

**Police Corruption and Misconduct from a Police Officer Perspective:  
from Identification to Discipline and Prevention**

By

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**Abstract**

Police officers possess differing opinions about forms of police misconduct and the best ways to discipline police officers who are corrupt. Some law enforcement officials believe that with the large amounts of discretionary power they are given, they are above the law. Through a secondary analysis of Carl Klockars police corruption dataset, results were presented to answer several hypotheses on police corruption, including how officers view it, and what the proper discipline should be for various corrupt practices. Contributions from this thesis will best be utilized to police departments who seek to improve the quality of their officers and other secondary personnel. Only through an understanding of the issues involved in police corruption can effective strategies be developed for the future success of law enforcement.

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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

*“America is a divided nation, and cops are perched perilously on the divide”*

(Skolnick and Fyfe, 1993, p. xv). Modern policing has evolved over time into today’s current standards. Long gone are the days of walking the beat for an officer with nothing but a call box, a baton, a gun, and his wit’s to keep him safe. Today’s officers are equipped with handguns, shotguns, knives, extra clips of ammunition, mace, batons, Tasers, flashlights, handcuffs, a police cruiser, and often times hundreds of hours of training and knowledge at their disposal to keep them safe as they perform their jobs. With all of this equipment and knowledge to safeguard the public, police officers still fall into the grip of corruption. Some officers make a series of poor decisions and are forever trapped in the never-ending cycle. Those that may escape negative behaviors will still find themselves surrounded by the officers who are corrupt. This not only provides a stressful workplace, but also brings into question the integrity of a profession that must have the highest moral standards. The all-important questions that arise from most available research on police misconduct are:



1. How do police officers feel about police corruption, and
2. What do officers think are the best ways to discipline police officers who are corrupt?

### **Figure 1**

#### **TERMS AND PHRASES ASSOCIATED WITH POLICE MISCONDUCT**

**Booming doors**—the practice of confiscating keys from drug dealers and then going to the location to steal drugs, guns, and money.

**Bribery**—payments of cash or gifts for past or future assistance to avoid prosecution; usually higher in value than “mooching”.

**Chiseling/badging in**—police demands for discounts or free admission whether on duty or not.

**Extortion**— “the offense committed by an officer who corruptly claims and takes as a fee, money, or other thing of value that is not due, or more than is due or before it is due” (Webster’s Online Dictionary, 2006, <http://www.websters-online-dictionary.org/definitions/extortion>) through the use of compulsion, force, or fear.

**Favoritism**—granting immunity from traffic arrest or citation or from a summons for minor offenses because of relationship to officer or because of display of window sticker or license plate emblem announcing membership to a police-friendly organization.

**Grass-eaters**—officers who take advantage of opportunities for graft that might arise but do not aggressively initiate them.

**Meat-eaters**—officers who aggressively seek opportunities for graft and other forms of misconduct.

**Mooching**—receiving free coffee, cigarettes, liquor, food, or other items either as a consequence of being in law enforcement occupation, or for future acts of favoritism that might be expected or received by the donor.

**Pad**—refers to a shadow organization (group) within the department that receives shares of regular bribe payments from citizens; amounts of share depend on rank.

**Racketeering**—“to carry on illegal business activities involving crime” often times including blackmail or extortion (Webster’s Online Dictionary, 2006, <http://www.websters-online-dictionary.org/definitions/racketeering>).

**Shakedown**—practice of appropriating expensive items for personal use from crime scenes (and may include money, gifts, or favors from citizens).

**Shopping**—practice of picking up small items (candy, food, etc.) at a store where the door has been accidentally left unlocked after business hours.

**Testilying**—the making of false arrests, tampering with evidence, and/or committing perjury on the witness stand.

(Conser & Russell, 2000, p. 505)

Many citizens equate police corruption with receiving bribes. While this is one form of corruption, officers today engage in several different immoral behaviors that essentially affect the performance of their duties (see Figure 1). For a profession anchored in moral principles; misrepresentation, dishonesty, and lying often creep into an officers daily duties, despite their pledge to keep the public protected from those that desire to cause harm. Even what would appear to be the most reputable source, a police detective with over 15 years of experience with the Los Angeles Police Department, is not immune from this disgrace. During the questioning of Mark Fuhrman in the O. J. Simpson murder trial, Fuhrman lied about using racial epithets within the past ten years. This form of “testilying” was especially important to the case as it was insinuated that Fuhrman had planted the bloody glove in an attempt to frame Simpson (The New York Times, 1995).

The challenge of professionalism in law enforcement lies with officers’ discretionary powers. “As anybody who has ever called a cop knows, police intervention is grounded in a round-the-clock capacity to take decisive action in handling all kinds of emergencies and to employ force where it is needed” (Skolnick & Fife, 1993, p. 10). This occupational deviance encompasses acts that could not have been utilized by anyone not actively working in the police occupation (Conser & Russell, 2000). While discretion

is not new to the world of policing, its abuse has been hypothesized to be the cause of police corruption within the last two decades. As recently as the early 1990s, police corruption was brought to the forefront of American attention by negative media publicity such as the Rodney King beating. Public esteem is considered to be a major asset to the law enforcement community in controlling crime and community support may be diminished if portrayed undesirably through the media. In March of 1991, there were major scandals for law enforcement, including the Rodney King beating. In the end, two Los Angeles police officers were found guilty of violating King's civil rights, and more than twenty other officers were singled out for watching the incident occur without doing anything to stop it – failure to act is often considered the worst violation of all (Skolnick & Fyfe, 1993). “Police brutality is like corruption – there may be some rotten apples, but usually the barrel itself is rotten” (Skolnick & Fyfe, 1993, p. 13).

At the opposite end of the country in the New York Police Department (NYPD), a major drug-related offense began to appear in mid-1992. “The Loser's Club” was a band of outlaw police officers led by Michael Dowd that were involved in wholesale drug racketeering. At the conclusion of the investigation, 101 police officers in the NYPD had been arrested for corrupt activities that took place in the course of a year. As if that incident was not enough of a ‘black eye’ for law enforcement, the nationally syndicated O. J. Simpson trial began in 1995, which encouraged a number of internal investigations concerning police officers who were accused of “testilying” (Conser & Russell, 2000).

Unfortunately, local police departments were not the only departments to undergo scrutiny. Federal law enforcement agencies such as the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) were discovered to contain widespread corruption. In 1995, the FBI was

scrutinized due to its participation in the Waco incident, and criticized heavily for the shooting of a Montana fugitives' wife and daughter. Allegations were made that the forensic experts from the crime lab habitually falsified crucial evidence and perjured themselves in court (Conser & Russell, 2000).

Nationally recognized crime can be disappointing, but when it occurs closer to home, the sensationalism tends to decrease and embarrassment sets in. Unfortunately, major departments such as NYPD and LAPD are not the only law enforcement agencies to partake in forms of corruption and crime. A former police captain in Akron, Ohio was found to have broken the law when he killed his ex-wife outside of her medical office. He was sentenced to life in prison. Even closer to our hometown of Youngstown, Ohio was an incident that occurred in Mahoning County. Six police officers from both the sheriff's department and other local departments were arraigned on charges ranging from theft in office, to complicity to commit theft, to dereliction of duty. Other law enforcement officials in Northeast Ohio were under investigation on charges of corruption as well (Conser & Russell, 2000). In 1999, the Mahoning County Sheriff, Philip A. Chance, was also charged with breaking the law (United States of America v. Philip A. Chance, 1999).

The list of examples of nationwide police corruption is nearly endless. The media has the potential to portray the negative image of police officers to the public in an attempt to create sensational news. What they do tend to generate, however, is a negative perception of law enforcement. When public support of police officers decreases, so does the faith in those officers. Without community cooperation, police levies may fail and assistance with neighborhood issues will likely go unresolved. Feelings of

despondency of community faith on the part of the officers may set in, and the once proud and honorable defenders of the law find themselves on the slippery slope of what is morally right and wrong. In other words, when police departments are not provided with positive support and reinforcement from the community, it makes it that much easier to succumb to the issues associated with a term called occupational deviance.

Occupational deviance encompasses acts that could not have been committed by anyone not actively working in the police occupation (Conser & Russell, 2000). Police officers perform an essential social function in society. With the purpose of promoting social tranquility and protecting the civil freedoms of the general public, law enforcement officials have been granted greater powers. Unfortunately, when police abuse those powers by engaging in deviant activities, they are one of the highest threats to freedom under a democratic system of government. This combination of factors added with police stressors, which will be discussed in Chapter 2, make occupational deviance easy, and even likely within ones career.

By first defining and understanding what makes the police profession different from other vocations, a more viable conclusion to the problem of misconduct can be rendered as research continues. The ultimate goal in the fight against police corruption will be to define how police officers view corruption, and to ascertain what the best form of discipline is against those who are corrupt. This research hopes to aid that goal by determining whether rank alters an officer's opinion and or punishment of corruption. The issues that will be resolved due to this research will be beneficial to many police departments. While the solutions afforded in this thesis may be an eye-opening experience for several in the law enforcement community, it may only provide a

guideline for others. Current budgetary issues surrounding local law enforcement may make it difficult to find the necessary time and effort into developing a life-long solution to police corruption for the success of these departments. However, for those willing to take the challenge to curb misconduct and corruption, the knowledge of understanding the in-depth issue of what plagues our men and women sworn to serve and protect will be well worth the outcome for future generations.

### Summary

In this chapter, the concept of police corruption in conjunction with occupational deviance was introduced. Several examples of various levels of police misconduct and corruption were also provided from the local, state, and national levels. In the next chapter, the stresses that law enforcement must endure will be presented in an effort to assist the reader in further comprehending why police often head down a path to corruption. In addition to this research, several hypotheses will be introduced for testing using the Klockars dataset (Klockars, 1999). By utilizing Klockars dataset as a secondary analysis of the data, a better approach as to how officers view types of misconduct and the ways to discipline those who are corrupt will be provided. From the analysis employed in this thesis, better insight on police corruption from the perspective of law enforcement personnel will be obtained.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

In Chapter One, the concept of police corruption in conjunction with occupational deviance was introduced. Various examples of police misconduct were provided in not only local police departments, but federal units as well. Police corruption is a negative aspect of policing, but, unfortunately is what appears to receive the most attention in today's media. This chapter will attempt to offer valuable insight as to why police corruption begins. In addition, Chapter Two will guide the research into Carl Klockars study in order to find answers as to how police officers view police corruption, and the ways to discipline those who are corrupt.

#### Reasons for Police Misconduct and Corruption

##### *Diminished Contentiousness*

Police officers are not above the law. Just like many other professions, they are capable of succumbing to the pressures placed on them by society. This variety of police crime not only involves the acceptance of bribes, but also includes the commission of

other serious offenses such as excessive violence, drug dealing, burglary, theft, harassment (to include sexual harassment as well) and rights violations of both suspects and fellow officers (Punch, 2000). Law enforcement officials have a long history of partaking in such examples, as illustrated in Chapter One.

“Corruption is to a certain extent endemic in police departments because of the attractive opportunities officers can face when deciding when and how to enforce the law” (Meares & Skogan, 2004, p. 74). Many researchers such as Bruce Arrigo and Natalie Claussen take the belief that both psychological and behavioral characteristics are to blame for people engaging in antisocial conduct. When applying these two characteristics in regards to law enforcement employment, their influences on how one performs their occupation can lead to a prediction of counterproductive work performance. Examples of antisocial qualities may include selfishness, impulsivity, disregard for the rights of others, unreliability, and a lack of conscience (Arrigo & Claussen, 2003).

According to Arrigo and Claussen, police officers that have a higher degree of conscientiousness will be better on-the-job performers. The concept of conscientiousness is directly related to the degree of organization, control, and motivation that an individual embraces in goal-directed behavior. Police officers who demonstrate higher levels of this have a tendency to be reliable, organized, detailed, and possess pronounced amounts of integrity. These traits fall as components of conscientiousness, and these correlate with how individuals allocate effort among resolutions and responsibilities. Likewise, employees possessing low amounts of conscientiousness are inclined to be lazy, careless, sloppy, and irresponsible. In law enforcement, the more conscientious the police officer,



the more valuable they will be to that department. This type of behavior is beneficial as the nature of police work requires an assortment of interactions with the public (2003).

### *Stress*

According to the authors, Stephen Brannen, Mark Chapin, and Mark Singer (2003):

“Since the Civil War, the U.S. Army has recognized that exposure to combat has stressful effects above and beyond physical injuries and disease. Whether the terms used are “melancholia” (Civil War), “shell shock” (World War I), “battle fatigue” (World War II), “combat stress” (Vietnam and after), or the current term “Combat/Operational Stress,” the U.S. Army recognized the traumatic effects of combat” (p. 340).

Police work encompasses similar stressors and can better be categorized as operational stress, which is a similar dynamic to the “combat stress” experienced by soldiers in battle (Brannen, Chapin, & Singer, 2008). While both professions have several differences, they both encompass a similar goal of protection against those that desire to cause harm.

Police stress can best be defined as an imbalance between what is required of police officers and what that officer is qualified to give under situations where failure may have catastrophic effects (Brannen, Chapin, & Singer, 2008). The top five stressors associated with police work are reported to be “(a) killing someone in the line of duty, (b) a fellow officer getting killed, (c) being physically attacked, (d) working with a battered child, and (e) high-speed chases” (Brannen, Chapin, & Singer, 2008, p. 339). While these appear to be understandable stressors, police officers do face other not-so-obvious sources of strain. Effects of administrative and bureaucratic stress, as well as stress from

unresolved conflicts between professional and family life add to the overload of problems that officers are challenged with. These issues can have a devastating effect as they have the potential to erode morale and resilience. Even routine police tasks, lack of communication, insufficient support from administration, shift work, incompatible partners, excessive paperwork, and negative public image can all be attributed to stress in the law enforcement profession and essentially descend into the realm of police corruption (Brannen, Chapin, & Singer, 2008).

The very nature of such a stressful profession breeds an unpredictable, oftentimes violent, and sometimes fatal daily work shift. The intrinsic dangers that are associated with the performance of duties, the possible threats with regard to the successful apprehension of criminals, and the authorization to utilize deadly force if necessary are examples of how police actions can develop into destructive, violent, and lethal outcomes. As a response to the daily stress officers are immersed in, they often times cultivate a very tightly knit and closed culture that embraces its own set of values and norms (Arrigo & Claussen, 2003). Within this culture, officers may sympathize with co-workers succumbing to the pressure of stress by crossing the line into corrupt and or immoral activities, and turn a blind eye to their occupational deviance. Unfortunately, this occupational alliance may breed deviant conformity.

#### *Lack of a College Education*

In 1918, in an effort to have a more knowledgeable police department, August Vollmer recognized the need to “hire college students as part-time police officers in order to obtain more intelligent and better educated officers” (Decker & Huckabee, 2002, p. 790). Throughout the decades the roles of law enforcement officials have become

incredibly complex. Such factors influencing this complexity are the increased crime rate and changing demographics (Aamodt & Smith, 1997). With so many changes, police departments were constantly trying to find ways to keep a positive public image of their officers as they attempted to discover innovative ways to best handle society's problems. In answer to the public criticisms, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice considered the possibility of requiring police officers to have a college degree. Their belief was that possessing a baccalaureate degree would enhance an officers' job performance (Aamodt & Smith, 1997). Although a lack of education is not synonymous with an officer eventually resorting to corruption, there is merit to the idea that possessing a college education is the key to being a successful police officer. College education assists the officer in understanding more solutions to a problem as they were exposed to such logical thinking during their college career (Aamodt & Smith, 1997). Comprehension of such assignments allows the officer to stay on task and not be plagued by the negativities associated with police corruption. College educated police officers possessing a degree also tend to be more flexible, less authoritarian, and less rigid in their beliefs. Aamodt and Smith further stated that degreed officers were better communicators than those without degrees, and they were more positive about community oriented policing. The capability to think independently, possessing a larger knowledge base, and having increased self-confidence are qualities enhanced by a college education. In addition, Aamodt and Smith found there is a negative correlation between education and discipline problems as well as positive parallels between education and patrol performance and critical thinking abilities (Aamodt & Smith, 1997). For these educated law enforcement officials, police corruption may not be considered a norm in

their daily duties to serve and protect. A better education of the difficulties and stresses surrounding police work can assist the officer in approaching solutions to combatting police corruption.

### *War Story Value Shift*

Police officers embrace a set of informal values and attitudes. Two ways that officers possess said values in policing is by bringing them to the occupation, and, secondly, learning them on the job. Most law enforcement candidates enter the field of policing with positive values, with a notion of being able to help people, and, in turn, making a difference. Unfortunately, it only takes a brief interaction in this occupation before attitudes and values begin to experience considerable change and quickly veer away from the general attitude of society. As early as the police academy, these subtle changes begin a shift in values (Ford, 2003). Oftentimes by the end of the officers' rookie year their values are altered. Ford attributes this shift to one possible vehicle of cultural transmission—"war stories" (Ford, 2003, p. 86).

War stories are the retelling "of idealized events, entertaining humor or police-related social commentary" (Ford, 2003, p. 86). It is usually presented during academy classes or during field training within a department to teach street skills (Ford, 2003). They convey a meaning celebrating police values and practices. They are referred to as war stories because they oftentimes relate to the physical side of policing. In short, these stories represent an overall range of appropriate behaviors that are acceptable in various situations. "Like biblical parables and legends police stories provide direction for being a police officer, guidance as to how officers should experience the world if they are to act as police officers within it" (Ford, 2003, p. 86). While war stories may appear to be a

valuable teaching tool, they have great potential to shift new officer's values toward the downfall of police misconduct.

The first factor involved in a shift of values occurs during the academy. This is where students are opened to peer pressure and group "norming". The academy limits the cadet's individual initiative and contributes to their uncertainty and insecurity. This practice is applied in order to leave the recruit open to new interpretations. The next factor involved in value shifting is born of the misconception cadets gather through media and movies. Officers glean from these stories that real policing happens like it does on television, full of exciting events where the police hero always triumphs over evil. This romanticized version of law enforcement is soon eradicated as early as the first few weeks of the academy. Instructors quickly alert young officers that what they will encounter in the real world is nothing like Hollywood (Ford, 2003).

As values continue to shift to a more realistic form of the profession, officers receive the message from field training officers that what they learned in the academy is useless, and they need to forget everything. This message of irrelevance further disquiets the young officers and their perception of the unimportance of formal training is replaced with the more significant values that informal training offers. Finally, the men and women teaching at the police academy are normally practitioners or retired officers. They, unfortunately, bring their profession-born cynicism and hostility to the classroom. This negativity habitually impacts the state-imposed curriculum. By doing this, the instructors undermine formal curriculum, and, unconsciously, ruminate their message through war stories. These war stories that subtly reject the formal message are called "black swans" (Ford, 2003, p. 88). By experiencing these inconsistent messages, new

officers become confused and even skeptical and wary in their quest to become a good police officer (Ford, 2003). Their muddled education of mixed messages may drive them towards viewing corruption and misconduct as acceptable behavior in order to survive. While these instructors may believe by relating war stories to the cadets and new recruits is doing them a service by apprising them of what they can expect on the mean streets, they instead will have a negative effect in confusing young officers, thus making it easier for them to succumb to damaging amounts of peer pressure and corruption.

### Theory

Knowing that police corruption has a deep-seeded history in America, it is not surprising that police officers today are not completely shed of the negativity that it continues to generate. The main difference between officers of the past and those of the present is the awareness of the problem. Great strides have been made to not only identify the problem of police corruption, but to study its progression further, and to provide solutions for curbing it. The occupational deviance associated with this profession often falls within the gray area between right and wrong. Because police officers utilize such a wide array of discretionary powers and have so many job stressors, the opportunity for deviance to occur is prevalent.

The goal of this research will be to determine how different ranks of police officers view police misconduct, and ways to discipline those who are corrupt by way of a secondary analysis conducted by Carl Klockars. Throughout this thesis, it is hoped that a more clear understanding of the perils that law enforcement confronts will be gained, and advancements can be made to reduce corruption associated with policing.

As research continues, so does the quest for finding answers that afflict American police departments. No one solution can be applied to resolve an issue that existed well before the conception of American policing. However, with a better awareness of the matter, police departments can progress forward into making the necessary changes towards the future success of their officers.

### Hypotheses

1. Police officers view police corruption in different degrees of seriousness.
2. The most serious type of police misconduct from the view of a police officer and from a Police Chief/Sheriff is the use of excessive force on a suspect or criminal.
3. Police officers feel that an appropriate discipline for another officer who steals merchandise during a burglary investigation should be dismissal.
4. Most police officers view working at an unauthorized private business/secondary employment as the least serious type of corruption, while Police Chiefs/Sheriffs view receiving gifts of food and alcohol from merchants on the holidays, also referred to as mooching, as the least serious type of corruption.

### Summary

In this chapter, several causes of police corruption were discussed including diminished conscientiousness, stress, lack of advanced education, and the use of war stories to

explain how young officers can begin the path towards corruption. Several hypotheses were also introduced in an attempt to present the next phase of this study. In the next chapter, Carl B. Klockars study on “Police Corruption in Thirty Agencies in the United States, 1997” will be presented as it provides a secondary analysis of his research that will strive to identify the relationship between police officer’s attitudes toward corruption. Klockars survey scenarios were placed into a third party hypothetical, which may have made it easier for officers to respond so truthfully to their own questionable behavior. Only through the analysis of Klockars research can a better clarification of the future of policing be ascertained in the United States.



## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODS**

In Chapter Two, several origins for corruption in law enforcement were discussed. These reasons, which included, but were not limited to, diminished conscientiousness, stress, lack of an advanced education, and the use of war stories, merely provided a better understanding of why police corruption begins. Several hypotheses for testing the difference that rank may make on assessing the severity of various types of misconduct were also introduced. Chapter 3 will include a description of the research design used in the thesis, why the Klockars dataset was selected, how the data was used to test the four hypotheses of this thesis, and how the data was analyzed.

#### Hypotheses Tested

1. Police officers view police corruption in different degrees of seriousness.
2. The most serious type of police misconduct from the view of a police officer and from a Police Chief/Sheriff is the use of excessive force on a suspect or criminal.

3. Police officers feel that an appropriate discipline for another officer who steals merchandise during a burglary investigation should be dismissal.

4. Most police officers view working at an unauthorized private business/secondary employment as the least serious type of corruption, while Police Chiefs/Sheriffs view receiving gifts of food and alcohol from merchants on the holidays, also referred to as mooching, as the least serious type of corruption.

### Research Design

The most important factor in a survey is to have a consistent definition of what is being measured. As defined by several sources, police corruption is “any illegal conduct or misconduct involving the use of occupational power for personal, group, or organizational gain” (Bruce and Sayed, 1998, p. 3). By placing a definition on this variable, it will be easier to determine a method to create accurate and unbiased data from which valid conclusions can be drawn.

Several hypotheses have been developed for testing and further research. Ultimately, the findings from this study are hoped to help guide future efforts to curtail police corruption. In order to address the hypotheses posed in this thesis, secondary data collected and analyzed from Carl Klockars’ study of police corruption retrieved from the National Archive of Criminal Justice Data (NACJD) will be used. The main focus of Klockars’ study was to examine the perceptions of and tolerance for corruption that police officers in the United States have. “The approach examined the way rules are

communicated to officers, how rules are enforced by supervisors, including sanctions for violation of ethical guidelines, the unspoken code against reporting the misconduct of a fellow officer, and the influence of public expectations about police behavior” (National Archive of Criminal Justice Data, <http://www.icpsr.umich.edu/icpsrweb/NACJD/>).

Supervisors, defined in this study as Police Chiefs/Sheriffs, are analyzed differently than police officers. As an administrative manager, it is oftentimes easy to forget the humble roots of a patrol officer/police officer because they have not done the work of an officer for a long time. However, ranks such as Recruit, Corporal, Lieutenant, Colonel, Officer, Detective, Captain, Deputy, Sergeant, and Major may still sympathize with the patrol officer/police officer because they are often still working in the field and not at a desk. This is why the definitive line was made to separate all of these ranks from the Police Chief/Sheriff level.

An important reason why Klockars analysis was used for this research is that, while it encompasses police departments throughout the United States, most of the surveys were from northeastern agencies. Much of the other research completed in literary reviews also encompasses northeastern United States and will be beneficial in comparing results. Another reason for using this data is the cost factor. Sending out enough surveys for all officers to complete in over thirty police departments is very expensive when considering printing costs and postage. A final rationale for using another researchers findings was efficiency. While conducting research and finding possible solutions to current issues is important to a researcher, it does not always rank high on a police department’s agenda. Their delay in submitting results would negatively affect the collection and analysis of data and would be detrimental to the final results.

This dataset also contains a large number of responses, from over 3,000 police surveys (Klockars, 1997), thus the compilation adequately reflects the police population. This focused review of surveyed police corruption will be more beneficial to researchers than one of broader examination. The concentrated assessments encompass areas that share boundaries. Misconduct does not cease when it reaches the borders of a jurisdiction, but instead spills over into other areas. Results found here will be more beneficial than utilizing findings from random jurisdictions spread throughout the United States where different forms of misconduct may be area specific.

#### Rationale

Retrieval of Klockars study, as well as the codebook, was located on the National Archive of Criminal Justice Data website. This data was not only easily accessible, but reflected the exact information necessary to answer questions on police corruption for this thesis. Said codebook located on the site was also found to be complete with variables and was already entered into PASW (Predictive Analytics SoftWare) Statistics, Version 18. “PASW Statistics 18 is a comprehensive system for analyzing data. PASW Statistics can take data from almost any type of file and use them to generate tabulated reports, charts and plots of distributions and trends, descriptive statistics, and complex statistical analysis” (SPSS Inc., 2007, p. iii). By utilizing PASW, twenty-two variables out of a potential eighty-eight were isolated. While other statistical software such as Microsoft Excel was a possibility, it would have taken more time and extra steps to receive the same results as with PASW.

## **Figure 2**

### **CORRUPTION CASE SCENARIOS**

- Case 1. A police officer runs his own private business in which he sells and installs security devices, such as alarms, special locks, etc. He does this work during his off-duty hours.
- Case 2. A police officer routinely accepts free meals, cigarettes, and other items of small value from merchants on his beat. He does not solicit these gifts and is careful not to abuse the generosity of those who give gifts to him.
- Case 3. A police officer stops a motorist for speeding. The officer agrees to accept a personal gift of half of the amount of the fine in exchange for -not issuing a citation.
- Case 4. A police officer is widely liked in the community, and on holidays local merchants and restaurant and bar owners show their appreciation for his attention by giving him gifts of food and liquor.
- Case 5. A police officer discovers a burglary of a jewelry shop. The display cases are smashed and it is obvious that many items have been taken. While searching the shop, he takes a watch, worth about two days' pay for that officer. He reports that the watch has been stolen during the burglary.
- Case 6. A police officer has a private arrangement with a local auto body shop to refer the owners of the cars damaged in the accidents to the shop. In exchange for each referral, he receives a payment of 5% of the repair bill from the shop owner.
- Case 7. A police officer, who happens to be a very good auto mechanic, is scheduled to work during coming holidays. A supervisor offers to give him these days off, if he agrees to tune-up his supervisor's personal car. Evaluate the SUPERVISOR's behavior.
- Case 8. At 2 A.M. a police officer, who is on duty, is driving his patrol car on a deserted road. He sees a vehicle that has been driven off the road and is stuck in a ditch. He approaches the vehicle and observes that the driver is not hurt but is obviously intoxicated. He also finds that the driver is a police officer. Instead of reporting this accident and offense he transports the driver to his home.
- Case 9. A police officer finds a bar on his beat which is still serving drinks a half hour past its legal closing time. Instead of reporting this violation, the police officer agrees to accept a couple of free drinks from the owner.
- Case 10. Two police officers on foot patrol surprise a man who is attempting to break into an automobile. The man flees. They chase him for about two blocks before apprehending him by tackling him and wrestling him to the ground. After he is under control both officers punch him a couple of times in the stomach as punishment for fleeing and resisting.
- Case 11. A police officer finds a wallet in a parking lot. It contains the amount of money equivalent to a full-day's pay for that officer. He reports the wallet as lost property, but keeps the money for himself.

(Klockars, 1999, p. 29)

## Sample and Sampling

A questionnaire by Carl Klockars with eleven hypothetical scenarios of police misconduct was distributed to thirty police departments across the United States (see Figure 2). Upon completion of the scenarios, additional information was gathered from the officers' personal characteristics. Klockars then mailed the questionnaire to municipal police departments mainly across the northeastern United States; with a few in the south, southeast, and southwest. Of those, he received completed surveys from 3,232 law enforcement officials representing 30 different police departments. Of the eleven brief scenarios used on the survey, nine portrayed behavior commonly viewed as corrupt (Cases 2-9, 11), one addressed the deliberate use of excessive force (Case 10), and one described a behavior that is seen as corrupt by some agencies and not corrupt by others (Case 1) (Klockars, 1997). In Chapter 4, a more in-depth review of this information will be presented as to the demographics that constitute the individuals surveyed.

## Measures

Each of the eleven scenarios presented in the survey is an attempt to measure different types of police corruption. Survey recipients are asked to rank each scenario on its seriousness level on a scale of 1 to 5 with 1 being the least serious offense and 5 being the most serious. In the first scenario, Case 1, Klockars describes a police officer who runs his own private business during his off-duty hours. The survey recipients are then asked to rank the serious level of this alleged type of corruption. Case 2 presents an officer who routinely accepts free meals from merchants. While some may consider this a form of stealing, other officers may not. In Case 3, Case 5, and Case 11 many officers

may view this activity as some type of theft, while others see it as an extra bonus of the profession. Case 8 is a unique case. Here the officer is bound by law to arrest and cite the drunk driver. However, professional courtesy plays a role in the decision that is made. Case 10 strictly deals with the use of excessive force, while Case 4, Case 6, and Case 7 can be viewed as a type of moral dilemma on whether or not to accept the proposition. Finally, Case 9 is a combination of moral uprightness and common sense. While some officers may view accepting alcoholic beverages on duty not that serious, still others see it as affecting ones job performance and a most serious crime. It is difficult to perform routine police duties if one is intoxicated.

The dependent variable being measured in Klockars survey is the level of police corruption. The independent variables are the police officers and Police Chiefs/Sheriffs. All of the available information from the codebook was inputted into PWSA, and several frequency tables were generated with information provided in Chapter 4. The valid percentages were then formulated in order to provide values to prove and disprove the aforementioned hypotheses.

### Analysis

When analyzing the data and applying it to the hypothesis it is essentially set up to follow two stages. The first stage is descriptive in that it summarizes the overall information on police corruption using number counts and percentages. The second stage then compares the two groups of interest using percentages and means. Also of mention is how to convey “support” or “no support” for each hypothesis through the data analyzed. For hypothesis containing the word “most”, such as Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2, “most” is considered more than 50% in terms of approving or disproving

the theory for purposes of this study. When doing comparisons between police officers and Police Chiefs/Sheriffs, differences of five percent or more will be considered significant.

### Summary

In this chapter a description of Klockars study was provided. Additionally, the eleven hypothetical scenarios in which data will be gathered from were also listed. The method of analysis was also presented with regards to the use of PASW Statistics. The next chapter will focus on the results drawn from Klockars study. The frequency tables will be presented and defined in Chapter 4 to illustrate how police officers view both police misconduct and the ways to discipline those who are corrupt.



**CHAPTER 4**  
**RESULTS AND FINDINGS**

In Chapter 3, the methodology used to gather and analyze the data was described.

In this Chapter, results will be presented relative to each of the four hypotheses.

**Table 1**

**Demographic Profile of the Sample, N = 3,232**

<b>Rank of Position in Law Enforcement</b>	<b>Number of Personnel</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Police Officers	3,142	98.9%
Police Chief/Sheriff	32	1%
Other	2	.1%
Missing/Unknown	56	*
Total	3,232	100%

\* Percentage does not include unknown

<b>Size of Agency/Departments</b>	<b>Number of Agencies/Departments</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Very Large – over 500	1,934	59.8%
Large: 201-500	251	7.8%
Medium: 76-200	292	9.0%
Small: 25-75	215	6.7%
Very Small: Less than 25	93	2.9%
Sheriff’s Department	60	1.9%
County Police	387	12%
Total	3,232	100%

<b>Length of Service in General</b>	<b>Number and (Percentage) of Police Officers</b>	<b>Number and (Percentage) of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs</b>
Less than 1 year	87 (4.3%)	1 (3.1%)
1-2 years	235 (11.6%)	0
3-5 years	455 (22.4%)	1 (3.1%)
6-10 years	587 (29.0%)	8 (25%)
11-15 years	294 (14.5%)	1 (3.1%)
16-20 years	185 (9.1%)	9 (28.1%)
Over 20 years	184 (9.1%)	12 (37.5%)
Total	2,037 (100%)	32 (100%)

<b>Length of Service at Current Agency/Department</b>	<b>Number and (Percentage) of Police Officers</b>	<b>Number and (Percentage) of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs</b>
Less than 1 year	89 (4.4%)	0
1-2 years	278 (13.8%)	2 (6.3%)
3-5 years	481 (23.9%)	2 (6.3%)
6-10 years	559 (27.7%)	8 (25%)
11-15 years	277 (13.7%)	1 (3.1%)
16-20 years	160 (7.9%)	9 (28.1%)
Over 20 years	171 (8.5%)	10 (31.3%)
Total	2,037 (100%)	32 (100%)

According to Klockars study, 3,232 law enforcement officials completed and returned his survey. Of those who participated 3,142 were given the rank designation of police officer. The term ‘police officer’ encompasses the following ranks: Recruit, Corporal, Lieutenant, Colonel, Officer, Detective, Captain, Deputy, Sergeant, and Major. Police officers make up 98.9% of those surveyed, while Police Chief/Sheriff contribute

1% or thirty-two of those considered. The title of Police Chief and Sheriff denote the same rank level.

As seen above, the largest responses came from the 'very large' police departments of over 500 officers consisting of 59.8% of those who answered the survey. While only 93 very small police departments of less than 25 officers participated in this review, they still make a percentage of those who completed this survey, which is 2.9%.

The largest amount of police officers surveyed were those who have six to ten years in the profession. This total, 587 officers, makes up 29.0% of the total amount. While only 4.3%, or eighty-seven officers, have one year or less experience as a police officer, that does not signify their ineptitude as a law enforcement official. As they continue to grow in this profession, they will be afforded the opportunity to move through the ranks as they increase their years of service assuming they do not fall victim to police corruption.

Police Chiefs/Sheriffs who have over twenty years of experience make up the largest group of those surveyed for that rank. At 37.5% of the total amount of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs reviewed, these department heads have shown a dedication to the profession that may be categorized as successful as indicated by their years of service. Police officers out-number the amount of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs surveyed.

## Hypotheses

**Table 2**

**Ratings of “Seriousness” for Police Corruption Scenarios, Police Officers, N = 2,037**

<b>Ratings of Seriousness</b>	<b>Case 1</b>	<b>Case 2</b>	<b>Case 3</b>	<b>Case 4</b>	<b>Case 5</b>	<b>Case 6</b>	<b>Case 7</b>	<b>Case 8</b>	<b>Case 9</b>	<b>Case 10</b>	<b>Case 11</b>
<b>1: Not at All Serious</b>	76.4% (1,557)	32.9% (670)	.4% (8)	26.3% (535)	.4% (9)	2.8% (57)	4.2% (86)	20.9% (426)	3.5% (71)	7.2% (147)	1.0% (20)
<b>2</b>	11.0% (225)	25.5% (519)	.3% (6)	22.3% (455)	0% (1)	3.6% (73)	6.2% (127)	20.2% (411)	2.9% (60)	10.1% (205)	.9% (18)
<b>3</b>	6.9% (140)	21.5% (437)	1.3% (26)	21.9% (446)	.8% (17)	10.2% (207)	16.1% (328)	22.4% (457)	6.5% (133)	13.8% (281)	2.7% (55)
<b>4</b>	2.8% (58)	9.1% (186)	4.9% (99)	14.9% (303)	1.9% (38)	19.3% (393)	27.3% (557)	16.4% (334)	17.6% (358)	20.1% (410)	6.5% (132)
<b>5: Very Serious</b>	2.3% (47)	10.1% (205)	92.3% (1880)	13.5% (275)	96.2% (1959)	63.5% (1293)	45.2% (921)	18.9% (384)	68.6% (1397)	47.6% (970)	88.4% (1800)
<b>Missing Unknown</b>	.5% (10)	1.0% (20)	.9% (18)	1.1% (23)	.6% (13)	.7% (14)	.9% (18)	1.2% (25)	.9% (18)	1.2% (24)	.6% (12)
<b>Total:</b>	100% (2037)	100% (2037)	100% (2037)	100% (2037)	100% (2037)	100% (2037)	100% (2037)	100% (2037)	100% (2037)	100% (2037)	100% (2037)

The first hypothesis states: Police officers view police corruption in different degrees of seriousness. According to Klockars findings, this statement is supported. As each of the eleven hypothetical case scenarios presented appeared to differ, so did the results (see Figure 2 for Corruption Case Scenarios). As denoted in Table 2, no one case appears to share the same amount of individuals who agree 100%.

**Table 3**

**Excessive Use of Force as the Most Corrupt Behavior**

<b>Rating of Seriousness</b>	<b>Percentage and (Number) of Police Officers</b>	<b>Percentage and (Number) of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs</b>
<b>1: Not at All Serious</b>	7.2% (147)	3.1% (1)
<b>2</b>	10.1% (205)	6.3% (2)
<b>3</b>	13.8% (281)	12.5% (4)
<b>4</b>	20.1% (410)	21.9% (7)
<b>5: Very Serious</b>	47.6% (970)	56.3% (18)
<b>Missing Unknown</b>	1.2% (24)	0
<b>Total</b>	100% (2,037)	100% (32)

The second hypothesis states: The most serious type of police misconduct from the view of a police officer and from a Police Chief/Sheriff is the use of excessive force on a suspect or criminal. This statement is supported according to Klockars findings. His results show that 67.7% of police officers who answered his survey view police brutality as the most severe form of misconduct (based on “4” and “5” being the most serious ratings), and also show that 78.2% of the Police Chiefs/Sheriffs did as well. Other literature supports this result- according to Skolnick and Fyfe, “Brutality is a conscious and venal act committed by officers who usually take great pains to conceal their misconduct” (1993, p. 19). “Unnecessary force, by contrast, is usually a training problem, the result of ineptitude or insensitivity, as, for instance, when well-meaning officers unwisely charge into situations from which they can then extricate themselves only by using force” (Skolnick and Fyfe, 1993, p. 20).

**Table 4**

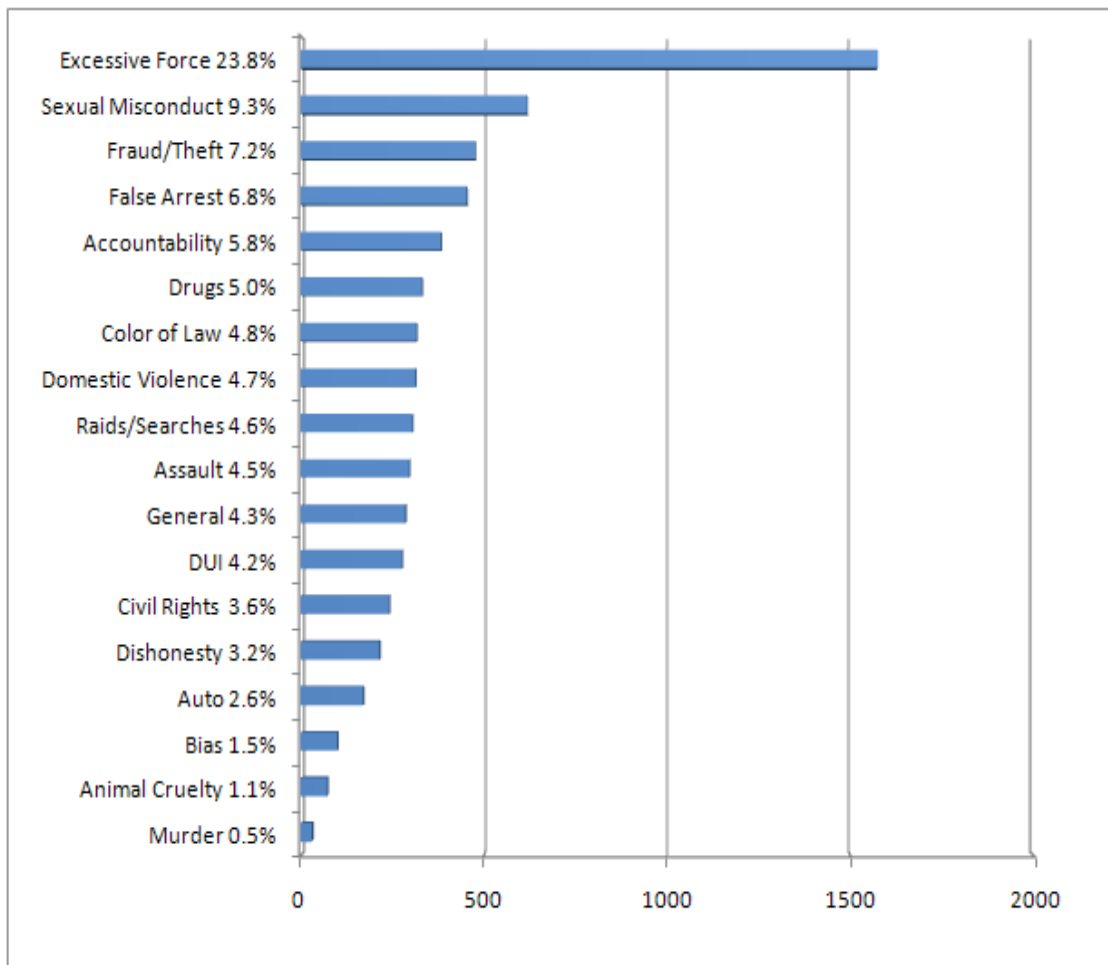
**Appropriate Discipline for Theft, N = 2,069**

	<b>Percentage and (Number) of Police Officers</b>	<b>Percentage and (Number) of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs</b>
<b>None</b>	.4% (9)	3.1% (1)
<b>Verbal Reprimand</b>	.3% (6)	0
<b>Written Reprimand</b>	1.1% (22)	3.1% (1)
<b>Suspension Without Pay</b>	17.5% (357)	15.6% (5)
<b>Demotion in Rank</b>	1.5% (31)	0
<b>Dismissal</b>	77.3% (1,574)	78.1% (25)
<b>Missing Unknown</b>	1.9% (38)	0
<b>Total</b>	100% (2,037)	100% (32)

The third hypothesis states: Police officers feel that an appropriate discipline for another officer who steals merchandise during a burglary investigation would be dismissal. According to Klockars findings, this statement is supported. Respectively, 77.3% of police officers and 78.1% of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs find the best form of punishment for this crime to be dismissal. According to the 2010 NPMSRP, theft/fraud/robbery allegations involved 7.2% of police misconduct crime out of the 6,613 officers who were reported. This equates to almost 500 cases of officers committing some form of theft in the United States in 2010 (National Police Misconduct Statistics and Reporting Project Police Misconduct Statistical Report, 2010). Figure 3 exhibits a breakdown of misconduct types by the percentage of reports and what the total number of each type conveys.

**Figure 3**

**POLICE MISCONDUCT BY TYPE**



(National Police Misconduct Statistics and Reporting Project Police Misconduct Statistical Report, 2010, <http://www.policemisconduct.net/2010-npmsrp-police-misconduct-statistical-report/> )

**Table 5**

**Seriousness of Owning a Business Off-Duty**

	<b>Percentage and (Number) of Police Officers</b>	<b>Percentage and (Number) of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs</b>
<b>1: Not at All Serious</b>	76.4% (1,557)	65.6% (21)
<b>2</b>	11.0% (225)	15.6% (5)
<b>3</b>	6.9% (140)	12.5% (4)
<b>4</b>	2.8% (58)	3.1% (1)
<b>5: Very Serious</b>	2.3% (47)	3.1% (1)
<b>Missing/Unknown</b>	.5% (10)	0
<b>Total</b>	100% (2,037)	100% (32)

**Seriousness of Receiving Gifts from Merchants on Holidays**

	<b>Percentage and (Number) of Police Officers</b>	<b>Percentage and (Number) of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs</b>
<b>1: Not at All Serious</b>	26.3% (535)	15.6% (5)
<b>2</b>	22.3% (455)	9.4% (3)
<b>3</b>	21.9% (446)	21.9% (7)
<b>4</b>	14.9% (303)	18.8% (6)
<b>5: Very Serious</b>	13.5% (275)	34.4% (11)
<b>Missing/Unknown</b>	1.1% (23)	0
<b>Total</b>	100% (2,037)	100% (32)

The fourth hypothesis states: Most police officers view running a private business as the least serious type of corruption, while Police Chiefs/Sheriffs view receiving gifts of food and alcohol from merchants on the holidays the least serious type of corruption.



The first portion of the hypothesis is found to be supported. 87.4% of police officers reviewed do not believe owning and/or working in an unauthorized job while off-duty to be a serious form of corruption (“1” and “2” ratings were combined to equate the “Not at All Serious” ranking). Likewise, the majority of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs also agree. As for the second portion of this hypothesis, the findings were not sustained. Only 25% of Police Chiefs/Sheriffs found receiving a gift of food or alcohol during the holidays a form of corruption (“1” and “2” ratings were combined to equate the “Not at All Serious” ranking). As this is not a majority (50% percent or higher), this hypothesis was unsupported.

### Summary

In this Chapter, the four hypotheses driving this research were either supported or unsupported per Klockars secondary analysis survey. Pertinent data from other sources assisting in the validation of the hypotheses was also presented. In Chapter 5, limitations to this research will be introduced. In addition, recommendations for future research will be provided in an attempt to improve results for upcoming studies in the area of police corruption.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSION**

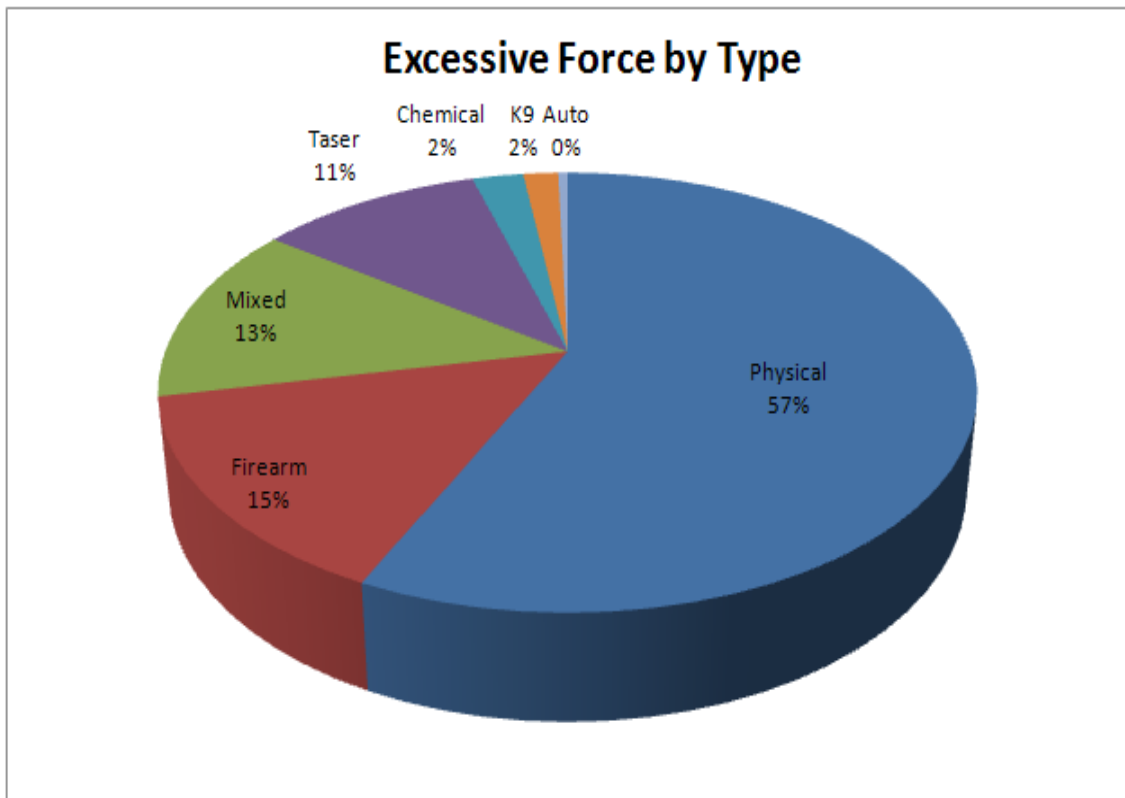
In Chapter 4, each of the four hypotheses were tested with corresponding data gathered from Carl B. Klockars study on police corruption. Said data afforded the means necessary to prove or disprove each hypothesis.

#### **Major Findings**

In the first hypothesis it was supported that police officers do view police corruption in different degrees of seriousness as denoted by the numerous responses given by the police officers surveyed. In the second hypothesis, it was also supported that over fifty percent of both police officers and Police Chiefs/Sheriffs view excessive force on a suspect or criminal as the most severe type of police misconduct. According to the 2010 National Police Misconduct Statistics and Reporting Project (NPMSRP) Police Misconduct Statistical Report, the number of law enforcement excessive force cases are on the rise since 2009. However, while this data has been gathered from multiple media sources throughout the United States, they are not convictions of said

crime, only allegations (National Police Misconduct Statistics and Reporting Project Police Misconduct Statistical Report, 2010).

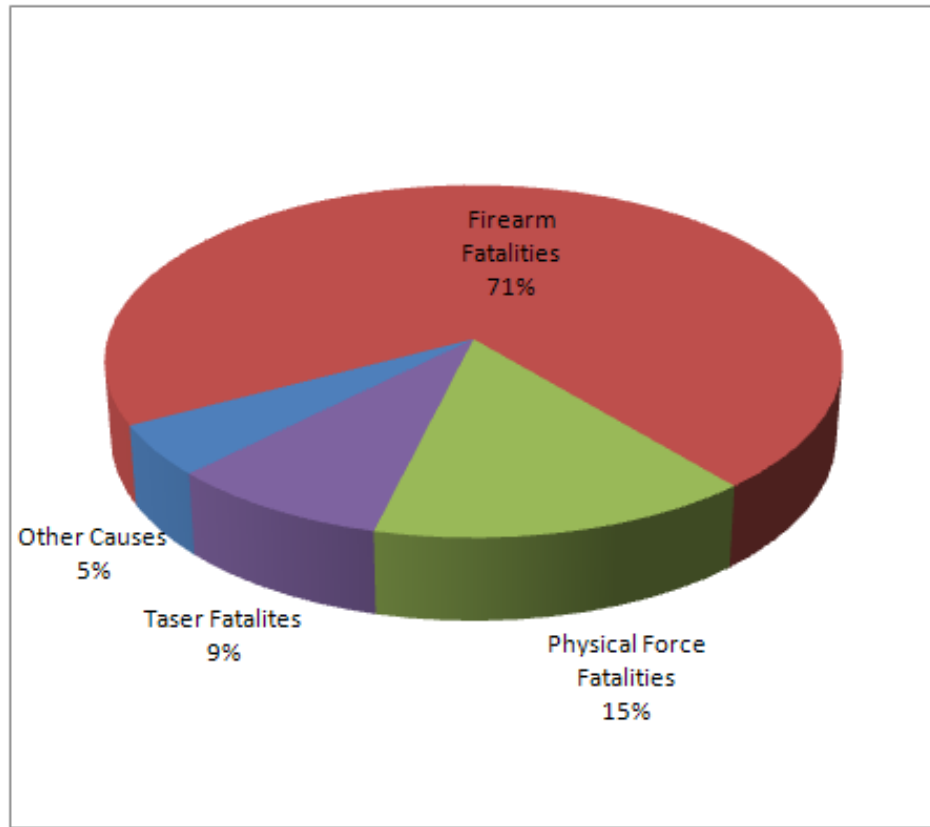
**Figure 4**



(National Police Misconduct Statistics and Reporting Project Police Misconduct Statistical Report, 2010, <http://www.policemisconduct.net/2010-npmsrp-police-misconduct-statistical-report/> )

**Figure 5**

**EXCESSIVE FORCE FATALITIES BY TYPE**



“\***Note:** Fatalities listed are only those involved in cases where excessive force or unnecessary force was reported. This does not include all fatalities related to police use of force” (National Police Misconduct Statistics and Reporting Project Police Misconduct Statistical Report, 2010, <http://www.policemisconduct.net/2010-npmsrp-police-misconduct-statistical-report/> ).

Ohio ranks in the list of top twenty-two states with misconduct rates currently above average. With regards to police departments in Ohio that have over 1,000 sworn officers, Cincinnati Police Department reported sixteen cases of misconduct in 2010. Of sworn police departments with 500-999 officers, Ohio unfortunately makes the list again with Toledo Police Department reporting ten cases in 2010. With sworn officers

numbering 100-499, Ohio did not make the list. Regrettably, with police departments containing 50-99 officers, Ohio ranked three times on the 'top twenty scale' of cases of police misconduct. Sandusky and Lorain Police Department each had seven reported cases in 2009 and Warren Police Department (Trumbull County), had five (National Police Misconduct Statistics and Reporting Project Police Misconduct Statistical Report, 2010). While all of the aforementioned information appears to be on the rise, there still may be an undetermined number of unreported incidences that the public may never be privy to.

In hypothesis number three, 77.3% of police did agree that the appropriate discipline for another officer who steals merchandise during a burglary investigation would be dismissal. Finally, through the entry and analysis of Klockars results it was determined that police officers viewed running a private business as the least serious type of corruption. However, Police Chiefs/Sheriffs did not see receiving gifts of food and alcohol during the holidays from merchants as the least serious form of corruption.

#### Limitations and Recommendations

Throughout this thesis several limitations were noted. Klockars did appear to have a large response from the surveys he sent out; however, he focused mainly on the Northeastern United States with a few departments in the South. Klockar did not send out his survey to police departments in the Midwest or Western United States. Had he surveyed this population more heavily, the data may have yielded different results. Another limitation with this research was the utilization of results from Klockars study based on the questions he asked in his survey of law enforcement officials. While he did

include several of the more prevalent forms of corruption, including conflicts of interest, abuse of authority, and exploiting authority, there were other types that could have been used as well. Such types may have included perjury, police profanity and coercion, and misuse of confidential information. Perjury, or what is also known as “testilying” was a phrase originally created by police officers in New York City to convince themselves what they were doing was morally correct. When an officer is deceptive in court the rationale is explained as the law officer is not quite lying, nor is he fully disclosing the truth. The middle ground for this logic is testilying (Cunningham, 1999). Officers believe that they can ethically tread in this area because “they have society’s best interests at heart: the conviction of the guilty” (Cunningham, 1999, p. 27). Based on this belief, it would have been interesting to see whether officers looked at perjury as a serious offense or not.

Another limitation to Klockars study is that only 1% of his subjects were Chiefs/Sheriffs, and a higher sample of them should have been conducted to obtain a better overall view of superior’s thoughts on the matter. Having a better understanding on why supervisors come to the conclusions they do will provide an improved comprehension on why police officers may think or act the way they do based on some of the orders they are given by their managers. However, a lack of sampling can only provide partial answers to the issue.

An additional area that could have been included for study would have been police profanity and coercion. In the course of their duties, some police officers may feel the need to utilize profanity or verbally offensive words or phrases with negative connotations. Being able to communicate effectively are skills that are taught during the

rookie stage of the police academy. Unfortunately, some officers have learned that the manipulation of words and phrases can be used in an unprofessional manner to obtain information. Such words containing religious connotations, excretory functions, or words connected with sexual functions are among these examples. With police work, coercive language is purposeful and not simply a loss of control. Officers use this unprofessional tactic to acquire the attention of a less-than-cooperative-citizen, to discredit someone, to authenticate a dominant-submissive relationship, or to label or humiliate an out-group (Stevens, 2005).

The final area for study could have been the misuse of confidential information. This area generally deals with information being “leaked” to the public. This may have detrimental consequences as an investigation could be jeopardized, personal information of officers could fall into public hands, and failed raids could result, therefore, ruining cases. Trust in the police department could also be destroyed if officer and administration are constantly looking over their shoulders due to lack of trust within the unit (Stevens, 2005). All three of these aforementioned areas would be topics that researchers could use on their surveys for future investigation.

Other exploration that researchers may also want to consider would be the education factor. If a connection between higher education and reduced liability risk can be determined, the convenience and expenditure of such insurance to police departments that require an education beyond high school could be initiated. “...college education is supposed to provide insights into human behavior and to foster a spirit of experimentation, college-educated officers are (hypothetically) less inclined to invoke the law to resolve problems, and correspondingly are inclined more strongly to develop

extralegal solutions” (Bonn & Roberg, 2004, p. 477). This freedom to exercise deductive reasoning and logic should allow educated officers to experience a higher level of job satisfaction (Bonn & Roberg, 2004).

Researchers may also want to consider examining how community oriented policing could alleviate the burn-out factor of officers and reduce the possibility of corruption among police departments who utilize this program. According to Allison T. Chappell, by 2000, over 90 percent of the nation’s police departments reported that they were involved in community oriented policing (2007). Community oriented policing, or, COP, “entails focusing on community needs, solving recurring problems, preventing crime (rather than only responding to it), as well as “flattening” the tall, bureaucratic structure that characterized the traditional police agency. In a nutshell, the community policing officer is supposed to be more of a community resource officer than simply a law enforcer” (Chappell, 2007, p. 498-499). Researchers could not only study this aspect, but also how to incorporate the program into police academies, how to integrate it into departments that do not currently practice it, and also address the problems that some officers may have with it. By studying these causes and effects with this program a researcher may find pertinent evidence as to why some officers still become corrupt.

### Repeating the Study

If this study were to be repeated, the data should be analyzed differently. Many police officers do not believe themselves to be corrupt, however, they are quick to accuse a co-worker. Upon running the results differently through PASW (Predictive Analytics SoftWare) Statistics, Version 18, questions #4 and #7 from the “Case Scenario



Assessment Options Survey” should be analyzed more closely (see Appendix A).

Officers who are more likely to respond to inquiries that do not directly ask them when they have been a party to corrupt behavior may answer more truthfully.

### Summary

Police officers can be valuable resources in our communities. However, it is their responsibility to practice their profession in a moral and upright manner. Throughout their careers, law enforcement officials are provided with the necessary skills to be successful. Through the research and data presented in this thesis it was proven that, unfortunately, there are numerous destructive behaviors that can lead to police corruption and misconduct. As demonstrated by Klockars research, not all police officers succumb to corruption. The ones who avoid the evils encompassed by it are able to view it negatively and still uphold unbiased ways in which to discipline those who are corrupt. It is the hope that with the future of policing that law enforcement will one day realize that they are not above the law and that they, too, are bound by a code of ethics (see Figure 6).

**Figure 6**

**THE POLICE CODE OF ETHICS**

As a LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICER, my fundamental duty is to serve people; to safeguard lives and property; to protect the innocent against deception; the weak against oppression or intimidation; and the peaceful against violence or disorder; and to respect the constitutional rights of all men to liberty, equality, and justice.

I WILL keep my private life unsullied as an example to all; maintain courageous calm in the face of danger, scorn or ridicule; develop self-restraint and be constantly mindful of the welfare of others. Honest in my thought and deed in both personal and official life, I will be exemplary in obeying the laws of the land and the regulations of my division. Whatever I see or hear of a confidential nature or that is confided to me in my official capacity will be kept ever secret unless revelation is necessary in the performance of my duty.

I WILL never act officiously or permit personal feelings, prejudices, animosities or friendships to influence my decisions. With no compromise for crime and with relentless prosecution of criminals, I will enforce the law courteously and appropriately without fear or favor malice or ill-will, never employing unnecessary force or violence and never accepting gratuities.

I RECOGNIZE the badge of my office as a symbol of public faith, and I accept it, and hold it in trust, while I am true to the ethics of the law enforcement service. I will constantly strive to achieve these objectives and ideals, dedicating myself before God to my chosen profession...law enforcement.

(Ohio Department of Natural Resources – Division of Watercraft, 2012)

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## Appendix A

### Case Scenario Assessment Options Survey

### Case Scenario Assessment Options Survey

1. How serious do YOU consider this behavior to be?

Not at all serious  
1                      2                      3                      4                      Very Serious  
5

2. How serious do MOST POLICE OFFICERS IN YOUR AGENCY consider this behavior to be?

Not at all serious  
1                      2                      3                      4                      Very Serious  
5

3. Would this behavior be regarded as a violation of official policy in your agency?

Definitely not  
1                      2                      3                      4                      Definitely yes  
5

4. If an officer in your agency engaged in this behavior and was discovered doing so, what if any discipline do you think SHOULD follow?

1. NONE  
2. VERBAL REPRIMAND  
3. WRITTEN REPRIMAND  
4. PERIOD OF SUSPENSION WITHOUT PAY  
5. DEMOTION IN RANK  
6. DISMISSAL

5. If an officer in your agency engaged in this behavior and was discovered doing so, what if any discipline do YOU think WOULD follow.

1. NONE  
2. VERBAL REPRIMAND  
3. WRITTEN REPRIMAND  
4. PERIOD OF SUSPENSION WITHOUT PAY  
5. DEMOTION IN RANK  
6. DISMISSAL

6. Do you think YOU would report a fellow police officer who engaged in this behavior?

Definitely not  
1                      2                      3                      4                      Definitely yes  
5

7. Do you think MOST POLICE OFFICERS IN YOUR AGENCY would report a fellow police officer who engaged in this behavior?

Definitely not  
1                      2                      3                      4                      Definitely yes  
5

(Klockars, 1997, p. 30)