engaged in listed behaviors. After the participants chose a response category, the CTS2 was then scored by adding the midpoints of the response categories for each item chosen by the participant (Straus et. al., 1996). There are a total of 7 response categories and the midpoints for each response category are as

follows: Category 0 is 0, Category 1 is 1, Category 2 is 2 Category 3 (3-5 times) is 4, Category 4 (6-10 times) is 8, Category 5 (11-20 times) is 15, and Category 6 (20 or more) is 25 (Straus et. al., 1996). The CTS2 produced two scores for each participant concerning domestic violence, one for Psychological Aggression and one for Physical Assault. The score for Psychological Aggression was the result of 8 midpoints added together. Higher scores represented a higher incidence of psychological domestic violence. Physical Assault was dichotomized and coded 0 and 1. Officers that responded to not engaging in some form of physical domestic violence were given a zero, and one was given to officers that admitted to engaging in some form of physical violence.

Independent Variables

The independent variables for the study include burnout, authoritarianism, cynicism and various demographic variables—each of which is discussed below.

Burnout

To measure the independent variable burnout, a popular and widely used scale was employed (Richardsen and Martinussen, 2004)—the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach and Jackson, 1981). The MBI was developed out of a need for an instrument that evaluated burnout in a wide range of human service professions. With this outcome measure, researchers can understand the dimensions—personal, social, or institutional—that may elevate or diminish burnout (Maslach and Jackson, 1981).

Maslach and Jackson (1981) modeled the MBI after the Hassles Scale (Lazarus and Cohen, 1977), in which each statement is rated on two separate dimensions—frequency and intensity. Frequency has seven response categories ranging from “Never” to “Everyday” (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Intensity also has seven response categories ranging from “Very mild, barely noticeable” to “Very strong, major” (Maslach and

Jackson, 1981). If the frequency of a question is “Never,” there will be no answer for intensity.

The MBI initially used a four-factor solution for the 25-item factor analysis; three of the factors had eigenvalues greater than one, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal achievement, and those are considered the three subscales of the MBI (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). The fourth item, involvement with people, did not have an eigenvalue greater than one and therefore became an optional sub-scale on the MBI (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). The Emotional Exhaustion scale consists of nine items; it describes feeling emotionally overextended by one’s work as well as exhausted (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). This scale includes items such as “I feel burned out from my work” and “I feel frustrated by my job,” and has a Cronbach’s alpha of .89 for frequency and .86 for intensity in previous studies (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Higher mean scores on the Emotional Exhaustion subscale correspond to higher degrees of burnout. The Depersonalization scale describes unfeeling and impersonal responses towards recipients of one’s service (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). This is a 5-item scale including “I’ve become more callous toward people since I took this job” and “I don’t really care what happens to some recipients.” It has a Cronbach’s alpha of .77 for frequency and .72 for intensity in previous studies (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). The Personal Accomplishment scale describes feelings of successful achievement in one’s work (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). The Personal Accomplishment scale consists of eight items and includes statements such as “I feel I’m positively influencing other people’s lives through my work,” and “I feel exhilarated after working closely with my recipients,” and has a Cronbach’s alpha of .74 for frequency and .74 for intensity in previous studies (Maslach and Jackson, 1981).

In this study, only Emotional Exhaustion was used; because each scale is scored individually it is possible to do this. The Emotional Exhaustion scale measures items that are closest to the desired construct, burnout. This scale has the highest Cronbach's Alpha of all the scales and the individual factor loadings are the highest of the three scales, with values ranging from .54 to .84 (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). This scale includes the item with the highest factor loading (.84 for frequency and .81 for intensity), "I feel burnout out from my work," which refers directly to burnout. Due to the population being used in this study, to promote a higher response rate, it is important to keep the number of questions low; the Depersonalization and Personal Achievement scales would add too many questions that are not sufficiently related to the desired construct.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) completed the preliminary psychometric analyses. Concerning reliability, the internal consistency of the total 25-item scale was an alpha of .83 for frequency and .84 for intensity. For the sub-scale Emotional Exhaustion, the coefficient was .74 for frequency and .68 for intensity. The convergent validity was demonstrated in three ways. The MBI scores were correlated with: 1) a behavior rating, 2) the presence of job characteristics expected to contribute to burnout, and 3) the various outcomes hypothesized to be related to burnout. All three correlations provided ample evidence of the construct validity of the MBI (Jackson and Maslach, 1981). The discriminant validity was established by distinguishing the measures of the MBI from other psychological constructs that may be related to burnout. Maslach and Jackson (1981) found less than 6% of the variance was accounted for by these correlations, and therefore the notion that burnout is simply a synonym for job dissatisfaction can be rejected. Maslach and Jackson (1986) reported high test-retest reliability.

Other researchers have tested the reliability and validity of the MBI as well. Schaufeli et al. (1996) investigated the internal consistency, the factor validity, and the discriminant validity of the MBI. They found the internal consistency of the three sub-scales to be relatively high. Also, Schaufeli et al. (1996) found the three-factor model fits relatively well compared to other models, such as the original four-factor model. The authors found the MBI to be a valid and reliable self-report scale in assessing burnout (Schaufeli et. al., 1996). Another study by Bakker et al. (2002) assessed the factorial validity of the MBI. Using eight different occupational groups recruited through the Internet, they found the three-factor model to be favored. Richardsen and Martinussen (2004) also tested the factorial validity using human service workers. They found the original three-factor model of the MBI fit reasonably well with the data. They also found all internal consistencies at or above .70. Each of these studies has shown the MBI is a reliable and valid scale to measure burnout.

The Emotional Exhaustion scale rates each statement on two dimensions, frequency and intensity (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Frequency was measured on a range from 1 (a few times a year or less) to 6 (everyday), if the respondent indicated that the emotion, feeling or behavior never happened a value of zero was given. Intensity was measured on a range from 1 (very mild, barely noticeable) to 7 (major, very strong); if the frequency was zero, then intensity was zero as well. After the participant choose a response category for each item, the mean of the items in the sub-scale Emotional Exhaustion was computed separately for frequency and intensity (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). This scale produced nine item responses, which were added to create a mean for frequency and for intensity. This measure was eventually reduced to one measure, yielding only one score per person. The intensity scale was not used during the analysis

of the Emotional Exhaustion scale; only the frequency scale was utilized. Higher means referred to higher levels of burnout.

Authoritarianism

For this study, a measure known as Authoritarian Spillover was used to measure characteristics of the authoritarian personality in law enforcement personnel. This measure was used in a previous study on police domestic violence called "Violence in Police Families: Work Family Spillover" (Johnson et. al., 2005) and is arguably the best measure available to study authoritarianism in police officers. Authoritarianism Spillover is the inability to leave the job at work and includes treating the family as citizens, being overly fault-finding, and doing things by the book (Johnson et. al., 2005). The Authoritarianism Spillover scale is a 6-item Likert-type scale with seven points ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." It includes items such as "I can't shake the feeling of being a police officer when at home" and "I catch myself treating my family the way I treat civilians." This scale was chosen because it was used in one of the few police domestic violence studies and produced a Cronbach's alpha of .74 in a previous study (Johnson et. al., 2005).

There is no other measure of police authoritarianism referenced in the literature. The instrument selected has shown preliminary reliability and validity in the study it was previously used in (Johnson et. al., 2005), but it was only used one time prior. This is a known weakness of the current study.

In the Authoritarian Spillover scale respondents indicated the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with statements about authoritarian behavior and attitudes (Johnson et. al., 2005). This is a 6-item additive scale with response options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). After the respondent chose a response

category, each of the 6 item responses were added together, yielding one score per participant. Higher scores indicated higher authoritarian behaviors and attitudes.

Cynicism

There is no scale measuring cynicism that has been extensively used and validated; for the purposes of this study a contemporary scale, which is relevant to the current study, was employed. This scale was used in research conducted by Cochran and Bromley (2003); these researchers assessed the traditional police sub-culture, and included cynicism as a measure. Some preliminary assessments have shown the scale that they used to be reliable and valid, and therefore is the best option available to measure this construct.

Cynicism is defined as being highly suspicious of citizens, having an "us versus them" attitude, and "maintaining an edge" that prevents society from slipping into decay and unrest (Cochran and Bromley, 2003). The Cynicism scale is a nine-item Likert-type scale with five points ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." This scale includes items such as "Most people are untrustworthy and dishonest" and "Most people lie when answering questions posed by law enforcement officers." The Cynicism scale in Cochran and Bromley's (2003) study had a Cronbach's alpha of .83 and its individual factor loadings range from .49 to .73. One weakness of this scale is that it has not been fully validated; but, because it is relevant to the current study and its measures are most like the desired construct, it is the best option available.

Cochran and Bromley's (2003) Cynicism Scale asked each participant the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with statements about cynical perceptions of the public (Cochran and Bromley, 2003). This was a 9-item additive scale, measured on a range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). After the respondent chose a response

category, each of the 9 item responses were added together, yielding one score per person. After reverse coding questions 2, 5 and 8, high values demonstrate cynical attitudes toward the public.

Demographic Variables

There are four demographic variables of interest—gender, race/ethnicity, age, and years of law enforcement experience. Gender was measured using the question "What is your gender?" with the response choices male and female. Males were coded as 0 and females were coded as 1. Race and ethnicity were measured using response options that match the U.S. Census. Response options to the question, "What is your race?" are White, Black/African American, Asian/Pacific Islander, Native American/Eskimo/Aleut, and Middle Eastern/East Indian. Whites were coded as 0, Black/African Americans were coded as 1, Asian/Pacific Islanders were coded as 2, Native American/Eskimo/Aleuts were coded as 3, and Middle Eastern/East Indians were coded as 4. "Are you Hispanic/Latino?" has response choices of yes and no. These responses were coded as 0 for no and 1 for yes. Age and Years of Law Enforcement Experience were measured by asking respondents to fill in their actual age and the number of years they have been involved in law enforcement.

In the next chapter, the analyses and results are described.

Chapter Four

Analyses and Results

As discussed above the research questions for the current study are:

1) Are officers who adhere to the components of traditional police sub-culture more likely to engage in domestic violence?
2) Does gender moderate the influence of traditional police sub-culture on police domestic violence?

This chapter discusses the results of the analysis for the first question. The second question could not be answered, but a gender profile will reveal the differences among males and females at a bivariate level. The descriptive statistics are discussed first, followed by presentations of the bivariate and multivariate regression results.

Descriptive Statistics

The variables were first examined at a univariate level. Basic descriptive level statistics such as mean, mode, and standard deviation were produced to gain a better understanding of the sample as a whole. Table 1 provides the means, medians, modes and standard deviations for the independent variables, control variables, and dependent variables. The sample as a whole was 83.3 percent male, 96.7 percent Caucasian, and only 12.2 percent Latino. The mean age of officers was 36.8 years, and the mean number of years within law enforcement was 11.7 years.

Physical domestic violence and psychological domestic violence were analyzed separately. Over 87 percent of officers reported never having engaged in physical

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Dependent, Independent, and Control Variables (N=90)

Variable	Mean (S.D.)	Percent	Range Min.	Max.
Psychological DV	24.6 (31.60)		0	159
Physical DV				
Yes		12.2		
No		87.8		
Gender				
Male		83.3		
Female		16.7		
Race				
White		96.7		
Nonwhite		3.3		
Latino				
Yes		12.2		
No		87.8		
Age	36.79 (9.69)		22	69
Years in L.E.	11.68 (9.28)		1	39
Emotional Exhaustion	1.33 (1.08)		0	5.11
Authoritarianism Score	19.22 (7.00)		0	39
Cynicism Score	24.57 (7.07)		0	44

domestic violence in their lifetime. The average number of times officers reported having engaged in psychological domestic violence within their lifetime was 24.6 times.

The mean score of the Emotional Exhaustion frequency scale was 1.33, with a range from 0 to 5.11. For the Cynicism scale, the mean score was 24.6, with a range from 0 to 44. Last, the mean score for the Authoritarianism scale was 19.2, with a range from 0 to 39.

Bivariate Analysis

In order to determine the internal consistency of each scale, bivariate correlations were examined. Bivariate correlations estimate the direction and strength of the relationship between variables. These Bivariate correlations have a range from –1.00 indicating a perfect inverse association, to +1.00, indicating a perfect direct association. If the correlation is equal to zero then the variables are unrelated. Cronbach's alphas were determined to make sure that each item on the scale was measuring the same thing. Inter-Item Correlation Matrices for the three scales are provided in Tables 2 through 4.

Table 2: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix for Authoritarianism Scale

Variable	AUTHbook	AUTHcondition	AUTHshake	AUTHcritical	AUTHholdbev	AUTHtreatciv
I like to do things by the book at home.						
My job conditioned me to expect to have the final say on how things are done in my household	.116					
I can't shake the feeling of being a police officer when at home.	.130	.521				
I have become overly critical at home due to the police job	.050	.577	.630			
I hold my family's behavior to a high standard because I am a police officer	.111	.239	.313	.361		
I catch myself treating my family the way I treat civilians	.072	.488	.428	.574	.363	

Cronbach's alpha = .744, N = 89, N of items = 6

The Authoritarianism scale produced a Cronbach's alpha of .744, which is the same alpha produced in the previous study by Johnson et. al. (2005). This alpha indicates a relatively high level of internal consistency within this scale. The Cynicism Scale produced a Cronbach's alpha of .857. This alpha is slightly higher than Cochran and Bromley's

(2003) alpha of .83. The Cronbach's alpha signifies a high level of internal consistency within this scale.

Table 3: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix for Cynicism Scale

Variable	CNYlie	CNYhelp	CNYtrust	CNYsteal	CNYrespect	CNYlack	CNYletrust	CNYopen	CNYcitztrust
Most people lie when answering questions posed by law enforcement officers.									
Most people do not hesitate to go out of their way to help someone in trouble	.363								
Most people are untrustworthy and dishonest	.393	.337							
Most people would steal if they knew they would not get caught	.482	.377	.382						
Most people respect the authority of law enforcement officers.	.233	.339	.229	.407					
Most people lack the proper level of respect for law enforcement officers	.441	.392	.351	.586	.632				
Law enforcement officers will never trust citizens enough to work together effectively	.315	.247	.681	.196	.186	.267			
Most citizens are open to the opinions and suggestions of law enforcement officers	.285	.366	.493	.286	.357	.407	.540		
Citizens will not trust law Law enforcement officers enough to work together effectively	.588	.512	.397	.707	.385	.536	.277	.540	

Cronbach's alpha = .857, N = 88, N of items = 9

The Emotional Exhaustion scale produced a Cronbach's alpha of .893. This alpha is the same as the Cronbach's alpha produced in Jackson and Maslach's study (1982).

This alpha indicates a high level of internal consistency among the items in the scale. Each of the three scales has shown a high level of internal consistency indicating that the items on each scale are measuring the construct. The alphas of each scale are also consistent with each of the previous studies, affirming the reliability of these scales.

Table 4: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix for Emotional Exhaustion Scale

Variable	BRNemotion	BRNused	BRNfatigue	BRNstrain	BRNburnout	BRNfrustrate	BRNhard	BRNpeople	BRNrope
I feel emotionally drained from work									
I feel used up at the end of the day	.788								
I feel Fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day	.621	.713	.						
Working with people All day Is really A strain for me	.529	.528	.561						
I feel burned out from my job	.568	.460	.568	.594					
I feel frustrated by my job	.552	.601	.570	.523	.689				
I feel I'm Working too hard on my job	339	.265	.310	.314	.508	.482			
Working with people Directly puts. too much stress on me	.526	.469	.378	.511	.543	.402	.240		
I feel like I'm at the end of my rope	.445	.383	.383	.545	.623	.399	.246	.637	

Cronbach's alpha = .893, N = 89, N of items = 9

Table 5 examines the bivariate relationships between the dependent variables in order to assess the relationship between psychological domestic violence and physical domestic violence. As shown in Table 5, these constructs were moderately related to one another. Despite this positive, significant relationship, the correlation also suggests there is only modest overlap between the two dependent variables. This, in turn, suggests each dependent variable should be assessed independently.

Table 5: Bivariate Correlation of Physical and Psychological Domestic Violence (N = 90)

Variable	Physical Domestic Violence Scale
Psychological Domestic Violence Scale	.301**

**p< 0.01

Bivariate correlations were also utilized to examine the relationship between psychological domestic violence and the three independent variable scales, as well as the control variables (See Table 6). Pearson correlations show that two of the independent variables, Burnout and Authoritarianism, were significantly correlated with psychological domestic violence. The Pearson correlation for Burnout and psychological domestic violence was 0.327, which was significant at the .01 level. This indicates a positive, moderate relationship between the two variables, suggesting that as Burnout increases so to does psychological domestic violence. The Pearson correlation for Authoritarianism and psychological domestic violence was 0.415, which was significant at the .01 level. This specifies a positive, moderate relationship between the two variables signifying that as Authoritarianism increases so does psychological domestic violence. The relationship of Authoritarianism to psychological domestic violence had the strongest relationship of any of the other variables to psychological domestic violence. The Pearson correlation for psychological domestic violence and Cynicism was 0.039, which was not significant.

Cynicism was the only independent variable that was not significantly related to psychological domestic violence. There was no statistically significant relationship between any of the control variables and psychological domestic violence.

All three of the independent variables were significantly related to one another. The Pearson correlation for Emotional Exhaustion and Authoritarianism was 0.348, which was statistically significant at the .01 level. This suggests a moderate, positive relationship between the two variables; as Emotional Exhaustion increases Authoritarianism increases. The Pearson correlation for Emotional Exhaustion and Cynicism was 0.313, which was also significant at the .01 level. This is a positive moderate relationship indicating as Emotional Exhaustion increases so does Cynicism. The Pearson correlation for Authoritarianism and Cynicism was 0.301, also significant at the .01 level. The coefficient designates a positive moderate relationship in which the increase of Authoritarianism is associated with an increase in Cynicism.

Some of the control variables were also significantly related to one another. The Pearson correlation coefficient for Latino and gender was .288; this is statistically significant at the .01 level. This relationship is a moderately positive relationship signifying that more females report being Latino. Age was significantly related to Cynicism at the .05 level. The Pearson coefficient was –0.298. This suggests a moderate negative relationship, indicating as an officer's age increases Cynicism decreases. The number of years in law enforcement was also significantly related to Cynicism at the .05 level. The Pearson correlation was –0.260. This is a moderate negative relationship signifying that, as the number of years in law enforcement increases, Cynicism decreases. Age was statistically significant at the .05 level, with Latino. The Pearson correlation was –0.238 indicating a moderate negative relationship; older officers in the sample were less

likely to be Latino. The number of years in law enforcement was also significantly related to Latino at the .05 level. The Pearson coefficient was –0.265 suggesting a negatively moderate relationship; officers with more years in law enforcement were less likely to be Latino. The last significant relationship was age and years in law enforcement. The Pearson correlation was 0.862, which was significant at the .01 level indicating a strong positive relationship. The older officers had more years of experience in law enforcement.

Bivariate correlations were also used to examine the relationships between physical domestic violence and the three independent variables, as well as the control variables. Pearson correlations reveal none of the three scales, nor the control variables, were significantly related to physical domestic violence.

Table 6: Bivariate Correlations of Psychological Domestic Violence Relationships

Variable	Psychological Domestic Violence	Emotional Exhaustion	Authoritarianism	Cynicism	Gender	Race	Latino	Age	Years in L.E.
Psychological Domestic Violence									
Emotional Exhaustion	.327**								
Authoritarianism	.415**	.348**							
Cynicism	.039	.313**	.301**						
Gender	-.076	.062	-.066	.087					
Race	.075	-.093	-.033	.026	-.057				
Latino	-.153	-.151	-.066	.081	.288**	.273**			
Age	.112	-.007	.041	-.298*	.013	-.133	-.238*		
Years in Law Enforcement	.103	-.044	.032	-.260*	-.056	-.116	-.265*	.862**	

**p< 01, *p< .05, N=90

Multivariate Analyses

Two types of analyses were employed to examine the effects of traditional police culture on domestic violence, Tobit Regression and Logistic Regression. Tobit regression

was used to examine the impact of traditional police culture on psychological violence. In criminology we deal with variables that are not always fully observed; they may contain a lot of zeros. By dichotomizing these variables we may lose valuable information. In order to avoid this problem, alternative models may be used that incorporate the censored nature of the variable, such as the Tobit Model. Tobit regression coefficients are interpreted similarly to OLS regression coefficients. Logistic regression, which is used to examine relationships of dichotomous outcome variables, was used to examine the influence of traditional police culture on physical violence. Because so few of the respondents reported physical domestic violence, the variable was dichotomized.

Table 7 represents the Tobit analysis of psychological domestic violence and its relationship with traditional police culture. The model as a whole was statistically significant (chi square = 23.52, df = 6, $p<0.01$, Pseudo R2 = 0.0297). Of the six covariates included in the analysis, only two were significant, including the Emotional Exhaustion frequency scale and the Authoritarianism scale. Emotional Exhaustion had a t = 2.04, std. error = 3.38, and beta = .211, indicating a statistically significant relationship with psychological domestic violence at the .05 level. The standardized coefficient indicates a moderate positive relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and psychological domestic violence. The positive coefficient suggests that, as officers' scores increase on the emotional exhaustion scale, they indicate a higher frequency of engaging in psychological domestic violence. Authoritarianism had a t = 3.41, std. error = .520, and beta = .353, indicating a statistically significant relationship with psychological domestic violence at the .01 level. The standardized coefficient signifies a moderate positive relationship between Authoritarianism and psychological domestic violence. The

relationship between Authoritarianism and psychological domestic violence is slightly stronger and, in fact, is the strongest relationship of all pairs of variables. The positive coefficient indicates that, as officers increase on the Authoritarianism scale, they report a higher frequency of engaging in psychological domestic violence. None of the control variables—gender, age, Hispanic, and years in law enforcement—were significant. Race and Cynicism were left out of the analysis because their bivariate relationships showed no statistical significance.

Table 7: Tobit Regression Results for Psychological Domestic Violence, Traditional Police Culture, and Control Variables

Variable	Coefficients	Standard Error	t	bStdXY
MBI Burnout Scale	6.89	3.38	2.04*	.211
Authoritarianism Scale	1.77	0.52	3.41**	.353
LE work	0.17	0.72	0.24	-.023
Gender	-2.18	9.33	-0.23	-.038
Age	0.18	0.69	0.27	.051
Hispanic	-4.10	11.02	-0.37	.045
	Chi-square (df)		23.52 (6)**	
	Pseudo R2		0.0297	
	Log Likelihood		-383.9861	

*p< .05, **p< .01, N=90

Table 8 illustrates the results from the second analysis, Logistic regression, which was employed to examine the relationship between physical domestic violence and traditional police culture. The model as a whole was not significant (-2LL = 61.680, chi square = 5.16, df = 8, p>0.01). None of the individual covariates were significant, including the traditional police culture scales, and each of the control variables. Overall, the multivariate results suggest that officers who adhere to the components of the traditional police culture have a higher frequency of psychological domestic violence

than officers who do not adhere to the traditional culture. The results, also suggest there is no relationship between physical domestic violence and the traditional police culture within this sample.

Table 8: Logistic Regression Results for Physical Domestic Violence, Traditional Police Culture and Control Variables

Variable	B	Wald	Exp(B)
MBI Burnout Scale	0.341	1.110	1.406
Authoritarianism Scale	-0.011	0.048	0.989
Cynicism Scale	0.052	0.858	1.053
Gender	-0.226	0.057	0.798
Race	-16.029	0.000	0.000
Hispanic	1.040	0.991	2.836
Age	-0.054	0.507	0.947
LE work	0.780	1.022	1.081
	Chi-square (df)	5.160 (8)	
	-2 Log Likelihood	61.680	
	Nagelkerke R2	0.106	

*p< .05, **p< .01, N=90

As previously mentioned, one of the foci in the current study was to assess the potential moderating role of gender on the relationship between police domestic violence and aspects of traditional police culture. Unfortunately, because so few females completed the survey, in depth analysis was not possible. Nonetheless, using Crosstabulations, and an ANOVA, a gender profile was produced and the results are presented in Table 9. The male sample included both whites and nonwhites; all of the female subjects were white. Males officers were 96% white, 2.7% African American,

and 1.3% other. Of the male officers, 8% reported being Latino; 33.3% of the female responses reported being Latino. The male officer sample reported yes to engaging in physical domestic violence at 12%. The female officer sample reported yes to engaging in physical domestic violence at 13.3%. The mean age for males was 36.73 years old, and females had a slightly higher mean age at 39.06 years. Males reported their years in law enforcement to be slightly higher than females; the male and female means were 11.91 years and 10.53 years, respectively. The average number of times males reported engaging in psychological domestic violence in their lifetime was about 26. Females reported engaging in psychological domestic violence about 19 times during their lifetime. Each of the traditional police culture scales had similar average findings for both males and females. The average score on the Authoritarianism scale for males was 19, and for females it was 18.2. For males, the average score on the Emotional Exhaustion scale was 1.31, and for females it was 1.48. The average scores on the Cynicism scale was 24.29 and 25.93 for males and females, respectively. Only one relationship was statistically significant; females were significantly more likely to be Latino.

Table 9: Relationships of Variables By Gender

Variable	Male % (n)	Male Mean (std.dv.)	Female % (n)	Female Mean (std.dv.)	F/Chi-square statistic
Race					0.62
White	96.0 (72)		100.0 (15)		
Non-white	2.7 (2)		0.0 (0)		
Missing	1.3 (1)		0.0 (0)		
Hispanic					7.48*
No	92.0 (69)		66.7 (10)		
Yes	8.0 (6)		33.3 (5)		
Age		36.73 (9.65)		39.06 (10.21)	.015
Years in L.E.		11.91 (9.41)		10.53 (8.79)	.277
Physical D.V.					0.02
No	88.0 (66)		86.7 (13)		
Yes	12.0 (6)		13.3 (2)		
Psychological D.V.		25.68 (32.60)		19.27 (26.37)	.512
Authoritarianism		19.43 (7.43)		18.20 (5.05)	.336
Emotional Exhaustion		1.30 (1.06)		1.48 (1.20)	.381
Cynicism		24.29 (7.53)		25.93 (3.92)	.670

*p< .05

Chapter Five

Conclusion and Discussion

First, this chapter will provide an overview of the results, and discuss the findings from the analysis section. The limitations of this project will be considered next, and a discussion of the policy implications of these findings will follow. Finally, future research goals will be provided.

Results

This study examined the aspects of the traditional police sub-culture and its effects on police involved domestic violence. The traditional police culture has been linked to a number of negative consequences in the policing profession, including but not limited to use of force on the job (Henkel et al., 1997; Kop and Euwema, 2001; Terrill et al., 2003), high work stress (Gershon, 2000; Jackson and Maslach, 1982; Roberts and Levenson, 2001), and burnout. Only a few studies have evaluated the effects of traditional police culture on the use of domestic violence within police families (Erwin et al., 2005; Johnson, 2000; Johnson et al., 2005; Sgambelluri, 2000), and to date only one study has assessed the moderating effects of gender on aspects of traditional police culture and police domestic violence (Johnson, 2000). Although there have been a few studies evaluating the effects of traditional police culture on police domestic violence, each of these studies has included no more than one aspect of traditional police sub-culture. This study is the first to examine the relationships between several aspects of traditional police culture and two types of domestic violence.

For this research data were collected from several police and sheriff's departments in the Tampa Bay area and a survey instrument was developed from existing measures. This study included three of the most common aspects of the traditional police sub-culture—burnout, authoritarianism, and cynicism—in order to build and expand upon the previous research and gain a better understanding of the factors that lead police officers to engage in domestic violence. Tobit and Logistic Regression were used to examine the relationships derived from the previous literature and answer the current research questions.

The first research question was, "Are officers who adhere to the components of traditional police sub-culture more likely to engage in domestic violence?" The results of the analyses partially supported traditional police culture's relationship with police domestic violence. In order to expand the literature two different types of domestic violence were examined psychological and physical violence. The results showed that two of the aspects of the traditional police sub-culture, burnout and authoritarianism, were significantly related to psychological domestic violence. As both burnout and authoritarianism increase, the frequency of engaging in psychological domestic violence increases. Cynicism was not significantly related to psychological domestic violence. On the other hand, physical domestic violence was not significantly related to any of the aspects of traditional police sub-culture. None of the control variables in this analysis had significant relationships with either type of domestic violence.

It is important to question why cynicism was the only aspect of traditional police culture that was not significantly related to psychological domestic violence. Kop and Euwema (2001) documented that as isolation, or cynicism, increased, officers felt more favorably toward using violence on the job. Although they documented a relationship

between cynicism and violence, the outcome was attitudes toward violence, and not the actual use of violence. Even though officers may have felt more favorable toward the use of violence that does not necessarily translate to engaging in more violence. It may be that cynicism toward the public just increases positive attitudes toward using violence and not the actual engagement in violence, and therefore does not have an effect on the actual level of violence officers have used throughout their lifetime.

Also, cynicism of the public creates an aura of suspicion and distrust. As other types of police cultures materialize and become popular, the fewer the number of officers who adhere to the traditional culture. It may be possible that officers who adhere to the traditional culture are gradually being influenced by other cultures such as community policing, and therefore they are slowly beginning to change their idea of what the policing job entails. One of the main goals of community policing is that officers and the public can work together; the we-versus-them attitude does not exist. As community policing becomes more popular, cynical attitudes may begin to dissipate. It is possible that pessimistic attitudes may slowly begin to disappear in order to not "rock the boat," but when officers are out on the job they still adhere to the other aspects of the traditional police culture, such as aggressive law enforcement tactics, which lead to high levels of burnout.

Authoritarianism was significantly related to psychological domestic violence. To combat the dangerous violence and hostility, officers who adhere to the traditional police culture tend to use aggressive law enforcement tactics. They also believe that their occupational description is ambiguous, and therefore they adopt a strictly crime-fighting attitude, and authoritarian personality. Terrill et al. (2003) established that officers who use coercive authority, which was the result of cultural alignment to traditional police

culture, are more likely to display higher levels of force, such as pushing and hitting. This previous study has shown that an increase in actual violence occurs when officers adhere to the aspect of authoritarianism. The current study has revealed that other types of violence also occur—psychological domestic violence—when officers adhere to the aspect of authoritarianism.

Burnout was also significantly related to psychological domestic violence. Jackson and Maslach (1982) have documented that people in helping professions, such as policing, experience unique stress. They internalize daily interactions that create higher levels of stress and lead to burnout. It has been shown that these greater levels of stress lead to all types of negative consequences such as displaying anger (Gershon, 2000; Jackson and Maslach, 1982; Roberts and Levenson, 2001), using negative coping outlets (Gershon, 2000), and poor marital outcomes. The findings from the current study are in line with these previous studies showing that burnout leads to negative consequences, in this case higher levels of psychological domestic violence.

None of the aspects of traditional police culture were significantly related to physical violence. This may be due to the small number of officers who admitted to engaging in physical violence. It also may be that culture has no effect on physical violence. These findings will be discussed more thoroughly in the future research section.

The second research question, "Does gender moderate the influence of traditional police sub-culture on police domestic violence?" could not be answered. The analysis of this question required a sufficiently large number of female respondents. Without a sufficient number of females, it would not be possible to the moderating influence of gender. Unfortunately, of the 90 total responses only about 16 percent of the sample was female respondents, and therefore this analysis was not possible. Although the originally

contemplated analysis was not possible, using Crosstabulations and ANOVA, a gender profile was created to determine if there were any significant differences between males and females. The only significant result was being Latino. Neither of the means on the dependent variables was statistically different, signifying that males and females engaged in similar levels of domestic violence. Also none of the traditional police culture scale means were significantly different from one another. This shows that males' and females' means were similar on each traditional police culture measure.

Limitations

Although the current study has resulted in some important findings, these results come with limitations. First and foremost the results of this study were distinctly different from previous studies. Earlier studies demonstrated that about 40 percent of their samples had been physically violent with their spouses (Johnson, 1991; Neidig et. al., 1992). The current study found that only 12 percent of the sample had been physically violent with their spouse. It is possible that this difference is due to the fact that previous studies used different questions to define physical violence. Also it may be that the composition of officers from these studies was different.

Psychological domestic violence was significantly related with two aspects of the traditional police culture. It is important to question why psychological domestic violence was significant and physical domestic violence was not. It may be that officers are more likely to be honest about psychological violence because to them it does not constitute actual violence; it does not involve leaving a mark on the other person.

An additional drawback of the current study was the analyses illustrated no significant relationships with any of the aspects of traditional police culture, or the control variables to physical domestic violence. Due to the nature of policing it is

extremely difficult to survey officers on sensitive subjects such as domestic violence, even when ensuring anonymity and confidentiality; this may lproduce a low level of reported domestic violence, which in turn precludes relationship testing.

Another possible explanation is that traditional police culture is not related at all to police officer domestic violence. It may be that those individuals that enter in to policing are inherently more likely to be authoritarian and cynical. People who are shy and quiet are probably not likely to enter into the police academy as often as those who are more assertive and authoritarian. Certain officers may be bringing these aspects of the traditional police culture with them to the job, and therefore, these aspects are previous personality characteristics, rather than aspects of a police culture, leading to a selection effect. Those that enter into the police profession and stay may have unique personality characteristics (Drew et. al., 2008).

Another possible explanation for physical domestic violence not being related to any aspects of the traditional police culture is that certain officers have been exposed to better coping mechanisms than other officers. Officers that use negative coping mechanisms such as drinking, gambling, or illicit drugs might be more likely to enter in to violence in the home because they are unable to cope with the stresses of the job. Officers who have been taught how to deal with stress in appropriate ways may be less likely to engage in violence at home or on the job. The current study did not take coping mechanisms into account and this may be an interesting avenue for future research.

Another limitation of the study was the operationalization of violence. The measure of violence was over the officers' lifetime. It is impossible to tell if the violence that was committed was while they were on the force, or before they were on the force. Also, the older a person is the more time they have had to engage in violence. The

amount of time with one's partner was not taken in to account. These issues affect the analysis of physical violence, and whether they occurred while on the force, and this may affect the relationship with traditional police culture.

The current study gave attention to the variable gender. Previous research has shown that female officers are more likely to engage in domestic violence than male officers (Gershon, 2000). One aim of this research was to examine more in depth the variable gender to better understand its role in police domestic violence. Unfortunately this was not possible due to the low number of responding females. The small number of female subjects may have been due in part to the sampling approach. The current study used a convenience sample to test the relationships among the variables. The final makeup of the sample may indicate why it may not be appropriate to assume that a convenience sample is satisfactory for the purposes of testing the relationships among these variables. The low number of female officers resulted in the inability to look at the gender variable in great depth. A better sampling approach may be a stratified sample in order to ensure enough female officers are included.

Even though the race variable was not of great interest, the same problems arose with race, as with gender. The sample was made up of almost entirely Caucasian officers, and few African American officers. It is important when studying relationships that the samples are as complete as possible. A stratified sample would seek to include specific groups including females and African Americans in order to generate a more representative sample.

Even though there are limitations to this research, important results were obtained. Significant relationships between psychological domestic violence and traditional police culture were revealed. The more an officer associates himself or herself

with the aspects of traditional police culture, the more likely her or she is to engage in psychological domestic violence. Yet, future research should be concerned with these limitations.

Policy Implications and Future Research

Traditional police culture is no longer as widespread as it once was, but it appears that those who adhere to this culture are at more risk for engaging in domestic violence than those officers who do not adhere to those cultures. In order to create effective responses to police domestic violence, departments must be aware if there is something—for instance, related to the profession—that is increasing officers' susceptibility to engage in violence at home. This research shows that traditional police sub-culture has an effect on police family violence. By understanding the sources of violence, agencies may be able to create training programs to help combat this violence before it starts, or programs to intervene once this violence has occurred. Police agencies already utilize pre-employment screening exams; by understanding the risk factors of domestic violence within policing, questions may be included on those exams that will uncover officers who may be at risk.

This research is only one of a few, and it is important that future research understand the limitations and the strengths—reducing the former and incorporating the latter. First a different sampling approach, such as a stratified sampling approach, needs to be implemented. In this approach members of a population are grouped together into relatively homogeneous subgroups before sampling. In this case the population of officers would be grouped into subgroups of individuals including males and females. In order to do this a list of departments would be collected to find out how many male and female officers there are in each department. This will help to determine how many

officers would need to be surveyed in order to obtain a decent response rate. Oversampling would then be used to ensure enough female officers responded.

The survey in the current study was a good representation of each of the three aspects of traditional police culture that were being examined. Also, the survey included two types of domestic violence instead of one, and even though the questions were particularly sensitive, they encompassed a complete range of behaviors that could occur in a violent relationship. Because of the null findings in the current study it may be useful to look at something other than culture. Usually specific types of people enter into the policing profession. People who are more aggressive may be more likely than someone who is very passive to become an officer. Future research should include measures of personality to understand whether this aggressiveness exists before a person enters the field of law enforcement or whether something within law enforcement brings that aggressiveness out. Measures of stress and coping mechanisms also need to be included. Stress may be the precursor to the violence. Stress may be causing authoritarianism and burnout leading to police domestic violence, which may be one explanation of their relationship. By removing traditional police culture measures and looking at other possible relationships, a better explanation of police domestic violence may emerge. The results in this study indicate that culture may have no effect on domestic violence, and therefore, future research should look in other directions.

In order to increase the total sample, more than one attempt to contact the officers needs to occur. In the current study, surveys were placed in the officers' mailboxes with a cover letter explaining the survey and asked the officer to send the survey back with the enclosed self addressed stamped envelope. This was the only attempt to contact the officer. Instead of a cross-sectional study, a longitudinal study may be better, in order to

determine exactly what is triggering police domestic violence. One possible method would be to survey officers when they enter the academy, again once they have been in the field for a few years, and then once more after they have been in law enforcement for awhile. By surveying the officers at different times in their career, researchers will be able to understand whether culture, personality, stress, or maybe even something else is having an effect on officers engaging in domestic violence. Though a longitudinal study will take a long time, it may be the only way to separate personality and selection effects, from something that may be occurring once the officers are on the job.

The current study used several different departments in Florida and was the first to use more than one department. Although it is not possible to know where each of the surveys came from, the attempt was made to get subjects from more than one department in order to expand the generalizability. Future research should try to expand the area of study in order to make the results more generalizable.

The current research is one of only a few studies that have examined the impact of traditional police culture on domestic violence. Subsequent studies will be needed to confirm or refute the results. Although the study revealed not all of the aspects of traditional police culture were significantly related to domestic violence, some important relationships were observed. These relationships will need to be studied further to confirm whether traditional police culture does have an impact on police domestic violence, or if it is something else altogether.

The public trusts the police to protect them; officers who engage in domestic violence undermine this trust and therefore undermine the job of all police officers. It is important to continue this research in order to fully understand the relationships that effect police domestic violence.

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Appendices

Appendix A
Cover Letter for Survey

Dear Law Enforcement Professional,

I request your assistance with a research project that I'm conducting in various law enforcement agencies in the region for my masters thesis in Criminology at USF. I would be pleased if you would fill out the attached survey. This study is examining how thoughts, attitudes, and feelings on the part of law enforcement officers/deputies impact on their behaviors

The survey—which is attached to this letter—will take you about 10 minutes to complete. Because there are some sensitive questions in the survey regarding your interactions with significant others in your life, our procedures ensure complete anonymity and confidentiality.

You will NOT put your name on this survey. Your answers cannot be linked to you personally because there are no identifiers on the survey.

I hope that you will complete this survey and return it to me in the self addressed stamped envelope included in this packet. There are no risks to you or your privacy if you decide to assist with this project by filling out this survey. If you are uncomfortable with any of the questions feel free not to answer them. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of South Florida has approved this study. If there are any questions or concerns I can be reached at lblumens@mail.usf.edu.

I hope you will take the time to complete and return this questionnaire. Your participation is voluntary and there is no penalty if you do not participate. If you have any questions or comments or you would like a copy of the results (which you may receive regardless of whether you choose to participate), I can be contacted at my email address. Thank you so much for your consideration of this request.

Sincerely,

Lindsey Blumenstein
University of South Florida
Department of Criminology
lblumens@mail.usf.edu

Appendix B:
Law Enforcement Survey

Thank you for participating in this study on Police Culture. Your responses will help us understand how the culture of policing affects experiences of law enforcement personnel. All responses are completely anonymous, and confidential. No personnel, or department will be linked to the responses in this survey.

I appreciate your contribution to this extremely important project.

Instructions:

Please read and follow the directions at the beginning at each section.

Thank you again.

For the following questions, please check the answer that best represents you.

1. What is your gender?

☐ Male ☐ Female

2. What is your race?

☐ White ☐ Black/African American ☐ Asian/Pacific Islander ☐ Native American/Eskimo/Aleut ☐ Middle Eastern/East Indian

3. Are you Hispanic/Latino?

☐ Yes ☐ No

For the following questions, please fill in the blank.

4. What is your age? _____

5. How many years have you been working in the field of law enforcement? _____

Appendix B: Law Enforcement Survey (Continued)
For each of the following statements, please indicate which answer best represents your position.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
6. Most people lie when answering questions posed by law enforcement officers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Most people do not hesitate to go out of their way to help someone in trouble.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Most people are untrustworthy and dishonest.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Most people would steal if they knew they would not get caught.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Most people respect the authority of law enforcement officers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Most people lack the proper level of respect for law enforcement officers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Law enforcement officers will never trust citizens enough to work together effectively.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Most citizens are open to the opinions and suggestions of law enforcement officers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Citizens will not trust law enforcement officers enough to work together effectively.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix B: Law Enforcement Survey (Continued)
For the following statements, please indicate which answer best represents your position.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neutral	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
15. I like to do things by the book at home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. My job conditioned me to expect to have the final say on how things are done in my household.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. I can't shake the feeling of being a police officer when at home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. I have become overly critical at home due to the police job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. I hold my family's behavior to a high standard because I am a police officer.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. I catch myself treating my family the way I treat civilians.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix B: Law Enforcement Survey (Continued)

Items 21-29 list feelings/attitudes that some law enforcement personnel experience as a result of their job. For each item, please indicate how frequently you feel this way, and how intense those feelings are. Please use the following scales to respond to items 21-29:

Frequency: 0 = never, 1 = a few times a year, 2 = monthly, 3 = a few times a month, 4 = every week, 5 = a few times a week, 6 = everyday

Intensity: 1 = very mild barely noticeable 2 3 4 = moderate 5 6 7 = very strong major

Note: If a statement has a frequency of zero, there is no need to check a box for intensity.

	Frequency							Intensity						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I feel emotionally drained from work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. I feel used up at the end of the day.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. I feel burned out from my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. I feel frustrated by my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix B: Law Enforcement Survey (Continued)

For the following statements, please check the box representing how many times over the span of your law enforcement career have done this to a spouse, girlfriend/boyfriend, or significant other.

	Never	1 time	2 times	3-5 times	6-10 times	11-20 times	More than 20 times
30. Insulted or swore at my partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. Shouted or yelled at my partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32. Stomped out of the room, house, or yard during an argument.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. Said something to spite my partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. Called my partner fat or ugly.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. Destroyed something belonging to my partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. Accused my partner of being a lousy lover.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. Threatened to hit or throw something at my partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38. Three something at my partner that could hurt.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. Twisted my partners' arm or hair	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. Pushed or shoved my partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
41. Grabbed my partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. Slapped my partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. Used a knife or gun on my partner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
44. Punched or hit my partner with something that could hurt.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. Slammed my partner against the wall.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
46. Beat up my partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
47. Burned or scalded my partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
48. Kicked my partner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐