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**APPLICATIONS OF COGNITIVE FLEXIBILITY THEORY
IN CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING**

BY

RICHARD W. MILLER

A.A.S., Computer Science, New Mexico Junior College, 1985
B.G.S., Literature, New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, 1993
M.A., Educational Leadership, New Mexico State University, 1998

DISSERTATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

**Doctor of Philosophy
Organizational Learning and Instructional Technology**

The University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, New Mexico

May, 2010

DEDICATION

Many have influenced and assisted me on the path that eventually led to the following

work. But above all, I owe more than I can ever repay to my wife, Bea, who has

supported, counseled, indulged, and encouraged me in every way during my academic

and professional pursuits. She has been my greatest fan, my best friend, and a wonderful

wife and mother. Although I'll love her for the rest of my life, that seems pitifully

inadequate compensation.

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ABSTRACT

An examination of American efforts to influence global peace and security through development assistance to foreign police and other security forces reveals that they have a record of mixed results. The pitfalls arising from cultural dissonance in international training programs is a significant factor in why some police reform initiatives fail. Through substantial investment of financial and human resources, U.S. Government funded police education programs deployed across a wide range of diverse and evolving nations have attempted to solidify the democratic process in often tumultuous environments. This research suggests that the traditional Western pedagogical approach that has been employed for decades in Westernized education is not sufficient for generating long-term knowledge gains in many foreign settings. The diverse value systems and expectations that sustain cultures worldwide can no longer be

ignored for the sake of homogenization and attainment of an Americanized ideal of

democracy. This research demonstrates how the integration of Cognitive Flexibility

Theory (CFT) into a foreign police training program can positively impact results and

improve knowledge retention in culturally relevant ways. Through presentation of

empirical and theoretical evidence, this investigation provides unequivocal support for

the application of CFT in the design of police training curricula intended to be delivered

to students who are members of other cultures.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The United States Government (USG) is engaged in a staggering number of foreign assistance projects around the world, wherein it seeks to support struggling and emerging democracies in their development of fair and transparent governance, adequate infrastructure, disease and famine control, anti-terrorism, defense, law enforcement, and a litany of other contemporary issues. I have been employed by the U.S. Department of Justice (USDOJ) as a senior law enforcement adviser since 2003 and during that time have been intimately involved in the delivery of substantial foreign police assistance programs in post-conflict and/or developing nations. My work in the field has overlapped with assistance initiatives in other areas as well, including the larger criminal justice system, elections, infrastructure development, economic development and others.

Although not exclusively so, much of the instant discussion is informed by my professional experiences in Iraq from May 2003 – May 2005. History makes it clear that the USG was not prepared to provide an adequate civilian response to meet the development needs of post-invasion Iraq – the deployment of civilian development advisers was weak and slow across all sectors and U.S. military personnel were forced to fill the voids created, regardless of whether they were properly prepared to do so – and this was a largely underestimated tasking that came in addition to the military's Herculean primary mission of prosecuting combat and security operations in a country the size of California, with 28 million residents, and many foreign bad actors seeking to exploit the chaotic situation. One stark example of an inadequate early response is that a total of six American civilian police advisers, of which I was one, were deployed to Iraq shortly after the initial military invasion, with the mission to begin the process of

rebuilding and professionalizing all of Iraq's internal security forces, which were made up of enormous numbers of personnel and in complete disarray. Precise and reliable numbers of internal security personnel during the Saddam era are not known; many diverse estimates were presented during my time in Iraq but by the time of my departure, the Iraq National Police alone counted approximately 135,000 officers. Other law enforcement entities, such as the border patrol, facilities protection, customs, and immigration services added substantially to that number. The police development plan for Iraq always included large numbers of follow-on advisers in addition to the original six, who would be quickly deployed to Iraq. But funding and recruitment processes in Washington proved cumbersome and it was more than six months before additional police advisers began to arrive in even remotely meaningful numbers and nearly two years had passed before the full complement of 800 police advisers was reached in 2005. Many early windows of opportunity were missed that could have otherwise been leveraged to rebuild the government of Iraq, train and equip its personnel, and provide basic services to Iraqi citizens. Instead, development progress was slow, the security situation worsened, Iraqis and Americans alike became more and more dissatisfied with conditions in the country. An important lesson was learned from the Iraq experience and the USG has since developed a plan and is currently staffing an organization known as the Civilian Response Corps, which is designed to mobilize large numbers of civilian advisers in international crisis response situations.

Because ultimately there would be unprecedented numbers of American personnel deployed to Iraq and because necessity often dictated they be thrust into

positions of responsibility for which they had no formal preparation nor adequate resources at their disposal, there were at times employed rather simplistic and formulaic approaches to all manner of assistance and development, with an apparent underlying assumption in some cases that the principal requirement for replicating American style success in other countries is to provide the same inputs and establish the same processes that are appropriate in the United States. As both an observer and participant in these efforts, it was clear that the implementation of U.S. policy was thought at some levels to be accomplished through an idealized development strategy wherein democracy was the end objective and all manner of aid was provided as a means of moderating Iraqi growth as measured against American yard sticks of transparency in government, economic success, effective security measures, and international communion. Domestic political pressures on USG agencies were immense to accomplish their development goals as expediently as possible and for the sake of expedience, in many cases measures of development progress devolved solely into simple metrics, e.g., how many police officers were trained in accordance with standardized curricula, when a more meaningful pursuit would have been determining how well that curricula and the training methods used were aligned with Iraqi culture and by extension, whether they had the potential to produce sustainable organizational development within the police agency. I can assure the reader that there remain today considerable divides between Iraqi and American minds over the details of what it means to be a police officer.

Even a shortsighted approach may look good on paper; it can be easily reduced to quantifiable measures of ostensible progress and it can be accompanied by very

impressive statistics that speak to the generosity and magnanimity of Americans in their relations abroad. It is a fair statement that failures of foreign assistance to meet its aims almost never come from a lack of sincerity or desire to do well for our foreign counterparts, certainly not on the parts of the tens of thousands of government employees and contractors that are directly tasked with interfacing with foreign interlocutors and delivering assistance. Instead, it is more likely due to a dismissal of the importance of the role that culture plays in trying to effect change by exporting American ideals to other countries.

Democratic development cannot be explicitly objectified nor can it be universally translated, which has led some critics, wrongly in my opinion, to characterize American aid as purely imperialistic in nature. Cooley (2008) asserts that the *raison d'être* for American footholds in developing nations are neither magnanimous nor beneficial, but are instead political pageantry that simply overshadows more strategic military positioning. Compounding the problem is that as a matter of political, diplomatic, and bureaucratic cover, progress reporting for assistance projects may amount to idealized best case interpretations of developmental achievements and be customized according to subjective American measures of success that may be near meaningless in the host country. A failure to achieve sustainable development in foreign assistance projects is far less likely to be indicative of a lack of investment or effort than it is the consequence of cultural dissonance and incoherence. As the symptoms of these cultural disconnections come to the fore in foreign assistance projects, it is essential that any new course of action does not suffer from the same design flaws.

An observation often credited to Gaius Petronius, (circa 210 B.C.), succinctly

illuminates some of the difficulties that plague many modern efforts to effect reform of

human organizations, and it is particularly apropos when considering organizational

change from a cross-cultural perspective:

> We trained very hard – but it seems that every time we were beginning to
>
> form up into teams we would be reorganized. I was to learn later in life
>
> that we tend to meet any new situation by reorganizing: and a wonderful
>
> method it can be for creating the illusion of progress while producing
>
> confusion, inefficiency and demoralization.

The sort of confusion, inefficiency, and demoralization that Petronius described has on

occasion been the outgrowth of some less than successful efforts by the U.S. to remake

foreign governments in its own image – to find evidence of that, one has only to look at

modern examples such as Haiti, where despite the infusion of good intentions and vast

sums of money, once the American presence was withdrawn, the indigenous government

returned to its old corrupt and criminal ways. Kurth (2005) highlights the current conflict

in Iraq as evidence of fragmented regime installation, as even after six years and the

investment of billions of dollars, the seeds of democracy remain largely benign by typical

Western definitions. For many observers, the blatant imposition of Western ideologies

on a Muslim state raises questions about the worth of cultural violation for the sake of

democracy. While long-term evaluation of strategies and pitfalls will eventually yield

insight into ill-considered tactics, there are a host of readily observable symptoms and

underlying causes waiting to inform ongoing foreign development assistance.

Problem

Of particular interest to this study are the USG approaches to assistance for foreign law enforcement agencies. America has two principal reasons for supporting the development of capabilities and competencies in foreign police agencies, which have been well articulated in many fora: to aid in the development of foreign democracies and to curb the growth of transnational crime and terrorism. So thoroughly are these goals considered to be in the interest of the United States, that in February 2000, President Clinton issued Presidential Decision Directive 71, which provided for the coordination of USG assets for the purpose of deploying police and other criminal justice system advisers overseas, while also dramatically increasing the funding available for that purpose (Bayley, 2001). In the aftermath of the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq, there has been an unprecedented increase in the number of American police advisers working abroad, all of whom factor prominently into the mission to "democratize" the police. Care must be taken to ensure that this worthy ambition does not become that of reshaping the police in a way that is consistent with the only democratic experience most American police advisers are familiar with – the American experience. Between 2007 and 2008, the US Department of State (2009) reports expenditures of $6.7 billion on peace and security in foreign nations across the globe. Budget requests for 2009 are significantly higher, adding nearly $1 billion more to expected expenditures, as emphasis on security sector reforms continue to consume additional resources.

Clearly, police agencies do not create democracy, but they are one of the most

significant factors in providing a secure environment where democracy can grow and function.

> [T]he U.S. Government gradually learned a major policy lesson: that security is important to the development of democracy and police are important to the character of that security. Assisting in the democratic reform of foreign police systems has become a front-burner issue in American foreign policy. (Bayley, p. 5)

In attempting to provide a foundation for democratic evolution, the support and training of international police forces by American nationals continues to expand. When training mechanisms are homogenized, however, these efforts fail to address specific cognitive difficulties that arise from cross-cultural differences. Schwartz (1999) suggests that in discontinuous nations where ethnic and cultural diversity is widely represented, the homogenization of cultures as in Western society is non-existent and overriding value systems must be identified through frequency rather than constancy. While social value systems may translate across tribal boundaries within developing nations, the inability to unify divergent interests through the imposition of national expectations will often undermine standardized police and security training. The adoption of American style democratic policing probably does not have the potential to "fix" police agencies everywhere in the world, regardless of how dysfunctional or corrupt they might be.

Irrespective of one's political disposition or extent of agreement with prevailing American foreign policy, there's little doubt that the United States will continue to be

involved in foreign police assistance well into the future and the interests of all concerned are best cared for by pragmatically thinking about how tactics might be improved to produce more culturally relevant, and therefore more sustainable results. Investigating the role Cognitive Flexibility Theory can play in that process will be the focus of this research effort.

Purpose

Neither of America's stated goals, supporting democracy nor inhibiting transnational crime and terrorism, are well served by a cookie cutter approach to police development. In the smaller police assistance programs, the United States typically finances a series of short-term training courses and advisement in perceived areas of deficiency for a target law enforcement agency. Almost without exception, these offerings come in the form of standardized training curricula which attempt to imbue Western law enforcement ideals and lack the investment of time required to consider the variable culture and traditions within the host nation. Underdeveloped criminal justice systems will oftentimes lack clarity of mission and fall victim to corruption, thereby limiting the effectiveness of short-term standardized Western training products. Culture is a dominant and impactful determinant of each unique criminal justice system, therefore, any attempt to overwhelm such intimate beliefs and values through imposition must ultimately fail.   Specific vehicles of moderation and division such as the American expectation of separating church and state cannot be thrust upon societies where contrary values have governed for generations. Regardless, there have been instances where operatives of the American government have perpetuated a democratic movement that is

neither tailored nor moldable and which is prone to failure outside the context of the United States.

In Iraq, the largest police assistance program in history, I observed firsthand many manifestations of shortsightedness for how important it is to accommodate indigenous culture. Domestic and international pressures have regularly caused emphases on the ground to radically shift from quality-centered activities to quantity-centered activities. On the one hand, assistance givers have worked to rebuild a national police department from the ground up, providing for everything from recruitment and training, equipment and infrastructure, mentorship, policy development, and integration into the larger criminal justice system, while on the other hand, the most emphasized measures of success in the initiative did not show due regard for whether training and development efforts were relevant, or even well understood by Iraqi counterparts. Instead, the concept of success gradually became wedded to certain quantifiable targets, such as how many personnel were trained, and exercises to increase training throughput became the order of each day. That was accomplished in a number of ways, some of which, unfortunately, involved shortening training regimens to make classroom/barracks space available for more students over a given period of time. The definition of what constituted a "trained" Iraqi police officer was revised multiple times over the years and in my judgment, what limited cultural relevance police training ever had was diminished over time as well.

In the end, fantastic quantities of human hours and immense sums of money have been expended around the world but genuine and lasting change in foreign police agencies is not a universal result. Especially in the face of fragmented and corrupt

regimes and lingering unrest, foreign police receiving USG development assistance are at serious risk of being reduced to traditional, militant, and probably brutal guardians of state interests upon American disengagement. The best chance of circumventing such disappointing results rests with aligning development strategies with host country cultures.

This investigation contains no judgment on the righteousness of any foreign assistance mission undertaken by the United States; it aspires for objectivity promulgated on the demand for more culturally relevant training. The true challenge in international training is not exactly one of valid core subject matter, but rather of accommodation and support for diverse and oftentimes distant cultures. Carothers (1999) draws a fine point on the nature of the problem:

> Unconsciously or consciously, many Americans confuse the forms of
> American democracy with the concept of democracy itself. Theirs is an
> unfortunate combination of hubristic belief that America's political ways
> are the most democratic in the world and a lack of knowledge about
> political life in other democratic countries. (Carothers, p. 98)

Certainly, the training function is central and essential to reform in any law enforcement agency and the assistance programs under discussion here are no exception. Training simply for the sake of training gains little, but training that is circumspect about the role culture plays in the acceptance and understanding of students can be a powerful way to facilitate the transfer of meaning, ideas, and abilities. My experience in the field

has persuaded me that great strides toward that end can be made by the adoption of training models and methods that leverage, rather than minimize, cultural differences between trainer and trainee.

The United States Department of Justice, through its International Criminal Investigative Training and Assistance Program (ICITAP) is one USG asset used to provide foreign police assistance. ICITAP is a principal U.S. provider of police related organizational development, mentorship, and training. A guiding principle for ICITAP is to reaffirm the importance of human rights and dignity, along with professional police ethics in all of its overseas police assistance programs. The very notion of what is considered ethical behavior varies across cultures, but there are certain established international standards, such as the United Nations Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials, which provides a widely accepted baseline. If every police agency that ICITAP works with were to institutionalize and faithfully practice the UN standards, the world would indeed be a safer and better place where widespread democracy would have a much greater chance of taking root.

An ICITAP initiative in the Philippines, which is designed to increase the proficiency and competency of the Philippine National Police (PNP) provides the focal point of this study. Establishing a common understanding of professional ethics is a prerequisite to building an effective and transparent police organization and this investigation examines approaches to ethics training that differ from the traditional classroom lecture format. Data has been gathered and analyzed to find evidence of differences in learning effectiveness between the various training formats. Clearly, the

effectiveness of ethics training in cross-cultural settings is of particular concern to

ICITAP and the acquisition of greater understanding in this area could be very instructive

in making wise use of USG resources.

Theoretical Framework

Spiro, et al. first conceived of the principles of Cognitive Flexibility Theory

(CFT) in the mid-1980s and has continued to refine them to the present day. The

problem with previously existing theories of learning and instruction, as he saw it, was

that they relied heavily on using organized schemata as a basis for understanding and

applying knowledge (Spiro and Myers, 1984). He observed that given the complexity of

modern problem solving, "one could not have a pre-stored schema for everything that one

might encounter. Hence the notorious difficulty in producing "transfer," or the

reconfigured use of old knowledge in new situations that differ from the initial conditions

and contexts of learning." (Spiro, et al., 2003, p. 6). This weakness in traditional

instructional approaches is especially relevant to the problem under discussion in this

research. In fact, Spiro (2003) suggested that as educational difficulties arise naturally in

societies with similar cultural reference points, in cross-cultural initiatives, cultural

boundaries and a lack of shared experience can even further undermine education and

training. The American training approach is traditionally very linear in nature, with a

focus on mastery of sequential learning objectives, all of which must converge at the

same point in time and space when the student is subsequently called upon, in this case,

to make an ethical decision, which may be well after their primary training experience.

As an alternative approach, Spiro, et al. sought to "replace rigidly prepackaged

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knowledge structures with more open and adaptable ones" (2003, p.6). In his concept,

abstractions and general principles don't account for enough of the variability in the ways

we are required to use knowledge. Instead, he argues, we must have experience in

considering or mitigating large numbers of cases to understand how bits of conceptual

knowledge can be recombined in differing ways and applied in real-life contexts. (Spiro,

et al., 2003). This empirical modeling is based upon the relationship between practitioner

and the unknown, wherein situational developments must be evaluated and managed

according to prior learning and experience, as well as anticipated outcomes. In a policing

scenario, where variables are many, events unfold rapidly, and the stakes can be very

high, the ability to accurately predict and act toward particular outcomes on the basis of

standardized training alone is unrealistic and a potential opening for the application of

CFT exists.

The essential constructivist principle underpinning CFT is that authentic learning

for the purpose of solving ill-structured problems cannot be accomplished by proceeding

in a single direction. Instead, Spiro conceptualizes the process as "criss-crossing" the

knowledge content of a given domain, taking different approaches to wide ranging

problems:

> In teaching and learning, one proceeds from case to case (example to example)
>
> following different routes of organization on successive traversals of the
>
> knowledge landscape. Sometimes one returns to the same site (case), but coming
>
> from a different set of perspectives. Thus, different facets of each case are
>
> highlighted when juxtaposed to varying other cases (and seeing those multiple

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facets is essential in producing transferable knowledge). (Spiro, et al., 1992).

Although CFT utilizes a recognized industry constant of integrated problem solving techniques, the interaction and variability in each exercise and study provide a unique and translatable foundation. Godshalk, Harvey, & Moller (2004), see the primary instructional assumption of CFT this way: "…it is important for learners to view cases in an interconnected manner using themes and perspectives to better understand the complexities of the topic." (p. 508). Part of their research involved students in a graduate management course who were required to view a number of sexual harassment cases in an interconnected manner and from several perspectives, such as that of the victim, the harasser, a coworker, and an administrator. Students were also required to resolve cases in light of statutory and legal constraints. Such ethical investigation and analysis can be directly translated into the field of police training, highlighting those inconsistencies in values and beliefs that must be overcome in order to instill consistent decision making. Divergent perspectives on ethical decisions are inevitable in mixed-cultural scenarios, and there are certainly legal and moral ramifications in play as well. Just as Godshalk's graduate students gained a more comprehensive understanding of sexual harassment and how to apply that knowledge in dissimilarly structured cases, one might expect as well that police officers could gain greater competency in resolving potential ethical dilemmas, through a similarly structured training experience.

CFT diverges from traditional instructional approaches in its introduction of domain complexity early in the instructional experience. Optimized, traditional learning

requires the breakdown of conceptual units into isolated learning objectives. Later

reconstruction allows the learner to integrate theories and knowledge in an active and

connected manner. Such an approach might be most effective if in practice each sub-

concept operated independently of the other, but with complex ill-structured problems

that is not likely to be the case. Jacobson & Spiro (1995) explain that "… this approach

tends to oversimplify and decontextualize complex material. As an alternative, CFT

recommends the early introduction of complexity in a cognitively manageable manner

that still reflects some of the multifaceted interactions of various conceptual elements" (p.

304).

In the PNP ethics training research, experimental groups were exposed to

variations of simulations that required them to mitigate ethical dilemmas. The

participants were required to respond to these dilemmas from differing perspectives. A

role play component that was designed as a means of CFT exploitation in a culturally

diverse environment was integrated into a police ethics training course. The findings in

this investigation offer evidence to support the integration of CFT principles in cross-

cultural police training as a means of facilitating knowledge transfer and producing

culturally transcendent comprehension of principles.

Research Questions

The following questions indicate the scope of exploration pursued by this

investigation. By focusing analysis on these particular queries, the potential for data

corruption or confusion has been minimized and data streams remain relevant to the field

of cross-cultural training. Each question is answered through the synthesis of empirical

and theoretical research, providing a foundation for how CFT driven training regimens

may be translated across a broad range of participants.

> **RQ1:** *When non-Western police ethics students participate in training of an American design, are there differences in the comprehension of ethics principles, as evidenced by objective test performance, when the training approach includes: a) role play as a police officer faced with an ethical dilemma; b) role play as the victim of an unethical decision by a police officer; c) role play as a police administrator who supervises officers who have made unethical decisions; d) participation in several role play exercises wherein students alternately assume each role described in a, b, and c above; or e) traditional classroom lecture and discussion methods?*

> **RQ2:** *When non-Western police ethics students participate in training of an American design, are there differences in learning transfer, as evidenced by role play performance, when the training approach includes: a) role play as a police officer faced with an ethical dilemma; b) role play as the victim of an unethical decision by a police officer; c) role play as a police administrator who supervises officers who have made unethical decisions; or d) participation in several role play exercises wherein students alternately assume each role described in a, b, and c above?*

Both research questions assume that approximately the same length of time is dedicated

to the training experience in all cases. Only condition d in either case, in which

participants role play from multiple perspectives, faithfully adheres to the tenets of CFT.

Conditions a, b, and c break down the CFT inspired condition into its component parts,

which may help decipher whether one particular approach produces superior results over

others or if the combined CFT approach indeed produces a whole greater than the sum of

its parts.

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For both research questions, a sub-question is also posed, which contemplates whether any instructional approach considered here contributes to a more meaningful learning experience for PNP officers of different genders or with differing levels of police experience.

RQ1 and RQ2 Sub-Question: *Are there differences associated with gender and years of service and do gender and years of service modify the effects associated with the training strategies?*

Definitions

This investigation will frequently refer to the concept of learning transfer, an educational mechanism that is ambiguous yet essential to the CFT process. Just what constitutes transfer and how it might be observed or measured is an educational realm that in itself is the subject of extensive investigation and debate. Whatever it looks like, we know that it is the very essence of our successful systems of education and because people do in fact learn from one another, we know that it must exist. A well regarded contemporary body of work by Bransford & Schwartz (1999) suggests that learning transfer is in some measure evidenced as a reflection of a learner's preparation for future learning (PFL) within a given knowledge domain or related domains. That is, the mastery alone of certain facts, procedures, etc. does not constitute authentic learning – it is more accurately related to how the understanding of those elements and their relationships to one another can be adapted to new problem sets and how new meanings can be derived from them in future applications and in this regard, PFL has some commonalities with CFT. In reference to a hypothetical training program for new

teachers, Bransford and Schwartz observe "There is no preliminary education or training that can make these people experts; it can only place them on a trajectory towards expertise." (1999, p. 68).

A rather pessimistic view of our collective understanding of the nature of learning transfer is provided by Haskell (2001) with his assertion that "…research findings over the past nine decades clearly show that as individuals, and as educational institutions, we have failed to achieve transfer of learning on any significant level." (p. 30). I would temper Haskell's commentary by recognizing that the tremendous achievements of mankind are at many levels the result of learning transfer, notwithstanding our inability to precisely define what it is or how it works.

Crafting a satisfactory definition for "learning transfer" is outside the scope of this study and for the immediate purposes I shall hold with Spiro's line of thought that the ability to reconfigure knowledge for adaptation to new situations constitutes learning transfer. Mestre (2002) explains that a similar definition has been endorsed by the National Science Foundation: "We define transfer of learning…broadly to mean the ability to apply knowledge or procedures learned in one context to new contexts" (p. 3). In this investigation, attempts at measuring that transfer come principally through the evaluation of role play performance scores. Of equal importance to the study are the comparison of pre- and posttest written examination scores, but they are considered to represent the comprehension of ethics principles, a somewhat lesser construct than learning transfer.

Delimitations

This study involves the examination of the effectiveness of police ethics training designed by the U.S. Department of Justice/International Criminal Investigative Training Assistance Program and delivered to officers of the Philippine National Police. The instructional methods employed include classroom training and role playing exercises, where different treatment groups play roles of differing characters or a combination thereof. The training and facilitation are led by an American instructor with assistance from a Filipino instructor and the primary goal here is to determine which, if any, of the instructional approaches produces better performance on an objective posttest and how they affect observed performance in role playing exercises.

Limitations

This study involves a very narrowly defined group of participants – adult Filipinos serving as police officers and employed in good standing with the Philippine National Police at the time of the experiment. The internal generalizability of these study findings is likely to be high, in part because the participants represent a robust cross-section of PNP officers that include both genders, varied years of experience, various ranks and organizational assignments. Caution must be exercised, however, in terms of external generalizability, as Filipino culture is unique and distinct from any other and it has been heavily influenced by and intimately entwined with American culture and politics over the past 100 years.

Significance of the Study

Given the extensive involvement of the U.S. Government in foreign assistance

programs that involve training of foreign police personnel, the tremendous taxpayer

resources expended, and the high stakes nature of global security in the modern world,

the implications are gravely significant when the quality of training is inadequate. The

following work is intended to explore one possible path toward introspection, quality

control, and ultimately, the advancement of the rule of law.

Summary

While the U.S. Government invests billions of dollars each year in foreign police

assistance efforts, no scholarly research effort is known to have been undertaken to

investigate ways of maximizing the effectiveness of the training component of those

efforts. Because literacy problems are often in play in foreign assistance programs,

simulation training offers a promising complement to traditional classroom approaches

and ICITAP has employed them from time to time. However, it is noted that American

designed simulations are most often conceived from a uniquely American perspective.

With tactical subjects, such as how to fire a weapon, operate a vehicle, or manipulate

some other tangible object, there may be an argument to be made that cultural differences

have a lesser impact, but in the case of training that involves higher order thinking and

the exercise of judgment that would be recognized as sound by the international

community, there can be many disconnects across cultures that American trainers are

typically not prepared to address. Of course, Americans are not uniquely challenged in

endeavors of this sort – these issues are manifest in any bilateral relationship between

teachers and students of different cultural backgrounds. The frequent references to

American practices herein arise from the fact that this study is conducted within the

context of an American foreign assistance program. The study will seek to apply the

principles of Cognitive Flexibility Theory to these training situations to discover

approaches that maximize the potential for effective learning.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter explores some of the extant literature relative to CFT, police training, and Hofstede's dimensions in cultural analysis. All sources were found within a broad range of academic literature including journals, industry publications, and books. The comparison of such theories across the spectrum of intercultural training provides insight into the challenges which impact Westernized training strategies in a non-Western environment. Spiro's (1993) CFT principles of teaching and learning require advanced cognitive programming that rejects traditional methods of knowledge dissection and recombination. Yet regardless of pedagogical strategy, Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions will demonstrate that innate differences between teachers and learners in multicultural endeavors may ultimately require a high degree of cultural alignment to be successful. This research will further explore these concepts and the existing state of police education as it is conducted in a Western environment.

As international training exercises continue to advance to mixed results, the support of more targeted program design strategies can enable organizations to improve their results and encourage increasingly active learning. As a theory of learning and instruction, Spiro, et al (2003) has developed CFT around four explicitly stated goals, three of which I believe can be directly capitalized upon to the benefit of training models for police ethics instruction in cross-cultural settings:

Goal 1: Helping people to learn important but difficult subject matter. CFT, with its strategies to replace superficial understanding of concepts and memorization of facts with more meaningful and deeper understandings, is probably most readily thought of as an appropriate instructional theory where very detailed and complex problem solving is

required. There might also be a tendency by some American observers to make the argument that ethical decisions do not rise to that level of complexity – there is simply a wrong way and right way for police to make impartial decisions. Unfortunately, such suppositions are simply inaccurate even in a homogenous cultural setting, but most especially when translated across diverse cultural value systems. The decision making process is complex due to numerous factors and the need to process a large number of variables, e.g., second and third order effects of decision making. Even if one chooses to pursue the argument that sorting out any of these single variables is in itself a straightforward process, the decision point that must be engaged at their nexus is not – and its complexity is often compounded by the demand for immediacy. Spiro, et al (1992) identify precisely this problem when they observe that "[D]eficiencies in the outcomes of learning are strongly influenced by underlying biases and assumptions in the design of instruction which represent the instructional domain and its associated performance demands in an unrealistically simplified and well-structured manner" (p 57). Spiro's underlying biases and assumptions in this case might include a failure to take into account cultural differences between curriculum writers, instructors, and students.

Goal 2: Fostering adaptively flexible use of knowledge in real-world settings.
CFT, by way of approaching cases from multiple perspectives to differing problems, is designed to prepare learners to use prior understandings and experiences to optimize problem solving capacity under conditions that differ from the initial conditions of learning. Such comprehension must become immediately accessible when unique scenarios are encountered that require the reaction to stimuli and the formulation of

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responses. This assembling of knowledge, rather than reliance on a mentally stored prescription of thought or action allows experts in the field to respond in a rapid and rational manner. For police officers, premature action or hesitancy to act must certainly often be related to confusion arising from a previously un-encountered problem, which requires a reorganization of thought to mitigate the problem. At a minimum, successfully achieving this CFT goal could make that reorganization process more efficient, if not instinctive. Spiro, et al (1992) identifies the remedy for learning deficiencies as requiring "the inculcation of learning processes that afford greater cognitive flexibility…when the knowledge must later be used, the ability to construct from those different conceptual and case representations a knowledge ensemble tailored to the needs of the understanding or problem-solving situation at hand" (p. 59). For police officers in many developing countries, the notion that any view of ethical behavior other than the view of the police themselves has any value or is worthy of consideration, may be a new concept. CFT's multiple perspective approach to learning is potentially useful in addressing this problem and contributing to police behavior that is more just and unbiased.

Goal 3: Changing underlying ways of thinking. CFT is not simply concerned with successful problem resolution, but more importantly with changing epistemological beliefs and habits of mind that people employ when approaching the acquisition and use of knowledge. Spiro, et al. (2003) finds that more often than not, "…worldviews are premised on assumptions of simplicity…that interfere with the development of complex understanding and the ability to apply knowledge to a wide variety of real-world concepts" (p. 5). It's exactly because of the conflict between an officer's underlying

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values and other factors in play that overreaction or under reaction may occur. Officers who harbor certain biases may tend to cast the police as always in the right and challengers as always in the wrong and therefore see the police as incapable of making wrong decisions. By expanding the worldview of police officers through training designs that employ techniques of case-based problem solving on multiple, related cases that convey multiple perspectives, there might be some value in "normalizing" their underlying thought, within the context of attendant legal and ethical concerns. Jonassen (cited in Reigeluth, 1999), suggests that when teaching for a purpose such as how to resolve ethical dilemmas, we must "…provide divergent personal interpretations of the dilemma as well as interpretations of similar ethical conundrums, in order to convey thematic perspectives. By contrasting the cases, learners construct their own interpretations" (p.225). As it stands today, the biases and preconceptions that most police officers bring with them to the job go unchallenged in the training process and it would be rare to find a training program outside the Western world that requires the consideration of alternate perspectives in the field of police ethics.

Implications for Instructional Systems Design

Many theorists categorize types of learning into three distinct domains: cognitive, affective or motor. (Reigeluth & Moore, 1999, p. 52). Traditional Western approaches to police ethics training are primarily to treat it as if it is simply the development of a set of cognitive skills, each building upon the previous and emphasis is almost exclusively on objective rules, regulations, and procedures – a decidedly low context approach. Consequently, this approach oversimplifies the process of assessing an ethical dilemma in

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non-Western, high context cultures, where ethics training goals can be better addressed if the training approach crosses all three learning domains. There is a widespread perception among police training professionals that through repeated drill and reinforcement in contrived simulations, that officer reaction and decision making becomes "instinctive." In this sense, "instinctive" takes on a meaning akin to "automatic," in that the training goal is for officers to instantly react according to a pre-existing set of rules, without having to deliberately walk through all the steps involved in fully assessing the situation. This insufficiency in instructional methods is sometimes a direct cause of overreaction or inaction, leading to improper decision making in the field. Instinct as it should be defined in this discussion is an inherent ability or capacity to respond to external stimuli, which is grounded in previous experience. If previous experience amounts to not much more than training to safeguard the interests of the police when faced with an ethical dilemma, then the training approach is insufficient to meet the problem solving needs of the officer and it is not surprising that failures occur.

How then might the principles of CFT be adapted for this purpose? One key feature of the theory that could contribute substantially is the focus on multiple juxtapositions of instructional content, including revisiting the same material at different times in rearranged contexts, from different conceptual perspectives. Spiro, et al. (1992) sees this as essential for attaining the goals of advanced knowledge acquisition which refers to mastery of complexity in understanding and preparation for transfer (p. 61-64). There is a preference in law enforcement training models to "train as you fight," that is, the best preparation for any situation is usually considered to be practice in realistic

simulated conditions. Certainly there must be value in such instructional activities, principally in the fact that they serve to refine linkages between cognitive skills and motor skills. However, the design of such scenarios might be improved upon with careful consideration of their construction. It could prove quite useful for police officer trainees to assume different roles in these scenarios, such as that of innocent bystanders or victims - or on a higher plane, as an internal affairs investigator or other governmental administrator responsible for evaluating and making judgments on the appropriateness of incidents involving police decision making, after taking into consideration opposing views. In keeping with CFT philosophy, each student should be exposed to a wide variety of scenarios, each of which has fluidity and in which alternative outcomes are possible, requiring the adaptation of knowledge to each new circumstance. And, the curriculum should allow for multiple exposures to each scenario.

Reworking scenarios in simulation training might represent good progress, but that is not to say that a more conventional paper-and-pencil adaptation of case-based problem solving has no legitimate place in ethics training. One of CFT's stated goals that has great potential value in this endeavor is that of changing underlying ways of thinking, which can be fully supported by well designed cases. Early on in a police recruit's training experience, he or she should be exposed to written and other visual representations of potential ethical dilemmas, with the facts presented from different perspectives. Such exercises could easily be accomplished with the usual sorts of hypermedia common to other CFT implementations, to include video vignettes where the action in an unfolding event can be paused and input from the student elicited. Well

structured aides of this type should be flexible enough in design to allow multiple paths

through the situation, as well as multiple outcomes. An occasional criticism of

hypermedia interfaces is that "there is a tendency for learners to become 'lost in

hyperspace," (McKnight, Dillon & Richardson, 1991, cited in Dalgarno) thereby

distracting from the desired learning. The key to overcoming such difficulties lies in the

thoughtful design of intuitive and comprehensive interfaces, so that the technology does

not overshadow the content.

Of course, PNP students who participate in this study will bring with them pre-

existing knowledge schemas (as will the curriculum writers and instructors who prepare

and deliver the lessons), which will influence how they make meaning of the training. Of

particular interest to this study is the discovery of methods of instruction that best span

the gaps in the ways new knowledge is adapted to existing schemas by Westerners and

non-Westerners, in order to produce a shared understanding of concepts and similar

applications of those concepts to real life situations by either group. A term sometimes

used to describe such learning is "meaningful learning," which "refers to the process of

relating potentially meaningful information to what the learner already knows in a

nonarbitrary and substantive way." (Driscoll, p. 117). Without question, knowledge is

assimilated and represented in different ways among individuals of different cultures –

constructivist theorists would assert this is true even between individuals of the same

culture. The challenge for cross-cultural trainers becomes that of the presentation of

instruction in a fashion that accommodates what the learner brings to the experience and

allows him or her to adapt it accordingly, such that the outcome is meaningful learning

that ultimately has the same meaning to both trainer and student.

Ausubel (1960, 1962) was among the first to examine the nature of meaningful learning and his early work grew into what he termed Assimilation Theory (Ausubel, Novak, & Hanesian, 1978), which in turn laid some of the foundation for later work done in the development of various schema related theories by other scholars. Throughout his research, Ausubel was mindful of the distinctions between rote learning and meaningful learning and he studied in great detail how each type of learning was related to the knowledge schema that students bring to their learning experiences and he suggested that three conditions were required for meaningful learning to occur. His first condition was that learners must be motivated to learn the material, with which few of us would disagree. The second condition concerns the relevance and clarity of the material to be learned, which helps to enable the student to learn. But it is his third condition that is of greater interest here, which is related to what learners already know and how it relates to what they are seeking to learn. "…[E]xisting cognitive structure, that is, an individual's organization, stability, and clarity of knowledge is the principal factor influencing the learning and retention of meaningful new material." (Ausubel, 1963, p. 217). Culture defines in great measure how these pre-existing schema work and how they are organized.

An all too common belief among international police trainers is that their subject matter is not dependent on the pre-existing knowledge of the student, rather it is something completely new and objective that simply has to be learned as the instructor him or herself knows it, and once accomplished will provide the student with the same

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practical benefits enjoyed by the instructor. But such an approach denies the differences

in symbolic representations that different individuals use to develop mental models

(Chun & Plass, 1997) and which they must rearrange to create new knowledge when

faced with problems not previously encountered. Successful cross-cultural training is not

that which somehow neutralizes the effect of culture on a student's learning processes,

but instead allows him or her to assimilate information into their existing schema in ways

that also leads to the desired outcome. This suggests that in the construction of course

materials and instructional methodologies, there's a balance to be found between teaching

to the pre-existing schemas of both learner and instructor. Robinson (1985) sees the

solution as "neither a methodology based exclusively on the learner's home culture nor

one based exclusively on the new cultural context," but instead it should be to "build a

bridge between the old and the new by providing culturally familiar content as a point of

departure for introducing culturally unfamiliar content at every level of instruction" (p.

17).

Black and Mendenhall (1990) have put forward the idea that in cross-cultural

training situations, behavior modification training may be an effective means by which to

produce learning outcomes. Police ethics training in many cases will imply that behavior

modification is deemed necessary and their model can inform the design of course

materials for this research. Based on Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), behavior

modification training consists of four basic components: Attention, Retention,

Reproduction, and Incentive. The progression through such components enables the

police trainee to react appropriately across a broad range of scenarios; however, my thesis

here is that programming instituted according to CFT standards better facilitates that progression for students with a different cultural background.

As summarized by Driscoll (2000), the Attention component derives from the idea that students must see a behavior modeled before they can learn to adopt it themselves and their attention is caught when the person modeling the behavior possesses a status the student sees as desirable. Retention is concerned with how students can remember new behaviors, that is, how they can adapt and incorporate them into their own cognitive schema. Principally, retention is a function of practice and repetition. Reproduction is the ability of the student to demonstrate learned behaviors, and Incentive refers to the internal and external motivators that induce learners to reproduce behaviors. "The essence of SLT is that learning is affected by both observation and experience, and that people anticipate actions and their associated consequences." (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000, p. 179).

An additional cultural consideration in this research will be to avoid what Bruner termed "intrinsic anticulturalism" (1973, p. 20) in the design of course materials. As Driscoll (2000, p. 235) explains, it is a weak instructional design that seeks context-free approaches to cognitive development and further, designs that focus on "universal structures of the mind that are presumably unaffected by cultural differences" deny the realities of how people from different cultural milieus assimilate, store, and use knowledge. Bruner observed that "intelligence is to a great extent the internalization of tools provided by a given culture" (1973, p. 22) and how these "tools" are brought to bear on a given learning situation will greatly influence learning outcomes. The instructional

design here must be one that permits the ethics students to contemplate and resolve problems in a context that is both useful and relevant to him or her as a Philippine police officer.

Policing Theory and the Evolution of Police Training

As criminal justice has evolved to become a practical and consistent mechanism of civilized societies, explicit training programs have simultaneously evolved as a means of standardization and governance. Reiss (1980) proposed an early model of police force training in which probability played a significant role in reducing the potential use of deadly force. Through his guidance, alternatives which might lead to unnecessary use of force were eliminated from police protocol; while those factors which perpetuated alternative methods of situational management were taught. Yet his findings impose a cultural expectation for cognitive processing, whereby the homogenized expectations of the American police force could be readily predicted. Such assumptions cannot effectively translate across diverse cultural contexts.

As policing models developed, they included a more empirical focus, attempting to overcome the deficiencies associated with single stage psychological mapping. Scharf and Binder (1983) suggested that there are four stages in police encounters including anticipation, entry, information exchange, and the final decision. Throughout the first three stages, the probability of using deadly force in the fourth stage can be reduced through adequate training and situational coaching. Focusing on entry and information exchange and providing alternatives to police trainees can dramatically improve the potential for the use of force based errors and the unnecessary loss of human life.

Ultimately, the main objective of such psychological programming is to allow for the active elimination of alternatives at a rapid pace when under stress.

One of the more practical means of training police candidates is to include role playing and field based scenarios. Helsen and Starkes (1999) suggest that adequate training procedures spawn from perceptual modeling, whereby officers are offered field scenarios that are realistic, adaptable, and meaningful. The cognitive processing through incident, response, and action challenges officers to address alternative options and intuit responses, effectively providing simulated experience prior to fieldwork. The pitfall of such modeling in international training environments is that performance in various scenarios requires prior practical and meaningful experience, which may or may not have been acquired prior to the training exercise (Helsen and Starkes, 1999).

Hofstede, Schwartz, and the Cultural Distance Equation

The nature of cultural distance is one which cannot be explicitly defined. Such tacit knowledge must be learned and experienced before it can be understood or interpreted. The most successful theories in this spectrum of research evolve from a receptive perspective in which alternative values and views are welcomed in spite of their differentiation from local systems. Hofstede (1993) views culture as a form of collective programming, diverse cultures are distinguished and differentiated by their access to locally held values, beliefs, and expectations. For this reason alone, attempting to simply transfer a Westernized training program directly into a non-Western environment is inadvisable, if only for the minimal translatability across the international cultures. In spite of such difficulties in cultural translation, there are components that can be

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universally linked, connecting value systems in spite of broader international differences.

Exemplifying the factors that impact functions in multinational organizations, investigation into the conflict between Eastern and Western values has provided researchers with tangible programming challenges. Within Hofstede's (1984) model of uncertainty avoidance, the peoples of nations such as the United States and Australia tend to be comfortable with low levels of uncertainty avoidance, while Eastern cultures, such as in Japan and Korea place extreme emphasis on uncertainty avoidance. Such findings convey implications for employee training programs, specifically within the area of security and policing, as levels of autonomy and uncertainty management strategies are fundamentally divergent across international borders. Such dysfunction will equate to catastrophic system breakdowns, especially during times of security emergencies. Without adequate training, the ability to circumvent such failure will be directly mitigated, undermining all participative policing practices.

Hoftstede (2001) defined and modernized the power distance index which rated various international cultures on their unique affectation by power and interpersonal distance. This investigation of human authority divides many efforts to transfer Westernized training objectives into non-Western settings. In multinational environments, cultural dissonance based on power distance differentials will ultimately determine the relationship and responses between learners and trainers as well as the underlying meaning extracted from the message itself. High power-distance cultures thrive in autocratic environments where management maintains specific authorities and privileges in a rigid hierarchical system; while low power distance cultures are

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decentralized and encourage workforce egalitarianism and autonomy (Tavakoli et al., 2003). Most Westerners can readily see the trouble with attempting to impose an autocratic system on a decentralized organization - the potential system breakdown is practically inevitable. And the reverse would be equally evident to many of Eastern cultural backgrounds. Leaders seeking to inspire and persuade must access particular cultural variables that are innately linked to power-distance programming, ensuring that participants are satisfied according to their cultural beliefs.

As the arguments surrounding culture have developed and evolved, Hofstede (2002) has maintained that culture itself is merely a constructed definition of intangible variables which offers decision makers a means of qualifying specific, categorical definitions of behavior. Therefore, his position is one of recognition, not programming. The flagrant abuse of cultural values through attempts at overwhelming or readjusting will simply result in internal turmoil and discontinuity of actions. In order to operate within a diverse and oftentimes unique cultural environment, organizations must employ tactical and strategic methods which correlate actions with reception, ensuring that all participants are equally accepting of the broadly focused expectations.

There are also specific cultural components that relate to individualist and collectivist actions. Hofstede (2001) suggested that the individualism-collectivism relationship helps to explain cultural value systems and the relationship between individuals in each unique social structure. The more overt collective behaviors that are expressed, the more likely individuals will excel at group-work and participative activities. This ranking index is negatively correlated with the power distance index in

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many cultures, as high individualism will often signal low power-distance. Erdogan and

Linden (2006) challenge that within collectivist societies, the power-distance relationship

directly impacts the overall response to justice based scenarios, whereby group based

emphases will be more prevalent than in non-collectivist communities. The expectation

of equality among group members in a collectivist culture will produce dissention when it

is perceived that certain members of the group are inordinately rewarded for their efforts.

In other societies, however, individual actions are deemed representative of personal

achievement, not of group processes, thereby mandating individual reward systems.

Each of these conflicting cultural foundations must be satisfied according to the

components unique to that environment.

While Hofstede maintains the preeminent position for cultural distance

investigation, his work is not without its critics. A chief weakness in the Hofstede

approach to understanding culture is that his measurement instruments consider culture as

corresponding to national identity. Alternative theories have surfaced over the past

decade of academic research, challenging his authority and generalized presentation of

cultural differences. Under direct analysis, researchers suggest that value systems must

be identified according to more specific action/reaction components as evidenced in

various diverse societies. Schwartz (1999) defines values as 'conceptions of the

desirable that guide the way social actors select actions, evaluate people and events, and

explain their actions and evaluations' (p. 24). What is most important within this

definition is that actions are deemed 'desirable' by the society in which the actors

participate, thereby suggesting that distance in cultural value systems will generate

inconsistencies in multicultural interactions. Schwartz's (1999) representation of value

systems directly conflicts with Western attempts to infiltrate other societies with training

and objectives; the resultant dissonance will cause withdrawal and immediate rejection.

To overcome the cultural rift in multinational organizations and operations,

alternative methodologies must be integrated into communication, activity, and

participation. Schwartz (1999) suggests that in discontinuous nations where ethnic and

cultural diversity is widely represented, the homogenization of cultures as in Western

society is non-existent and overriding value systems must be identified through frequency

rather than constancy. Yet while social value systems may translate across tribal

boundaries, for developing nations, the inability to unify such interests according to a

national guideline will ultimately undermine standardized police and security training.

Schwartz's (1999) seven value types can be defined as follows (pp. 26-27):

- Conservatism: Cultural emphasis on maintenance of the status quo (restraint, limitations, propriety)

- Intellectual Autonomy: Cultural emphasis on individual intellectualism

- Affective Autonomy: Cultural emphasis on individual experientialism (positive, pleasurable, exciting)

- Hierarchy: Cultural emphasis on unequal distribution of power, roles, and resources

- Egalitarianism: Cultural emphasis on commitment to the welfare of others

- Mastery: Cultural emphasis on success through self-assertion (ambition, success, abilities)

- Harmony: Cultural emphasis on environmental cooperation (protection, enjoyment, unity)

Returning to Hofstede's collectivist investigation, there are variances intra-organizationally that can negatively impact the functionality of international operations. Within the context of individual work place value systems, Schwartz and Surkiss (1999) challenge that the pursuit of unique value systems may simultaneously conflict with the universal standard of culturally accepted behavior. The primary reasoning behind such divergence is the overwhelming influence that each of the unique value indicators has on job performance and satisfaction. The following list includes the empirically determined single values which are endogenous yet socially influenced (Schwartz and Surkiss, 1999, p. 52):

- Power: Status, prestige, control, dominance

- Achievement: Personal success (governed by social standards)

- Hedonism: Pleasure and gratification

- Stimulation: Excitement and daily change

- Self-Direction: Independence, exploration, creativity

- Universalism: Level of understanding and protection for people and nature

- Benevolence: Preservation and enhancement of welfare for personal contacts

- Tradition: Respect, commitment, customs, cultural traditions, ideals

- Conformity: Restraint and self-governance

- Security: Safety and stability in relationships and society

Conclusions and Research Implications

The opportunities offered by the Spiro, et al. (1993) CFT method have yet to be fully explored as they relate to police training and field based cognitive evolution. Recognizing that Hofstede (2001) and Schwartz (1999) have expanded the body of related research beyond ethnocentric homogenization of cultural interactions, the addition of emergent CFT based cognition could positively impact the performance of international training exercises. This research has explored a range of academic theories including various learning domains (Reigeluth and Moore, 1999), meaningful learning (Ausubel, 1960), and internal mental models (Chun and Plass, 1997). Each of these prescriptive learning methodologies implies a uniqueness amongst diverse cultures that differentiates technique and outcome regardless of the expected response. What is fundamental in such training processes is the difference between experiential learning processes that overwhelm value systems and habitual behavior.

With ethical training for police officers, the relationship between past and present cannot be truly linked through classroom instruction and a Westernized process of layered learning. Instead, this investigation demonstrates how the power-distance and individual-collective index (Hofstede, 2001) will serve as moderating influences for students. Furthermore, Schwartz (1999) suggests that there is a diverse range of value types and indicators that must be satisfied in order to achieve lasting change. Applying such findings to the CFT model of Spiro et al. (2003) enables instructors to access intrinsic, empirically defined value systems that might otherwise remain blanketed by unconscious distancing. This research will provide further evidence of a cognitive

strategy for introducing Westernized ethics concepts into non-Western cultural systems.

The logical next step in this investigation is the development of a careful research design that combines current best practices with case-based problem solving techniques and organizes them all within a CFT compatible system of instruction. An experiment has been designed wherein various groups of similarly situated Filipino police trainees are exposed to multiple approaches to ethics training, including the traditional classroom approach, various role playing approaches, and a CFT-based hybrid role play. Evaluation of student performance through a series of capstone simulations and objective tests will provide some insight as to the value of the CFT approaches. Assuming those results can be replicated in successive iterations of the experiment, support for larger scale implementations could be justified.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODS

The preceding chapters in this study have presented training challenges that are difficult to overcome when attempting to implement a police training program of Western design in other cultures. Several specific questions are raised through academic analysis and interpretation, which will be explored in greater detail in the following pages. With the aim of improving cross-cultural police training, each of the three research questions restated here has evolved from a pragmatic look at needs in the field and the review of extant literature on the subject:

> **RQ1:** *When non-Western police ethics students participate in training of an*
>
> *American design, are there differences in the comprehension of ethics principles, as evidenced by objective test performance, when the training approach includes: a) role play as a police officer faced with an ethical dilemma; b) role play as the victim of an unethical decision by a police officer; c) role play as a police administrator who supervises officers who have made unethical decisions; d) participation in several role play exercises wherein students alternately assume each role described in a, b, and c above; or e) traditional classroom lecture and discussion methods?*
>
> **RQ1 sub-question:** *Are there differences associated with gender and years of service and do gender and years of service modify the effects associated with the training strategies?*
>
>
> **RQ2:** *When non-Western police ethics students participate in training of an American design, are there differences in learning transfer, as evidenced by role play performance, when the training approach includes: a) role play as a police officer faced with an ethical dilemma; b) role play as the victim of an unethical decision by a police officer; c) role play as a police administrator who supervises officers who have made unethical decisions; or d) participation in several role play exercises wherein students alternately assume each role described in a, b, and c above?*

RQ2 sub-question: *Are there differences associated with gender and years of service and do gender and years of service modify the effects associated with the training strategies?*

These questions inform a layered approach to this investigation in which data was extracted from a participant base utilizing standardized research techniques. While CFT could be interpreted through a broad range of methods and implementation schemes, examination of the particular combination of variables in Research Question 1 can offer expanded insight from a cross-cultural police training context. The objectives of this study include the identification of any potential benefits of CFT design considerations that could be applied in future cross-cultural training endeavors. The comparative analysis of participant data offers increased validity and draws conclusions that may be translatable across a wider range of scenarios.

Theoretical Framework

Literacy problems are often in play in foreign assistance programs and ICITAP has in the past employed alternative approaches to training, in addition to traditional classroom formats, to meet the challenge. One promising approach to training that to some extent bridges the literacy gap is the use of simulations. Depending on the circumstances, simulations may take many forms including paper and pencil exercises, role-playing exercises, or computer-aided simulations.

As discussed in Chapter Two, central to the construction of the simulations that are the subject of this investigation, are the principles of Cognitive Flexibility Theory

(CFT), which focuses on learning, situated in ill-structured domains. Cognitive flexibility refers to the ability to restructure knowledge into an adaptive response to changing situations (Spiro, et al, 1987). The ability of an individual to do so is a product of both how knowledge is internally represented and the processes at work on those representations. According to CFT, the ability to transfer knowledge beyond the initial conditions under which it was acquired is supported by the presentation of information from multiple perspectives and the use of many case studies that provide differing examples. The theory also suggests that learning is context dependent and instruction must be very specific. CFT builds upon the work of earlier constructivist theorists, such as Piaget (1969) and Bruner (1973), and considers learning as an active process of individual meaning creation from experiences. The overarching goal of this sort of research should be to discover how to best create learning experiences that foster rich and adaptable internal representations of the subject matter in individual learners.

Study Sample

In this investigation, potential study participants were the entire population of PNP officers who were selected by the PNP to attend police ethics training over a two month period ($N = 300$ during the experimental timeframe), as part of their ordinary and ongoing in-service training regimen. These PNP students volunteered at very high rates to allow their scores to be included in the quantitative analyses that follow – volunteers numbered 263, or 87.6% of the prospective participant pool.

Demographically, 224 (85.2%) of the participants were male, while 39 (14.8%) were female, as represented in Figure 1. Organization-wide, the PNP has approximately

125,000 personnel, of which approximately 11,000 (8.8%) are female. Female officers

were over-represented among the participants, but the sample is considered roughly

representative of gender distribution in the PNP and does not cause great concern for

generalizability of results.

The minimum length of service for any participant was one year and the

maximum length was 32 years ($M = 8.21$, $SD = 7.04$). Within the sample, 56% had

served less than 6 years, while 32% of the group had served more than 10 years. For the

female participants, the mean years of service was 6.41 ($SD = 6.90$), while for the men,

this number increased to just over 8.51 ($SD = 7.02$). That the mean years of service for

male officers would be higher than for females cannot be considered unexpected - the
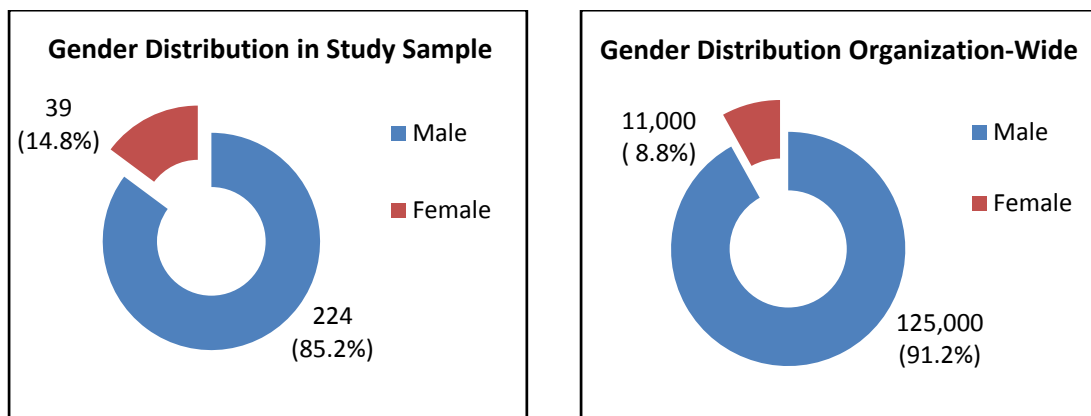
Figure 1. Comparison of Gender Distribution Between Study Sample and PNP
Organization-Wide.

PNP, like most police agencies around the world, has been a male dominated

organization for many years and it has only been over the past two decades that female

officers have grown significantly in number. Figure 2 provides a complete breakdown of participant years of service.
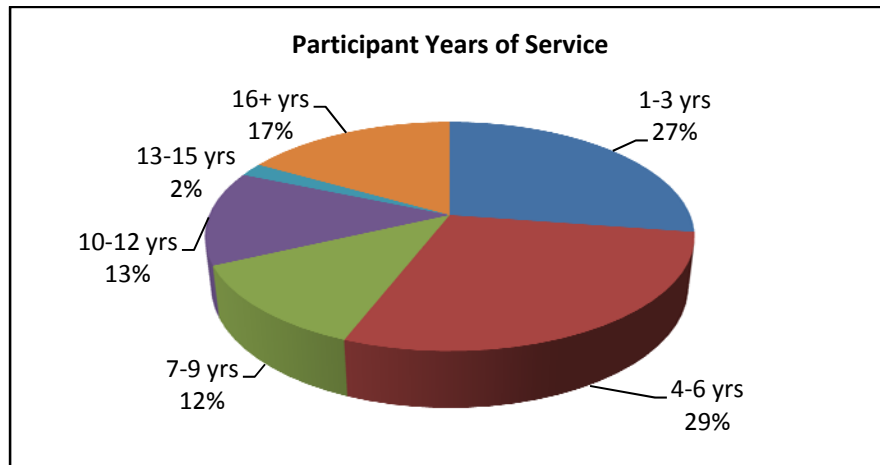
Figure 2. Study Participant Years of Service.

Experiment Design

A quasi-experimental research design was employed, whereby the research questions were addressed through the interpretation of data gathered largely via quantitative means. Only the inability to satisfy the requirement of true random assignment prevents this design from being considered a true experimental design. Participant assignment to treatment condition was a function of when they were selected by PNP to attend training – the training dates for the control group and the four treatment groups had been determined in advance as part of the experiment design. While the investigator had no influence over which participant was assigned to attend training on a certain date (and therefore assigned to a given treatment condition), neither was there a possibility of assignment to any treatment condition for an individual participant, other

than the treatment group designated for the dates of his or her attendance in the ethics training course. It should be noted, however, that personnel of the PNP who assigned participants to attend training were unaware of the treatment condition distinctions between ethics courses and there was no possibility that a particular participant could have purposely been assigned to a particular treatment condition. The criterion for training attendance was simply a matter of whether an officer was due for in-service ethics training.

This design is driven by principles of a pragmatic research paradigm (Mertens, 2005), in that it is concerned solely with revealing those pedagogical approaches that produce the best results in a very narrowly defined cross-cultural setting. Building a strong case for a particular pedagogical approach for ethics training can have widespread implications for how USG carries out its foreign assistance programs in the future and can also provide ample opportunities for replication of this study. This experiment was conducted at a PNP police training facility located at the PNP National Headquarters, Camp Crame, Quezon City, Philippines, over the autumn of 2007.

Quantitative Methods. The 263 participants were assigned to one of five conditions, with between 41 and 60 participants in each. The participant groups can be described as follows:

- *Control Group* – students received police ethics training through traditional classroom lecture & discussion methods

- *Experimental Group 1: Single Role Simulation 1* – after exposure to an abbreviated classroom presentation, students participated in role-playing simulations where they took on the role of a police officer confronted with ethical dilemmas. For clarity, this participant group will hereinafter be referred to as the *officer* group.

- *Experimental Group 2: Single Role Simulation 2* – after exposure to an abbreviated classroom presentation, students participated in role-playing simulations where they took on the role of a police supervisor with responsibility for resolving an unethical decision made by a subordinate officer. Throughout this manuscript, this participant group will be referenced as the *supervisor* group.

- *Experimental Group 3: Single Role Simulation 3* – after exposure to an abbreviated classroom presentation, students participated in role-playing simulations where they took on the role of a person victimized by a police officer's unethical decision. This participant group will be denoted as the *victim* group.

- *Experimental Group 4: Multi Role Simulation* – after exposure to an abbreviated classroom presentation, students participate in role-playing simulations where they are required to take on varying roles,

including those of Groups 1, 2, and 3. This participant group will be referred to as the *all three conditions* group.

Each group was allocated the same total instructional time of two days and was instructed by the same team of experts. A standard pretest and posttest was administered under identical circumstances to participants of each group and the quantitative experimental design can be depicted as:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
O & & O \\
O & X_1 & O \\
O & X_2 & O \\
O & X_3 & O \\
O & X_4 & O \\
\end{array}
$$
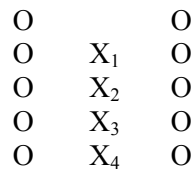
Qualitative Methods: A short questionnaire was provided to all participants at the completion of the ethics training courses, which included three open-ended questions:

- *How has your understanding of police ethics changed since you took part in the role playing exercises?*

- *In what ways will your professional behavior change because of your attendance in this class?*

- *How will your experience in this class help you make ethical decisions in real life?*

These questions were thought to be potentially useful in gathering insight about the participants' perceptions of the value of the training experience and perhaps the impact

they might have on their comprehension of police ethics and participants' future

professional activities.

Analyses

Quantitative Analyses: At the conclusion of the training activity, group means

were calculated on pretest and posttest scores and a one-way analysis of variance

(ANOVA) provides the central evidence of differentiation between pedagogical

approaches, as measured by the testing instruments and role play performance. In

instances when a statistically significant difference was revealed, pairwise multiple

comparisons were conducted utilizing Tukey's HSD test, to confirm which groups

evidenced the best and least gains. Post hoc tests are suitable for this analysis because of

the presence of a true control group and are effective multiple comparison procedures in

terms of retaining the nominal alpha level, while correcting for family-wise Type I error.

The null hypotheses in the following analyses generally suggest that no learning

differences exist between pedagogical approaches and Type I error here amounts to

claiming statistically significant differences exist, when in fact no differences exist. The

practical risk of such an error is that it may lead to an investment of time and resources

into a pedagogical approach that has been mistakenly identified as superior to others, yet

does nothing to improve the cultural appropriateness of training.

Type II error, on the other hand, would lead to a conclusion that there are no

statistically significant differences among pedagogical approaches, when there is indeed a

difference. The risk in this case evolves out of a failure to identify a pedagogical

approach that does hold the promise of improving cultural appropriateness of training by

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making the assumption that no treatment condition is superior to any other. The judgment here is that either error detracts from the value of the study, but it is appropriate to place greater emphasis on guarding against Type II error. To strike an equitable balance between sufficient statistical power to find effects and provide sufficient Type II error protection, the alpha level will be set at .05 for all analyses. Similar procedures utilizing ANOVA and post hoc pairwise comparison will be implemented to determine any effects of gender or length of service as a police officer on pre- and posttest scores.

In addition to the analysis of objective testing data, which are considered only as evidence of a participant's level of comprehension of ethics principles, additional analyses will follow that examine role play performance scores. Following the pattern established above, role play performance and its relationship to group membership, gender, and years of service will be determined through ANOVA and post hoc pairwise comparison when appropriate. In contrast to pre- and posttest scores, role play performance scores are considered an indicator of learning transfer, where participants actually operationalize ethical principles under realistic conditions.

Qualitative Analysis: For each of the questionnaire items, participant responses were summarized into emergent categories and observations made regarding how they might be related to the training experience and the participants' future professional conduct. A potential response category was identified in any case where at least two similar answers were provided within any single group of respondents and across the three questionnaire items, 13 reliable answer categories emerged. Responses that could

not be aligned with any other, were illegible, or left blank were counted as "Other" and they totaled 178, or 32.3% of the total 551 responses.

Instruments

International standards of police ethics, based largely on the United Nations Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials (United Nations, 1979), served as the substantive basis for the police ethics lesson plan employed in the classroom portion of the training, augmented by the PNP Code of Police Professional Conduct and the PNP Police Officer's Creed (See Appendices F, G, and H). The pre- and posttest instruments sampled each of these documents, as well as posed situational ethical questions, through 35 multiple choice questions. There was a one-to-one correspondence between concepts tested on the pretest and posttest and an extensive process of iterative refinement ensured that the questions were reasonable measures of the course material. Both the pretest and posttest were analyzed for internal reliability using Cronbach's alpha. Each instrument contained 35 items and both were evaluated as reliable measures of participant comprehension of ethical principles. The reliability coefficient for the pretest was determined as $\alpha = 0.630$; for the posttest, $\alpha = 0.792$. Further test validity issues are discussed in Chapter 5, in the *Reliability, Validity, and Control Issues* section.

Substantial foreign investment, primarily from USG, will be put forth to support PNP police development initiatives over the coming years and requirements abound for quantifiable measures of learning outcomes. Objective testing results provide easily summarized and widely accepted measures of program effectiveness, as well as document the exposure of each trainee to appropriate concepts and learning opportunities.

However, what is of chief concern to the PNP and to Philippine society at large, is that their police do indeed understand the principles of ethical conduct, rather than simply pass an objective examination on the subject – among education professionals it is widely accepted that a successful performance in one of these realms is not necessarily indicative of success in the other. Additional quantitative data will be drawn from role play performance scores and examined alongside pre- and posttest scores, to develop a fuller picture of how the principles of CFT influenced participant learning in this experiment.

Materials

Simulation Design Considerations. It was essential, of course, that simulations for this research were designed around fictional circumstances that were both realistic and relevant to a PNP officer. Informal research was undertaken whereby numerous PNP officers were interviewed, as well as ordinary Filipino citizens, regarding their perceptions of police officers. Included in these informal interviews were officers who had at some point in their career been assigned to a PNP internal investigations function. All of these interviews informed the simulation design, as did contemporary news accounts. Through these strictly anecdotal processes, estimations of the nature of complaints most frequently leveled at PNP officers were made. The most frequent allegations included incidents of being untruthful, petty theft or bribery, and covering up incompetent or irresponsible police behavior. I wish to emphasize here that no judgment was made as to the validity or substance of any such complaint – it was merely taken into consideration that these are commonly held perceptions in the Philippines and as such, present a familiar and realistic context for the design of ethics training simulations. It is

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further noted that such complaints against police officers are routinely alleged in virtually all countries, including the United States, and many, if not most, such complaints are unfounded. They are used here only to offer insight into transcendent police ethics issues that were evaluated within a specific cultural context.

Three simulations were designed to address each of the identified ethical problem areas and the full text of the scenarios employed in these simulations can be found in Appendix C. In all cases, care was given to the use of appropriate language and situations. The appropriateness and relevance was confirmed by having the scenarios reviewed by curriculum writers and instructors attached to the PNP Training Service, who did improve them with some minor editing. Despite the high degree of English fluency among PNP officers in the region where the experiment was conducted, a Filipino translator was available to ensure that there was no digression from the research design or experimental learning formulae. Instructions were clarified in Tagalog as needed; however, the overwhelming majority of this investigation was conducted and recorded in English. The ready accessibility of a translator does, however, limit any potential for data corruption by assuring consistency of the research procedures conducted in each particular group.

Procedures

A potential source of bias in this design lies with the instructional team that conducted the training sessions. It must be considered that one or more members of the team could have conceivably had a preference for a particular pedagogical approach and consciously or unconsciously better supported that approach in the course delivery. A

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reasonable degree of control for this bias was implemented first by the criteria for the selection of instructors. The team consisted of two instructors, one American and one Filipino, each of whom were selected in part based on their enthusiasm for instructing police officers on the topic of ethics and there was an expectation that regardless of the constraints placed on the instructors, they would conscientiously try to accomplish the greatest degree of learning possible in each treatment condition. The same team of instructors conducted the courses for the control group and all four treatment groups, and they were recognized subject matter experts who agreed on final curriculum content before any pedagogical approaches were revealed to them. Before each course of instruction commenced, the instructors attended a briefing session which outlined in detail the treatment parameters to be implemented for the class.

The manner in which participants were exposed to each treatment condition was determined by which role he or she was assigned to play in the scenarios. Three different scenarios were constructed for use in the training, each of which required similar decision making in different settings. The scenario descriptions appear in Appendix C and over the course of the experiment, all participants role played in all three scenarios, although from different perspectives.

As an example, Scenario 1 – "Fernando and Palau," which involves a suspicion by rookie officer Fernando that his partner, Officer Palau, has pilfered money and food at the scene of a grocery store burglary, is implemented for each participant group as follows:

Control Group: Students read the scenario, a discussion is led by the instructor, and student groups produce written analyses of the scenario, and report to the class their group assessments of any ethics violations in play, how relevant behavior is regulated by official documents and regulations, and what consequences the ethical violations might have for the PNP as an organization, its personnel, and the citizens it serves. In similar fashion, participants work through Scenarios 2 and 3.

Officer Group: Students individually read the scenario and are assigned the role of Officer Fernando, who is interviewed by the simulation facilitator, playing the part of Fernando's supervisor. At several junctures, the participant must decide whether the facts as he or she knows them constitute an ethical violation of sufficient importance to risk exposing a colleague to possible disciplinary action. At the close of the simulation, the participant is given an opportunity to explain or elaborate on his or her reasoning. Participants likewise work through Scenarios 2 and 3, always in the role of the officer confronted with an ethical decision to make.

Supervisor Group: The roles played by participant and facilitator are reversed from those in the *officer* group. The participant, now acting as the responsible supervisor, is tasked with drawing out information about possible ethical violations from the facilitator, who is reluctant to inform on the suspicious actions

of a colleague. The better the participant articulates the need for adherence to ethical standards, the more information he or she is able to elicit from the facilitator. Again, at the closing of the simulation the participant is given an opportunity to explain or elaborate on his or her reasoning. Participants also play the role of the supervisor in Scenarios 2 and 3.

Victim Group: Participants play the role of the grocery store owner, who arrives at the scene of the crime while the police are finishing up their initial investigation. The facilitator and an assistant play the role of officers Fernando and Palau. The Fernando actor discreetly explains his suspicions, while the Palau actor attempts to justify his actions and pressures the participant not to pursue a complaint against him. Like the previous groups, all participants in this group continue to play the same role in Scenarios 2 and 3, but for this group it is always the character victimized by unethical police behavior. Again, participants are given an opportunity to explain or elaborate on the actions they took and decisions they made at the close of the simulation.

All Three Conditions Group: Here lies a direct attempt to test the assertions of Cognitive Flexibility Theory. Participants engage the scenario in the role of Officer Fernando and under the same conditions as described for the *officer* group. But during their role play in Scenario 2, they are assigned the role of the police supervisor, as are the members of the *supervisor* group in all of their role plays. Similarly, for Scenario 3, this group takes on the role of the victim, as do

the participants of the *victim* group in all of their role plays. As always, participants are provided the opportunity at the close of each simulation to elaborate or explain as they deem necessary.

By way of an explanatory note, it should be mentioned that within the PNP, the use of the term police "officer" is uneven, but growing in common usage as it refers to all police personnel. Police "officer" is also commonly taken to mean that class of superior personnel at the rank of Inspector or higher, while the lower ranking personnel are often referred to as policemen, regardless of gender. This is a vestige of the PNP's former status as a constabulary branch of the Armed Forces of the Philippines, where personnel are clearly distinguished as either members of the officer corps or enlisted grades. The PNP was severed from the military in 1991 and thereafter has been a civilian law enforcement agency by Western definitions. While ambiguous meanings of the word "officer" may be in common usage, there was no confusion on the point for participants of the experiment and throughout this manuscript I will continue to refer to police officers, when in fact I might choose my words differently if discussing the same issues with members of the PNP. In all cases herein, the term "police officer" refers to a PNP law enforcement operative, regardless of rank.

Prior to the conduct of role playing exercises in class, students were familiarized with the ground rules of role playing, as it was anticipated that few had been provided the opportunity do so previously. Those ground rules were simplified in order to prevent any confusion, establishing that 1) the students would be familiarized with the basic facts of the scenario; 2) the students would be asked to assume an assigned role; and 3) within

this role, they were asked to protect the interests of their character to the best of their ability by explaining the rationale for their actions and eliciting information (or negotiating) with other role play actors, playing other simulated roles. Due to the potential for divergence from the scenario parameters and the dynamic nature of scenario-based role play, a facilitator was responsible for determining the logical conclusion to the exercise and ceasing activity. Once completed, the facilitators were responsible for scoring the participant on a scale of 1-5, basing their demarcation on the degree to which participants demonstrated understanding of accepted ethical standards and practices according to the following scale:

1 – Demonstrates no understanding at all

2 – Demonstrates only vague understanding

3 – Demonstrates the ability to identify right and wrong behavior

4 – Demonstrates the ability to apply accepted ethical standards to the situation

5 – Demonstrates a clear understanding of problems and applies accepted ethical standards

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Differences in demographic characteristics by treatment condition (group membership) were analyzed in order to determine initial group equivalence. By ensuring that neither gender nor length of service varies significantly across the five group treatment conditions as described in the methods chapter, assurance can be reached that any differences found in posttest scores by group membership are in fact a true effect of group treatment condition, and not simply an artifact of either gender or length of service. Further, by ensuring that pretest scores do not vary significantly by group membership, similar assurance is achieved that any differences in posttest scores are due to the effect of treatment condition and not simply a carry-over effect of differences in initial group performance. Finally, by analyzing differences in posttest scores by group membership, estimates can be made of the effects of treatment condition on the comprehension of ethical principles.

Initial Group Equivalence

The pretest and demographic characteristics were analyzed by treatment condition to establish initial group equivalence. The categorical variables (gender and length of service) were analyzed using a chi-square test of independence and the continuous variable (pretest scores) was analyzed using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). In both types of analyses, the independent variable, treatment condition, had five levels as described in the methods chapter (see Table 1 for summary of results).

Table 1

Gender and Length of Service by Group Membership

Group	n	Gender % Male	Years of Service % 7+
Officer	41	85.37	36.59
Supervisor	60	91.67	33.33
Victim	50	84.00	48.00
All Three	60	85.00	55.00
Control	52	78.85	48.08

Gender. The chi-square analysis conducted was not found to be significant, with $\chi^2(4, N = 263) = 3.71, p = .447$. No treatment condition-relation differences in gender were found.

Years of Service. In this analysis, years of service were categorized as 1-3 years, 4-6 years, and 7 years or more. The chi-square analysis was not significant, with $\chi^2(8, N = 263) = 11.57, p = .172$. No treatment condition-relation differences in proportion were found.

Pretest. An ANOVA conducted on pretest scores did not find scores to significantly differ across the five conditions, $F(4,258) = .713, p = .584$. All together, these initial group equivalence findings suggest that the assignment strategy used in this study resulted in equivalent groups, supporting the validity of the post-treatment results.

Table 2

Scenario Performance, Pretest and Posttest Scores and Score Differences by Group Membership

Group	n	Scenario M (SD)	Pretest M (SD)	Posttest M (SD)	Difference M (SD)
Officer	41	3.146 (.727)	21.829 (5.162)	26.561 (5.563)	4.732 (5.104)[a]
Supervisor	60	3.150 (1.162)	23.150 (3.588)	26.467 (4.409)	3.317 (5.652)[va]
Victim	50	3.240 (1.451)	23.000 (3.338)	29.400 (4.131)	6.400 (4.096)[s]
All Three	60	3.683 (1.317)	22.917 (4.354)	30.883 (2.532)	7.967 (4.310)[cos]
Control	52	-	22.904 (4.362)	27.462 (4.796)	4.558 (4.864)[a]

Note. Superscripts represent groups which significantly differ at the *p*<.05 level: a = all three conditions, o = officers, s = supervisor, v = victims, c = control.

Experimental Results

RQ1: *When non-Western police ethics students participate in training of an American design, are there differences in the comprehension of ethics principles, as evidenced by objective test performance, when the training approach includes: a) role play as a police officer faced with an ethical dilemma; b) role play as the victim of an unethical decision by a police officer; c) role play as a police administrator who supervises officers who have made unethical decisions; d) participation in several role play exercises wherein students alternately assume each role described in a, b, and c above; or e) traditional classroom lecture and discussion methods?*

RQ1 sub-question: *Are there differences associated with gender and years of service and do gender and years of service modify the effects associated with the training strategies?*

A 5x2x2 factorial analysis of variance was performed with condition (all three scenarios vs. police officer vs. supervisor vs. victim vs. control), years of service (early career vs. late career) and gender (male vs. female) as between-subjects factors. Pretest/posttest change score was the dependent variable. The interactions of condition by gender and condition by years of service were included in the analysis. The main effect of condition was significant, $F(4,248) = 2.87$, $p = .024$, and partial $\eta^2 = .044$. Follow-up pairwise comparisons using Tukey's HSD revealed significant differences

between the control group (M = 4.56) and the *all three conditions* group (M = 7.97), *p* =

.002 and d = .708. Also, significant differences were found between the *officer* group (M

= 4.73) and the *all three conditions* group (M = 7.97), *p* = .009 and d = .671. Likewise,

significant differences existed between the *supervisor* group (M = 3.32) and the *all three*

conditions group (M = 7.97), *p* < .001 and d = .966. One additional significant difference

was revealed between the *supervisor* group (M = 3.32) and the *victim* group (M = 6.40), *p*

= .008 and d = .640.

The main effect of gender was found to approach significance, $F(1,248) = 3.04$, *p*

= .083, and partial η^2 = .012. The difference in pretest and posttest scores were higher for

females (M = 6.21) than males (M = 5.29), d = .191. The main effect of years of service

was also found to approach significance, $F(1,248) = 3.39$, *p* = .067, and partial η^2 = .013.

The difference in pretest and posttest scores were found to be higher for those with 7

years or more of service (M = 6.16) than those with 6 years or less (M = 4.84), d = .274.

However, the interaction between condition and gender was not found significant,

$F(4,248) = 1.56$, *p* = .186. Neither was there a significant interaction between condition

and years of service, $F(4,248) = 1.14$, *p* = .339.

RQ2: *When non-Western police ethics students participate in training of an American design, are there differences in learning transfer, as evidenced by role play performance, when the training approach includes: a) role play as a police officer faced with an ethical dilemma; b) role play as the victim of an unethical decision by a police officer; c) role play as a police administrator who supervises officers who have made unethical decisions; or d) participation in several role play exercises wherein students alternately assume each role described in a, b, and c above?*

RQ2 sub-question: *Are there differences associated with gender and years of service and do gender and years of service modify the effects associated with the training strategies?*

A 4x2x2 factorial analysis of variance was performed with role play condition (all three scenarios vs. police officer vs. supervisor vs. victim), years of service (early career vs. late career) and gender (male vs. female) as between-subjects factors. Scenario performance score was the dependent variable. The interactions of condition by gender and condition by years of service were included in the analysis. The main effect of condition was not found to be significant, $F(3,199) = 1.96$, $p = .121$, and partial $\eta^2 = .029$. A post-hoc analysis revealed all Cohen's d values to be less than .44. The main effect of gender was found to approach significance, $F(1,199) = 2.89$, $p = .091$, and partial $\eta^2 = .014$. Scenario performance scores were higher for females (M = 3.74) than males (M = 3.26), d = .39. The main effect of years of service was not found to be significant, $F(1,199) = 1.16$, $p = .282$, d = 0.07, and partial $\eta^2 = .006$. The interaction between condition and gender was also not found to be significant, $F(3,199) = 0.81$, $p = .490$. Neither was there a significant interaction between condition and years of service, $F(3,199) = 2.09$, $p = .234$.

Analysis of Open-Ended Questionnaire Responses

A brief written questionnaire was administered to participants at the conclusion of the training. The questionnaire included three open-ended questions and for each, certain themes emerged as discussed below.

Questionnaire Item 1: How has your understanding of police ethics changed since you took part in the role playing exercises?

Four identifiable themes emerged from the open-ended answers respondents provided to this question and they offered very general mechanisms of understanding of ethical behavior. The majority response focused on answers that spoke to improving the

effectiveness of the PNP through a proper understanding and practice of ethics, such as "Police ethics is most important to us as law enforcement officers because it can enhance our dignity, integrity, and make honest public servants" (*all three conditions* group). The second most common theme identified in response to this question was related in some way to earning the respect of the community, such as "Police ethics is very important factor on how to gain the support of the people…ethics is the way to change the image of the police from bad to public servant" (*officer* group). Almost as many respondents reacted in some way to their duty to expose corruption: "If other police officers will do wrong, I will stand with the right one" (*officer* group). The last identifiable thematic response touched upon the idea that poor ethical practices produce negative effects for members of the PNP itself, such as "I understand how the police officer is prone to all kinds of temptations whether it is monetary consideration or favor to favor consideration. Many PNP do this behavior and it makes me ashamed of our organization" (control group).

Responses related to enhancing PNP effectiveness were the most common overall, as well as the most frequent within each individual group, so clearly that aspect of the course material was firmly grasped by most students, regardless of the group to which they belonged. There was, however, one noteworthy distinction among the responses, in that about one third of every group answered in this vein, except for the *victim* group. Effectiveness of the PNP still factored in as the most common answer for the *victim* group, but such references appeared in less than a quarter of the group members' responses.

.   Questionnaire Item 2: In what ways will your professional behavior change because of your attendance in this class?

This question returned five recurrent responses that were generally concerned with personal adaptation in the respondents' roles as police officers. By a fairly wide overall margin, the responses favored a theme related to introspection and assessment of personal character and/or values. An exemplar is "Sometimes in our past daily lives while performing duties we know we have done corruption but sometimes ignore it. Thru learning like this course we can correct those bad habits" (*all three conditions* group). A generalized response regarding the proper treatment of others was the second highest ranked response category, such as "My professional behavior changed, first in the aspect of courtesy in dealing with the community" (*supervisor* group). Other major response groupings were related to the idea that it is important to avoid the appearance of impropriety: "I need to be careful with my actions, just like the canine officer in the exercise because I think one simple mistake could be misunderstood by the community" (*supervisor* group); and a personal commitment to duty, "I try to be a good person in perform my duties and responsibilities without expecting anything in return" (control group). A final identifiable theme was observed in a small number of responses that related to the need for adherence to rules and regulations, such as "My professional behavior change by observing and applying the PNP rules and regs that I have learned in this course" (*officer* group).

While the majority response to this question across all groups was relative to the notion of introspection and assessment of personal character and/or values, this did not hold true within the *officer* or *supervisor* groups. These groups favored the themes of

personal commitment to duty and proper treatment of others, respectively. The *all three conditions* group, however, dramatically favored the introspection theme above the other emergent themes, responding in this way with double or greater the frequency than in any other.

> *Questionnaire Item 3: How will your experiences in this class help you make decisions in real life?*

The most frequent of responses to this question were generalized suggestions that respondents would try to make more circumspect decisions in the future: "It [the training] has touched my life and in every decision I make the issues I have learned will guide me to decide what is right and ethical" (*victim* group). A similar number of respondents identified a need to strive for fairness, as typified by this response: "By treating everyone equally by internalizing the true values of a Filipino citizen" (*victim* group). Responses which revealed that respondents had identified personal weaknesses were also strongly represented: "This experience became unforgettable to me. It helps to show my weaknesses and I can apply to my daily activities" (*officer* group). To a lesser extent, respondents noted they had been re-familiarized with the PNP's rules and regulations, for example, "The rules and regulations can guide us on how we perform our duties and develop ourselves" (*officer* group).

Responses were similarly distributed among the groups and no particular disposition toward any of these response categories appears to be attributable to group membership. In the aggregate, respondents were nearly evenly split between the themes related to making circumspect decisions and striving for fairness.

A complete summary of participant responses to all three questions can be found in Appendix J.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The following sections attempt to make meaning of the findings of this research as they relate to the original research questions posed by the investigation:

RQ1: *When non-Western police ethics students participate in training of an American design, are there differences in the comprehension of ethics principles, as evidenced by objective test performance, when the training approach includes: a) role play as a police officer faced with an ethical dilemma; b) role play as the victim of an unethical decision by a police officer; c) role play as a police administrator who supervises officers who have made unethical decisions; d) participation in several role play exercises wherein students alternately assume each role described in a, b, and c above; or e) traditional classroom lecture and discussion methods?*

RQ2: *When non-Western police ethics students participate in training of an American design, are there differences in learning transfer, as evidenced by role play performance, when the training approach includes: a) role play as a police officer faced with an ethical dilemma; b) role play as the victim of an unethical decision by a police officer; c) role play as a police administrator who supervises officers who have made unethical decisions; or d) participation in several role play exercises wherein students alternately assume each role described in a, b, and c above?*

RQ1 and RQ2 Sub-Question: *Are there differences associated with gender and years of service, and do gender and years of service modify the effects associated with the training strategies?*

By expanding upon initial ideas and expectations, this discussion offers a synthesis of theoretical and empirical findings. The conjunction of these findings provides an objective and analytical visualization of cross-cultural training mechanisms investigated within the context of learning and comprehension by Filipino police officers of American authored police ethics instruction and the integration of Cognitive Flexibility Theory (CFT) principles into the instructional material. A total of 263 Philippine National Police officers undertook this ethics training in accordance with ordinary in-service training

requirements; however, the experimental groups also participated in variations of participant perspectives during each of three role play exercises. Student performance in these various exercises provided a means by which the impact of CFT can be evaluated. Furthermore, these insights demonstrate the relevance that the data extracted throughout this investigation has for similar cross-cultural applications in the future.

The Findings and Their Meaning

This study was focused on comparing performance on an objective test and on role playing scenarios of a control group, which was trained according to classroom based lecture and discussion methods typical of Western pedagogy and driven by behaviorist models of programmed instruction, to that of experimental groups trained largely via a variety of carefully structured role playing techniques. The key difference in the implementation of role play scenarios across the experimental groups was the specific role played by the participants. Five groups were designated: the control group; three scenario-based experimental groups in which participants role played from a singular and consistent role over a series of scenarios, all involving unethical police behavior; while participants in the fifth group integrated all the role play perspectives of the other experimental groups into its training process, again over a series of scenarios. Reflective of participant role play perspectives, the experimental groups are designated as the *officer* group, the *supervisor* group, the *victim* group, and the *all three* conditions group. The analysis of these research findings demonstrates a radical differentiation in performance on the objective posttest between the *all three conditions* group over the control group, as well those of the *officer* and *supervisor* groups. The success of the *all three conditions* group can be directly correlated with the more varied practical training

that appears to have stimulated its independent thought and improved understanding of the course material. Through the use of CFT programming, this investigation has demonstrated how these differing pedagogical mechanisms do not achieve the same level of effectiveness within the constraints of this quasi-experimental design.

All measures of initial group equivalence were favorable and allowed reasonable isolation of experimental variables in these analyses. Of particular import was that there was an extremely high degree of initial group equivalence between the control group and the *all three conditions* group, comparisons of which afford a reliable and direct evaluation of the traditional classroom approach in use with the control group and the true CFT driven training approach in play with the *all three conditions* group.

In every analysis, the *all three conditions* group posted substantially higher scores than any other group, both on role play exercises and on posttest scores. This held true in analyses performed within the contexts of differentiations in role play condition or group membership. Even when the control group is removed from consideration and all remaining participants took part in some form of role play, there still remained strong evidence of superior performance by the *all three conditions* group, although, the *victim* group demonstrated notably improved performance as well, when compared to the control, *officer*, and *supervisor* groups.

On role play performance analyses, the *all three conditions* group outperformed other groups in terms of role play scores, although that performance did not rise to the level of statistical significance between role play condition and role play score. It appears that for the study participants, engagement in any role play was universally a positive experience and that their level of success in the role play exercises did not vary

dramatically, regardless of which role they were required to assume. On posttest scores, however, while the *all three conditions* group outperformed all others, its posttest performance was not statistically significant over that of the *victim* group. There's a suggestion in these analyses that student participation in all three scenario conditions was most beneficial, but thereafter, participation in the *victim* condition was considerably superior to the *officer* or *supervisor* condition. It is evident that the role play experience of the *victim* group is also an important component of the *all three conditions* group.

The ANOVA conducted to test Research Question 2, in which scenario performance score was the dependent variable, revealed no significant main effects at the .05 alpha level. This may be due to the statistical power to find a difference in scenario performance scores being rather low ($1-\beta < 0.50$ for all main effects). Beta is the probability of falsely accepting the null hypothesis when the alternative hypothesis should in fact be supported (Type II error), thus the power of a statistical test is equal to $1 - \beta$. Generally, the maximum accepted beta value is 0.20, corresponding to a power level of 0.80, which means there is an 80% chance against committing Type II error. In this analysis, because the power level was calculated at below 0.50, there is a greater likelihood that no relationship could be found between variables when in fact a significant relationship may have existed (see pages 49-50 for additional discussion on Type I vs. Type II error in this study). To thoroughly investigate possible effects in this area, future studies should incorporate a larger sample size. Specifically, in order to increase the power to 0.80 and find 4/10 of a standard deviation (i.e., $d = 0.40$), a study would require approximately 75 participants per condition. In such a case, a minimum

sample size of 300 would be required, with 75 participants assigned to each of the four scenario conditions.

The close performance of the *victim* group with the *all three conditions* group speaks to a potentially useful finding as it might relate to the design of additional police training. Based on the *victim* group's role play design, the integration of a personalized response to theft and other unethical behavior seems to have generated a heightened response among these participants, resulting in improved posttest scores as compared to other groups. Considering that personal value systems generally place no positive emphasis on thievery or other maltreatment, the response of this group was one that appears to be bolstered by innate thought processes and values. Those are the prior understandings and experiences that learners bring with them to the training experience and which Spiro, et al (1992) asserts factor greatly into the acquisition of cognitive adaptability required to use knowledge to solve problems under conditions that differ from the initial conditions of learning. Given the favorable initial group equivalence determination and the negligible influence of gender and years of service across the experiment, when comparing the *victim* group to lesser performing groups it is evident that their substantial improvement is related to the role play experience and not any other variable. There is a strong suggestion here that in this subject area and perhaps others, police training can be enhanced when students are tasked to assume a training role that is police related but not police-centric, such as was the case here, where the role player was the victim of an unethical police action. In my 29 years of conducting and observing police training in the U.S. and abroad, I have found that to be an exceedingly rare training approach.

The *all three conditions* group exhibited a performance on the posttest that was undeniably the most positive response of any in the experiment. Based on the differences revealed by comparison of pretest and posttest scores, there can be little doubt that the *all three conditions* group experienced enhanced comprehension of ethics principles because of their treatment condition, rather than any other variable. That finding further supports the integration of CFT programming into cross-cultural training settings as a means of increased cognitive development and experiential translation. While sequential or layered training may provide the foundation needed for particular habitual behaviors, under complex scenarios such as the mitigation of ethical dilemmas, unique responses are required that must routinely be immediate and appropriate to a unique situation. These findings suggest that such actions cannot be well developed as rapidly in cross-cultural learning situations when they are centered on traditional Western pedagogical approaches. Instead, a combination of traditional instruction, role playing, and discussion can encourage cognitive flexibility and enhance learning transfer.

Role of Gender and Years of Service

An interesting tendency was revealed in the analysis of role play scores, wherein female participants posted scores that averaged nearly 0.4 points higher than their male counterparts on a five point scale. This difference did not calculate as statistically significant in this particular sample, but that outcome might be different with a larger sample size and the matter is worthy of further investigation. A clearer determination on this point could inform how male and female students respond differently to role play experiences and have implications for future training designs.

Of similar interest, years of participant police service proved statistically not significant in all analyses, save one, in which the data suggest that those participants with more than seven years service were more likely than their lesser experienced counterparts to substantially improve their posttest scores over their pretest scores. A number of possibilities exist to explain this tendency. A logical conclusion in keeping with the principles of CFT would be that these participants had greater experience and therefore, a more robust understanding of police ethics in the real world, which better prepared them for learning under the conditions of this experiment. But sufficient controls were not in place and the experiment was not specifically designed to preclude other possibilities, such as greater experience in attendance at police training courses or test taking. Only three categories of years of service were employed here; a thorough examination of the effects of years of service would have to include a larger sample size that permits categorization of experience into smaller discrete categories.

The Hofstede Equation

Hofstede's (2001) investigations of culture provide a framework that seeks to quantify in some ways certain dimensions of culture. He has identified several cultural dimensions and applied them to many of the countries in the world, assigning quantifiable scores to each. Of particular interest to this discussion are his dimensions known as the power-distance index and the individualism-collectivism index. When evaluating the Philippines for unique cultural behavior, his findings suggest an extremely high power-distance index (PDI) that falls at the top of the global curve with a score of 94 (by comparison, the United States scores 40 on this dimension). This index reveals

the extent to which less powerful social participants expect that power will be unequally distributed. Hofstede's precise definition of PDI is:

> [T]he extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. This represents inequality…but defined from below, not from above. It suggests that a society's level of inequality is endorsed by the followers as much as by the leaders (ITIM International, 2009).

Along similar lines, the Philippine score regarding the individualism-collectivism index (IDV) fell at the 32 marker, an indication of a strongly collectivist society. By contrast, the United States scores 91 on this index, which among all the world's countries examined by Hofstede is the highest IDV score recorded. For the U.S., individualism is often judged as the most culturally defining characteristic. In the Hofstede model, only seven of the world's countries post their highest cultural dimension score on the IDV index and none of those are in Asia; the nature of daily life in those seven countries is quite far removed from daily life in the Philippines. Hofstede (2009) explains what his IDV index measures this way:

> [C]ollectivism …is the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. On the individualist side we find societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family. On the collectivist side, we find societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, often extended families

(with uncles, aunts and grandparents) which continue protecting them in exchange

for unquestioning loyalty. The word 'collectivism' in this sense has no political

meaning: it refers to the group, not to the state (ITIM International, 2009).
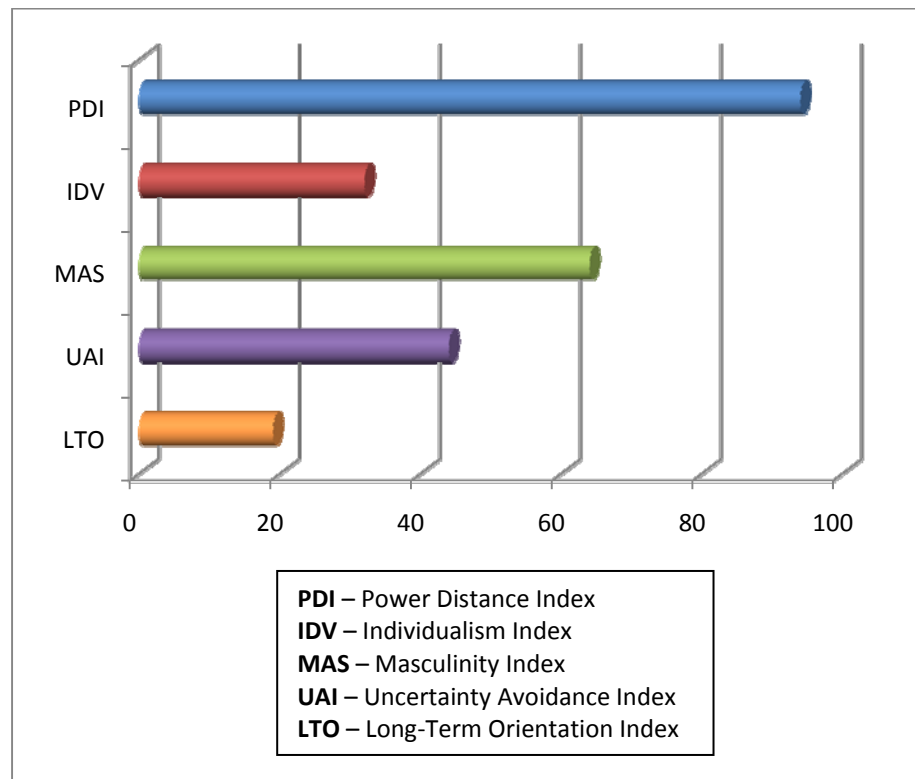
Figure 3: Hofstede Cultural Dimension Indices Scores for the Philippines. Source Data
Retrieved August 10, 2009 from http://www.geert-
hofstede.com/hofstede_dimensions.php. (ITIM International, 2009).

So, on two of Hofstede's cultural dimensions, we have seen that the Philippines

and the United States score at opposite ends of the spectrum, suggesting radically

different ways that citizens of each country view their places in society, in terms of their

perceptions of their own power and the degree to which they are likely to act as

individuals. Across the remaining three Hofstede dimensions - Masculinity (MAS),

Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), and Long-Term Orientation (LTO) – there is far less

variability between the two countries.

Chart data:
Index	Philippines	United States
PDI	94	40
IDV	32	91
MAS	64	62
UAI	44	46
LTO	19	29

PDI – Power Distance Index
IDV – Individualism Index
MAS – Masculinity Index
UAI – Uncertainty Avoidance Index
LTO – Long-Term Orientation Index
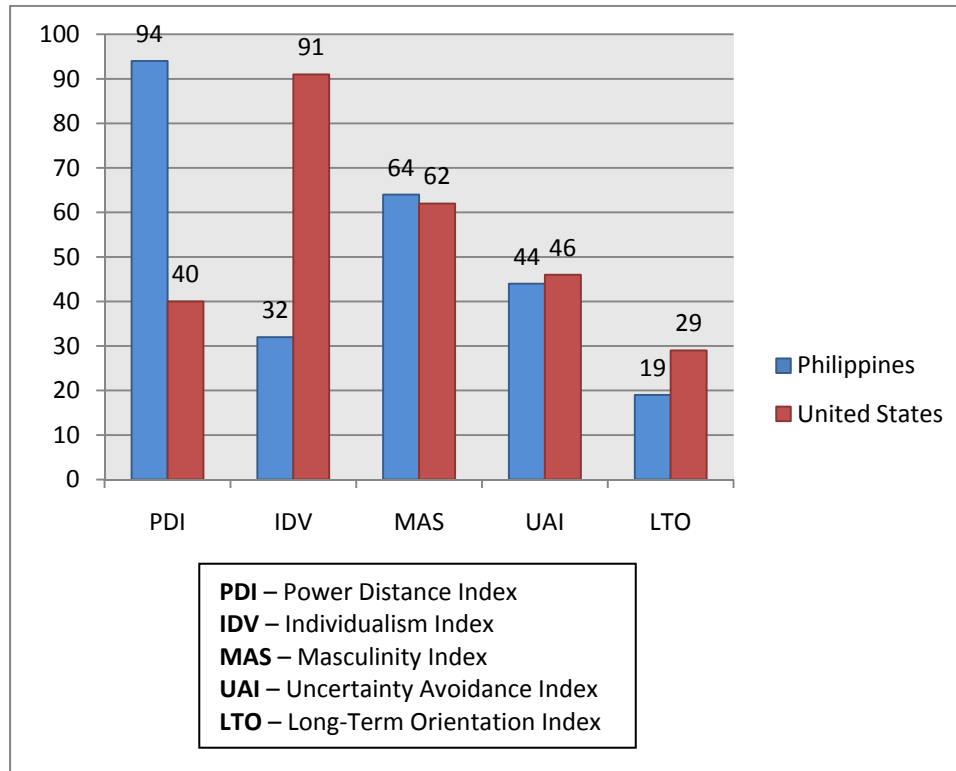
Figure 4: Hofstede Cultural Dimension Indices Score Comparison Between the United States and the Philippines. Source Data Retrieved August 10, 2009 from http://www.geert-hofstede.com/hofstede_dimensions.php. (ITIM International, 2009).

I will argue here that IDV and PDI are particularly impactful in the conception

one has of ethical behavior. For example, there can be little doubt that in a culture with a

very high PDI score, the least powerful members of a group are more reluctant to push

back against a powerful group member, despite the latter's abuse of power and authority.

That has been exemplified time and again in foreign police assistance projects, where it

has been discovered that higher ranking officers skim the pay or other allowances of

lower ranking officers and in many countries only rarely, if ever, does any sort of dispute

evolve. Over the course of time and tradition, such practices become accepted as the way

business is done and they eventually define ethical conduct, or at least diminish any

previously held understanding, rendering internalized ideals impractical in the real world.

An interesting contrast emerges when comparing such situations with the numerous

pieces of "whistleblower" legislation and internal complaint handling systems evident

throughout the Western world.

Collectivist tendencies must influence the conception of ethical behavior in many

ways, as well. In the Western world, with its commonly held ideal that "no man is above

the law," a police officer is generally thought to serve the greater good when his or her

actions are true to the spirit of the law, without much regard for the consequences that

enforcing the law may impose on others. A Western police officer's resolve to enforce

the law evenly will commonly be shored up by strong individualist characteristics, as

well. It's clear that for police officers who are members of collectivist cultures, conflicts

between the law and his or her duty to a group may create conflicts that mold their

conception of ethical behavior. In some circumstances, tribal, clan, religious

relationships, etc., can be perceived by police officers as imposing obligations of far

greater moral consequence than any duty required of them by the law or the national

government. Most often, a view of ethics informed by such obligations will be at odds

with Western models.

In highly collectivist societies, there is a growing trend toward the implementation

of some form of a restorative justice system, which focuses on wrongdoings against

individuals or the community and the process of making the transgressed whole again,

rather than punishment for criminal offenses committed against the state. Such systems

can be developed in alignment with cultural values and ethics, and they can potentially

render a more locally relevant model for all aspects of policing, including ethics.

Recognizing the promise restorative justice holds for police and other stakeholders within

alternate cultures, both ICITAP and the United States Agency for International

Development (USAID) are presently supporting restorative justice training and

development efforts in the Philippines and other countries.

<div align="center">**CFT and Implications for Future International Police Training**</div>

Notwithstanding the importance of cultural differences or situational uniqueness,

this study is principally interested in the value of training foreign police officers through

the use of Cognitive Flexibility Theory (CFT) as an underlying training mechanism. The

principal objective in such a tactical transfer of data is the assembling of knowledge and

adjustment of cognitive processes to achieve optimal responses. Spiro, et al. (2003)

identified at least three key goals in programming learning experiences and facilitating

knowledge transfer according to a CFT strategy that have application here. The

following discussion outlines the application of those key goals within this investigation

and the potential for creating similar such learning systems in the future.

Helping people to learn important but difficult subject matter. This research

focused on training subject matter that is closely linked to a sometimes ambiguous and

oftentimes personalized value system that must be daily integrated into the policing

function: the application of police ethics. By challenging the participants to play the role

of one particular individual in an ethically challenging scenario, as in the *officer,*

supervisor, and victim groups, or to take on all character roles across the entire series of

scenarios, as did the *all three conditions* group, these role play activities focused on

<div align="center">79</div>

experiential learning, which were supplemented by other classroom activities. Cognition in general, as explored by Reigleuth and Moore (1999) is developed through lifetime programming mechanisms, suggesting that a training experience which is personally realistic, contextual, and meaningful can provide succinct and advanced development opportunities. In these scenarios, participants were asked to engage in activities that generated critical thinking opportunities under artificial but meaningful conditions. Their real world responses cannot be definitively presented here; however, based on the Spiro, et al. (2003) model of CFT design, the personalized practice of such techniques should directly influence future responses.

Attempts by American trainers to reprogram a foreign environment to align with American training values will ultimately be thwarted without insight into and respect for the local value systems. This experiment put similarly situated participants into very different culturally appropriate scenarios and sought to gauge their responses against an internationally accepted baseline. While there was a significant level of divergence across all of the results extracted from these groups, it's certain that the overarching training objectives of increased awareness, expanded insights, and self-reflection were achieved – and they were best achieved by the CFT inspired treatment group. Future training programs should consider a structured role play in which instructor feedback and student participation enables greater development of cognitive skill sets.

It should be encouraging to practitioners of cross-cultural training efforts that this experiment demonstrated that American trainers were able to employ CFT principles and achieve greater levels of Filipino student comprehension than was achieved under non-CFT conditions. It is particularly encouraging in this case because the training subject

matter was very intimately informed by cultural norms and values. As discussed in

Chapter 1, not every Western designed police training endeavor has met with the same

level of success. Central to successful cross-cultural training ventures must be a

willingness to accept and value the target audience's culture and consider how it prepares

students to learn, rather than seek out ways to ignore it or neutralize its influence.

Fostering adaptively flexible use of knowledge in real world settings. While

learning in a classroom or role playing setting can be a good first step toward

programming specific behaviors, the need for practical translation in a real world

environment cannot be ignored. This research has demonstrated the implications of

ordinary American lecture based instruction for foreign police officers (control group)

and its less successful translation of teaching into learning, as measured by the posttest.

Similarly, the multiple scenario role play group (*all three conditions* group) offered

positive evidence for the solidification of skills over a period of constant, consistent, and

varied reinforcement. Such findings suggest that single-lesson learning or stage-based

traditionalism are simply incongruent with cross-cultural development needs. Students

must be challenged but are better educated through the process-based structures implicit

in CFT.

Perspective-based learning is one mechanism that can be extremely successful in

future international activities. By training police according to the various perspectives

potentially in play for a given scenario, rather than from the single perspective of a police

officer, students will witness the inadequacy of a standardized response and reorganize

their existing cognitive processes to integrate new techniques and appropriate tactics.

The necessity to act with surety in policing functions was highlighted in the earlier

discussion of research by such theorists as Scharf and Binder (1983) and Helsen and Starkes (1999). The finding in each of these independent reports suggests that perceptual modeling and alternative development must be integral parts of the police training program. The development of adaptively flexible knowledge according to the CFT tactics of multi-perspective role play and discussion can contribute to a higher level of cognition.

Changing underlying ways of thinking. The diverse and complex nature of cultural value systems can overwhelm the translation of foreign belief and action systems, regardless of how logical, sensible, or thoughtful they might be in their home context. The expectation on the part of the foreign assistance giver of automatic compliance on the part of the assistance recipient is a misguided mode of imperialism, one which in certain contemporary examples continues to undermine efforts to support international police development and capacity building. This study has identified explicit frailties with the traditional Western method of sequential training when applied in other cultural contexts. By attempting to reorganize student thought solely through additive processes, instructors fail to identify and redress those culturally dependent underlying ways of thinking that are cognitively preventing the desired outcomes. In order to overcome such blockades, strategies must be developed that expand upon traditional methods of thought and frames of reference, allowing for unique insight and affirmation of new values. The rejection of cultural variables will not solve the challenges associated with development and learning. In fact, as evidenced through this research, an attempt to apply traditional classroom methods in a Filipino police setting most regularly resulted in

less satisfactory results. If the goal is to accomplish transition, then training techniques must likewise transition beyond traditional methodologies.

Where extreme social division has long been a way of daily life, the stability of fledgling democracies relies upon teaching the police to respond appropriately, regardless of any prior discriminatory (or unethical) beliefs. Achieving such a transformation of values is not an easy or immediate process. However, the implementation of CFT informed systems of teaching and learning can enable students to generate new, tacit knowledge out of their training experiences. Personal introspection will occur as a natural result of circumspect role play designs and real world experience can build upon the training experience over time, reinforcing internalization and personal development.

Significance of the Study

The USG is heavily involved in the development of foreign police agencies and because the failure of those agencies to successfully carry out their missions can have serious consequences for the global community, development efforts must be effective and make wise use of resources. The training of foreign police officers is central to larger development strategies and the results of this study provide important and substantial insights into the field of international police training. Very strong evidence has been presented to support the superiority of CFT informed training designs and techniques, which offer multiple perspectives through role plays and scenarios, over traditional classroom lecture and discussion methods. The findings and conclusions are further validated by their correspondence to well respected work within the current body of knowledge regarding investigations of culture by Hofstede (1984, 1993, 1999, and 2001) and Schwartz (1999).

Strengths and Weaknesses of the Study

Among the strengths of this research design is its adherence to a rigorous quasi-experimental design in a real life setting and cultural context, where there could be many intervening variables and including the use of a control group and pretest-posttest evaluation. It was not possible to achieve true random assignment of participants to treatment conditions, owing to certain timing and resource constraints, but to do so would have technically increased the statistical reliability of the analyses. Fortunately, the statistical tests of initial group equivalence proved very favorable and the participant assignment strategy is apparently benign in relation to observed results, despite the quasi-experimental nature of the design.

The main strength of this research is that it is a pragmatic investigation into a current real-world issue that feeds into some of the weightiest problems of our day. There's an obvious nexus between the effectiveness of training for foreign police officers and issues of global security. The United States has come to understand that in the modern age its own security interests are closely tied to those of many other countries and all are best served when the security apparatus of lesser developed countries are strengthened. Training is an early (and often ongoing) component of most development efforts and to settle for mediocrity or failure in the initial stages of a project bodes poorly for the success of any follow-on development activity. To succeed in police development-related training endeavors is ultimately to promote increased security, as well as the respect for human rights and the rule of law.

Certain limitations affecting the interpretation and generalizability of these findings arise from the sample size and composition. While it is sufficiently large ($N =$

263) to suggest meaningful and fairly robust results given the study's scope and context, the research questions could possibly be answered in finer detail through a similar experiment involving a larger sample. This is particularly true for the examination of the effects of years of service on other variables. There was insufficient variability across participant years of service in this sample to allow the construction of more than three broad categorizations (1-3 years, 4-6 years, and > 6 years) for comparison. Greater degrees of separation would be of interest – certainly, the experience that an officer who has been on the job for seven years differs from that of a 30+ year veteran, yet the dataset in this case compelled lumping them into the same category. A similar argument could be made that the study would have benefited from a sample with greater female representation, to more thoroughly explore their exhibited performance differences from male participants. Some hints of superior female role play performance exist in these analyses that could prove more substantial and statistically significant in a larger sample. The police profession remains male dominated the world over, but sufficient numbers of female officers exist to merit specific investigation into their learning mechanisms. In certain segments of police work, such as those concerned with crimes against women and children, female officers are often in the majority.

A degree of subjectivity existed in the scoring system used for the role plays (see page 58) even though it was controlled in several ways. The facilitators were well experienced subject matter experts in the field of police ethics and have extensive practical and instructional experience, including role play exercises. Cross-facilitator evaluation of participant performance was conducted, allowing for comparative validation. Each facilitator had previously demonstrated an exemplary history of

instruction and role play facilitation and it is assumed that their evaluations of participant performance remained consistent across the dataset. Further consistency across all aspects of the ethics course, including the role play exercises, was served to a great extent because the instructor and facilitators conducted seven dry runs of the complete Police Ethics course, involving approximately 180 students prior to the conduct of the experiment. Every scenario and every role play employed during the actual experiment was practiced repeatedly in advance and a standardized instructional routine and tempo was established.

Each of the five groups in this investigation, the control group and the four treatment groups, were composed of two iterations of the Police Ethics class, of approximately 30 students each. Therefore, class sessions 1 and 2 made up the control group; and the remainder made up the role play groups. Class sessions 3 and 4 made up the *officer* group; sessions 5 and 6 composed the *supervisor* group; sessions 7 and 8 were the *victim* group; and sessions 9 and 10 were the *all three conditions* group, *for* a total of 10 individual ethics classes.

Reliability, Validity, and Control Issues. As with any research endeavor, this design had certain reliability and validity risks; however, a great degree of experimental control was feasible here, and its implementation helped preserve the value of the research findings to a considerable extent.

Internal Validity. The failure to control extraneous variables could be manifest in several ways in this study. Experimental mortality would be among the most difficult to control but was not in evidence for two principal reasons. At two days in length, the ethics training course was of short duration that did not prove problematic for any

participant. Secondly, PNP officers are required to accumulate a number of in-service

training hours to remain in good standing, there exists limited opportunities to do so, and

completion of the ICITAP ethics course helped them meet that professional requirement.

Additionally, certificates of training completion issued by the U.S. Department of Justice

are highly prized within the PNP and considered a mark of significant professional

accomplishment, which further motivates students to complete any course they attend.

The possibility of experimental treatment diffusion existed but was minimized by

quality control measures that included closely monitoring the processes of each class and

ensuring there was a clear understanding by the instructional team of the parameters for

each class. Other internal validity issues such as compensatory rivalry by the control

group or resentful demoralization of the control group was addressed in such a way that

participants were not aware that different pedagogical methods were employed in each

class until after the conclusion of the study. Because each class roster was drawn from

numerous random units within the PNP, it was easily possible to limit communication

between groups. Also, none of the pretests or posttests were scored until after completion

of the entire experiment. No one other than the principal investigator ever knew how the

scores were distributed, so it is not possible that a reaction to test scores could have

influenced the experiment in any way.

External Validity. In terms of population validity, there is little reason to be

concerned about personological variables in students such as ability and aptitude in this

very narrow study because in essence, the sample nearly equals the population as

described previously. However, if one were to attempt to generalize these findings to

other cross-cultural situations in the Philippines or elsewhere, caution would have to be

exercised and these findings will certainly prove unreliable in some situations. Ecological validity controls are evident by some of the foregoing discussion. Pretest sensitization effects were minimized through the design of testing instruments which require the application of multiple knowledge areas in differing ways. Hawthorne effects were held in check because no group was aware that it was different from another and the quality controls previously discussed were in place to address potential experimenter bias. Sufficient detail on the experimental conditions is described within this study to allow replication studies by other researchers.

　　Test Validity. Operationalization of "learning outcomes" or "learning transfer" is a difficult concept. Pragmatism dictates that because a commonly required measure in USG police assistance projects is an objective test, the research goals should include ways to enhance student performance on those tests. But in this case it also suggests a parallel goal, which is to ensure that the objective tests in use are as reliable a measure of the desired learning outcomes as possible. The content validity of the pretest and posttest were established through a systematic determination by subject matter experts (SMEs) who defined in very precise terms the domain of specific content that the tests are assumed to represent (Gall, et al., 2003). Further, they determined how well that content was sampled by the test items and assured that there was a correspondence between knowledge being tested on the pretest and the posttest. Additional confirmation of test validity was acquired by administering the instruments to professional internal affairs investigators who were well acquainted with the United Nations standards for law enforcement officials and otherwise sound principles of police ethics. Their performance and feedback on the test was used to identify ambiguous or extraneous test items and

refinements were made. The SMEs went through an iterative test refinement process in this fashion until they were satisfied that the instrument tested for the desired knowledge as objectively as possible. In this case, this procedure is most likely the best available means for controlling the influence of the testing instrument itself on learning outcomes and isolating instructional treatment condition as a controllable independent variable.

In U. S. Government assistance programs, outcome measures are very often objective measures such as test scores, the number of students who successfully complete training, amounts of money expended, etc., and any proposal to alter training approaches in these programs is more likely to be embraced if it is likewise compatible with objective measures. In part, this need to evaluate programs in the short-term is a function of USG funding cycles, which as related to this discussion are typically no more than two years into the future. Unfortunately, the sort of police reform sought by many assistance programs is actually generational and can only be accomplished over much longer periods of time than what can ever be known to be supported by program funding and as a result, few long-term initiatives are intentionally undertaken.

While the exercise of ethical judgment is clearly not thoroughly measured by answering questions on an objective test, an objective test does have great value in this case. The substantive basis for police ethics training materials is taken from three documents recognized and in force within the PNP. The U.N. Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials (United Nations, 1979), the PNP Code of Police Professional Conduct, and the PNP Police Officer's Creed are all officially recognized policy standards and it was my expectation that the experiment would reveal a lack of familiarity with the provisions of these documents, which do provide solid baseline

guidance for PNP officers. How much participants improve their posttest scores over their pretest scores indicates how their understanding of the subject matter was affected by their exposure to one of the various treatment conditions.

Outcome measures are also of interest to USG agencies involved in the delivery of assistance programs, but again, outcomes of interest are most often those that can be observed in a short timeframe. To truly evaluate the outcomes of police ethics training, for example, would require an investigation into the professional conduct of officers over the span of many years, if not their entire careers. Based upon past experience, such longitudinal studies are very unlikely to ever be funded. Pragmatism in this case dictates that the best first step is for the research to inform improved instructional design while preserving the traditional measures of effectiveness, or in other words.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study showed that learning environments based on CFT and use of multiple perspective role plays made a significant impact on police training. An area of particular interest arises from this study, related to the development of role play training that emphasizes police related work but that requires students to assume the role of a non-police actor. In this experiment, students who played the role of someone victimized by unethical police decisions demonstrated superior learning gains than counterparts who role played from the perspective of a police officer or a police supervisor. There is a suggestion here that role plays which are relevant to police work but require students to step outside of their usual professional roles may be one piece of a powerful teaching and learning paradigm.

There are also some thought provoking results here which hint at differences in how female and male students internalize and learn from their role play experiences in a cross-cultural setting. A research design that is specific to analyzing gender differences, with equal numbers of participants of both genders and a large sample size, could reveal information useful in the design of effective role play training in international police development efforts. In such an investigation, results should be considered against the backdrop of longstanding male domination of the police profession and the marginalization of female officers in many developing countries.

The effect that years of service have on cross-cultural police role play training bears further examination, as well. These effects could be analyzed thorough an experimental design that incorporates a large sample, purposefully derived such that adequate numbers of participants exist in categories delineated by small increments of experience, e.g. two to three years each, and covering the full span of a typical police career. Information could be derived from that investigation which provides insight on how role play exercises can be optimized to complement a student's professional experience and maximize learning gains. It is unlikely that any related American standard for training design can be successfully overlaid onto a foreign setting. Replications and expansions of this research are needed to more fully understand the learning mechanisms and variables that influence international police development work.

And finally, this research included only a modest attempt at qualitative data collection and analysis. Given the research aims, it seems unlikely that a fully circumspect answer can be derived through solely quantitative or qualitative means – each approach yields valuable, but incomplete insight into the nature of the learning

mechanisms under discussion. The initial research design called for thorough post-training interviews to be conducted and analyzed but that piece of the investigation was abandoned when it was found that participants almost categorically declined to sit for an interview. Fuller open-ended participant answers to questions related about their perceptions of the training and its application to their work as police officers could help derive additional meaning from future results.

Conclusion

This research has explored a wide range of theoretical and empirical evidence related to the integration of Cognitive Flexibility Theory into the design of an international police training endeavor. The evidence presented herein sustains the significant benefits that can be gained from reprogramming teaching materials and methods in a much more dynamic and culturally appropriate manner. Furthermore, this analysis has offered insight into the unique cultural value systems that determine behavioral responses in unique scenarios. By recognizing the importance of culture as a moderating influence among learners, international instructors and training program designers can avoid some of the pitfalls attendant to cross-cultural training and the potential rejection by the learners. Knowledge transfer is as much about retention and its application as it is about the method of knowledge exchange. Cognitive development as described by Spiro, et al. (2003) and others cannot be viewed as a singular occurrence or transference. Instead, the ability to overcome prior cognitive blocks, including socially generated belief systems, can enable meaningful transfer of knowledge that is strategic and relevant. Overwhelmingly, this research supports the introduction of CFT programming as a primary tactic in international police training. Such training

approaches are versatile and experiential in nature and can produce greater long-term benefits than traditional classroom training.

In well designed role play training that is culturally and situation relevant, the potential is much greater than it otherwise would be that each time a student encounters a new scenario, he or she will gain knowledge that will have inexorable influence on their future thought processes and behaviors. Less thoughtful training designs have many times been employed that utilized traditional, linear Western pedagogical approaches that simply overwhelm the learner with facts that hold no significance or have no practical application in his or her usual situation and have led to disappointing results. Without the reaffirmation that comes via role playing, many cross-cultural students will simply remain disconnected. The examination of the performance of Filipino participants in this study has demonstrated that effective learning can occur in cross-cultural situations where wide gaps exist in cultural characteristics between the trainer and trainee, such as power-distance and individualist-collectivist preferences, if the training is designed appropriately and takes cultural context into consideration. The enigmatic key to future success in international development of policing and security forces is bound up in these idiosyncrasies.

In light of the foregoing discussion, it can come as no surprise that the typical approaches to police ethics training employed in the United States cannot directly transfer into a Filipino context or many of the other cultures around the world. American instructors approach the subject from a fundamentally different frame of reference and a wholly different professional experience than their Filipino counterparts and the cognitive disconnects across that cultural gap are many. It is absolutely imperative that we seek out

training methods which do not ignore cultural differences between teacher and learner, but instead allow each to make meaning in a personally relevant way. CFT driven training holds the promise of facilitating that aim.

APPENDIX A: Comparison of Mean Scores Across All Five Groups

Table 3

Comparison of Mean Scores for Pretests, Posttests, and Simulations Across All Five Groups

Group		Pretest	Posttest	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Years Service
Control	Mean	22.904	27.462				9.04
	N	52	52				52
	SD	4.362	4.796				8.263
Officer	Mean	21.829	26.561	3.146			6.61
	N	41	41	41			41
	SD	5.162	5.563	.727			5.305
Supervisor	Mean	23.150	26.467		3.150		7.17
	N	60	60		60		60
	SD	3.588	4.409		1.162		6.994
Victim	Mean	23.000	29.400			3.240	8.46
	N	50	50			50	50
	SD	3.338	4.131			1.451	7.143
All Three	Mean	22.917	30.883	3.783	3.717	3.550	9.40
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60
	SD	4.354	2.532	1.427	1.341	1.455	6.755

APPENDIX B: Complete Comparison of Posttest Scores Across Groups

Table 4

Complete Comparison of Posttest Scores Across Groups

Descriptives

Group	n	Mean	SD	Std Error	95% Confidence Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Min	Max
Control	52	27.46	4.796	.665	26.13	28.80	11	34
Officer	41	26.56	5.563	.869	24.80	28.32	5	35
Supervisor	60	26.47	4.409	.569	25.33	27.61	14	35
Victim	50	29.40	4.131	.584	28.23	30.57	20	35
All Three	60	30.88	2.532	.327	30.23	31.54	25	35
Total	263	28.24	4.621	.285	27.68	28.80	5	35

Multiple Comparisons

Posttest
Tukey HSD

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	Officer	.901	.898	.854	-1.57	3.37
	Supervisor	.995	.815	.739	-1.24	3.23
	Victim	-1.938	.852	.156	-4.28	.40
	All Three	-3.422*	.815	.000	-5.66	-1.18
Officer	Control	-.901	.898	.854	-3.37	1.57
	Supervisor	.094	.871	1.000	-2.30	2.49
	Victim	-2.839*	.906	.016	-5.33	-.35
	All Three	-4.322*	.871	.000	-6.72	-1.93
Supervisor	Control	-.995	.815	.739	-3.23	1.24
	Officer	-.094	.871	1.000	-2.49	2.30
	Victim	-2.933*	.824	.004	-5.20	-.67
	All Three	-4.417*	.785	.000	-6.57	-2.26

Table 4 Continued

Victim	Control	1.938	.852	.156	-.40	4.28
	Officer	2.839[*]	.906	.016	.35	5.33
	Supervisor	2.933[*]	.824	.004	.67	5.20
	All Three	-1.483	.824	.375	-3.75	.78
All Three	Control	3.422[*]	.815	.000	1.18	5.66
	Officer	4.322[*]	.871	.000	1.93	6.72
	Supervisor	4.417[*]	.785	.000	2.26	6.57
	Victim	1.483	.824	.375	-.78	3.75

[*] The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

APPENDIX C: Simulation Scenarios

Scenario #1 – Fernando and Palau

A rookie PNP officer, SPO1 Fernando, is assigned for field training purposes to SPO3 Palau. Palau has been with the PNP for 18 years and is regarded as one of the best field trainers. Palau is well respected by his peers and has been the recipient of several awards for valor. He is married, has five children to support, and his wife is unemployed. On Sundays he serves as an usher in his church.

During your tour of duty on the evening shift, Officers Fernando and Palau are dispatched to a reported burglary at a local grocery store. The shift supervisor, PINSP Gomez, arrives at the scene after Fernando and Palau have been there for half an hour.

As Gomez enters the grocery store, he sees that entry was gained through a broken plate glass window at the front of the store and that numerous items have been removed from the shelves. Officer Palau tells him that there must have been several burglars, because the owner, who just arrived as well, has reported quite a bit of merchandise missing from the store.

When Gomez asks how Fernando is doing adjusting to the new job, it seems that something is bothering him. He won't look Gomez in the eye and his behavior is subdued. Normally, Fernando is very excited on a big case such as this and his normal demeanor is quite outgoing. Gomez detects that something is wrong and waits for an opportunity to speak privately with Fernando while others are busy in the storeroom. At this point he asks Fernando if something is wrong and he reluctantly says "yes."

Fernando tells Gomez that he and Palau were the first to arrive at the crime scene and they went inside to check for suspects before the store manager arrived. He says that as they entered the store, he noticed a large currency note lying on the floor near the cash box. Fernando says he didn't touch it, but when he returned from getting some blank report forms from the patrol car, the note was gone

Gomez questions Fernando about his certainty of the facts, and he says he is absolutely positive and he further states that Palau was the only other person in the store at the time. He also mentions that he was afraid to ask Palau about the missing note.

As Gomez ponders the situation and decides on how to address it, Fernando adds that he witnessed Officer Palau take two packs of cigarettes from the broken display case and put them in his pocket.

Scenario #2 – Detective Lopez

A commercial district in your police station's area of responsibility has been plagued recently by a series of robberies over the past month. The robbers have grown increasingly more brazen and violent and during the most recent robbery, several shots were fired. The pressure from the community and the PNP chain of command to apprehend the responsible criminals is great and your station is working on the case very hard.

Detective Lopez, one of the best detectives at the station, is heading the investigation. He has been a detective for the past three years and has an enviable record for solving crimes. He informs the station chief that he has developed a suspect in the string of robberies and is about to arrest him. The chief is very happy about this break in the case and is pleased that he was able to take this individual off the street and bring credit to the work being done at his station.

Once in custody, the suspect confesses in writing to the series of robberies. Detective Lopez obtains a copy of his photograph and compiles a photographic lineup for victims of the robberies to review. Some victims immediately come to the police station and attempt to identify the robber in the photo lineup. Even though the robber often wore a mask or otherwise attempted to shield his face during these night-time robberies, Detective Lopez later reports that all three victims who reviewed the photo lineup were able to pick out the suspect.

Curious, the station chief calls one of the victims and engages in a conversation about the investigation. At one point he complimented the victim on her powers of observation by being able to select the suspect's photograph from a lineup of several photographs. The victim tells the chief that she would never have been able to pick the robber out if it hadn't been for Detective Lopez asking specifically if the "photo in the upper left-hand corner" looked like the robber. The victim advised that with this little hint she was able to pick out the correct suspect. Influencing a witness' identification in this way is strictly prohibited by the courts, but the chief is keenly aware that the suspect had already confessed prior to the photo lineup and that his superiors, the media, and the victims have all congratulated him and his staff for their handling of the case.

Scenario #3 – Velasco and Bolos

PNP Internal Affairs is investigating a highly publicized allegation of excessive force used in a police shooting. The media, politicians, and citizens are closely following the case. SPO2 Velasco stands accused of wrongfully shooting suspect Mancao during his apprehension. SPO3 Bolos was present and witnessed the shooting.

The investigation reveals that the level of force used by Velasco in this case was appropriate and lawful. However, it becomes clear that Bolos lied during the investigation. Bolos believed that his friend and colleague, Velasco, was in trouble over the shooting and bolstered his testimony to make the justification for the shooting appear even stronger than it actually was.

This lie is known to no one other than the internal affairs investigator, INSP Ramiro, and Bolos himself. Charging Bolos with misconduct will most likely result in his dismissal from the department. Moreover, the lie will taint an otherwise legitimate police action and fuel existing anti-police sentiment in the community, quite possibly leading to public demonstrations and adverse national media attention.

APPENDIX D: Police Ethics Pre/Posttests

Police Ethics

-Pretest-

Instructions: Indicate the most correct answer for each question

1. Values are those ideas and concepts within each of us:

a. that are very hard to change.

b. that are somewhat different from everyone else's.

c. that are important.

d. that are consistent with everyone else's ideas and concepts.

2. Values help us:

a. decide what is right and what is wrong.

b. make choices about how to spend money.

c. define who we are and what we stand for.

d. both a. and c.

3. Which parts of our lives do we have values for?

a. religion.

b. social groups or organizations.

c. family.

d. all of the above.

4. Organizations develop values much the same as each individual develops values. Organizational values are formed:

a. by the people who work within the group.

b. by consulting firms who are experts in the field of "values."

c. by acceptance of good values.

d. none of the above.

5. A good value system for a police agency would include:

a. honesty and integrity along with patriotism and selflessness.

b. respect for Human Rights and a desire to help and serve others.

c. professionalism and a strong sense of justice.

d. all of the above.

6. Ethics may be defined as:

a. a specific mission to maintain law and order within an organization or profession.

b. the trust and faith placed within an organization or profession by the people it serves.

c. to maintain law and order and to arrest persons, investigate suspected criminal activity, or use force in a lawful manner.

d. the standards of conduct and moral requirements necessary to function effectively within an organization or profession.

7. No other organization has the specific mission to maintain law and order and no other organization is entrusted with:

a. the lawful power to arrest persons.

b. authority to investigate suspected criminal activity.

c. to use force in a lawful manner.

d. all of the above.

8. Police are entrusted with an important and fundamental authority by the citizens and they must exercise such power with:

a. restraint.

b. inflexibility.

c. without regard for criticism.

d. without mercy.

9. The primary challenges to ethical police behavior are due to:

a. individual character challenges.

b. organizational challenges.

c. both a. and b.

d. none of the above.

10. The police personnel who undertake acts of unethical behavior:

a. tarnish the reputation of the entire police service.

b. will not be disciplined or removed since if the acts are minor offenses.

c. tarnish only their own reputation.

d. none of the above.

11. The term "law enforcement officials" in the *United Nations Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials* refers to:

a. only police officials of certain ranks that are responsible for ethics within their organization.

b. all persons that exercise police powers, especially the power of arrest and detention.

c. any public servant.

d. employees of police agencies that have adopted a code of conduct.

12. The most important duties and responsibilities of the police are:

a. enforce the law.

b. protect persons and property.

c. defend the human rights of all persons.

d. all of the above.

13. Law enforcement personnel are responsible for the care and safekeeping of persons in their custody. As such, the police have a duty to:

a. provide food and shelter.

b. provide clothing and transportation.

c. provide reasonable privacy for those persons in their custody.

d. provide reasonable medical care, to include lifesaving measures and preventive healthcare.

e. all of the above.

14. In the PNP *Police Professional Conduct* publication, it clearly states that uniformed PNP members shall commit themselves to:

a. the democratic way of life and values and maintain the principle of public accountability.

b. clearly representating the government of the Philippines.

c. uphold the Constitution and be loyal to our country, people and organization, above their loyalty to any person.

d. both a. and c.

15. In the PNP *Police Professional Conduct* publication, it clearly states that PNP members and their immediate family members shall:

a. be encouraged to actively get involved in religious activities.

b. be encouraged to actively get involved in social and civic activities.

c. be encouraged to enhance the image of the organization without affecting their official duties.

d. all of the above.

16. A police officer acts as an official representative of the government and as such:

a. the officer is trusted to work within the law.

b. the officer's duties are to follow orders.

c. the officer's powers and duties are conferred by statute.

d. the officer shall not question superiors.

17. Performance of the duties of a police officer include:

a. impartiality, professionalism, discretion, and maintenance of public confidence.

b. professionalism, discretion, maintenance of public confidence, and favoritism.

c. use of force, reasonableness, favoritism, and public confidence.

d. confidentiality, integrity, favoritism, and professionalism.

18. In policing, what does "integrity" mean?

a. that *esprit de corps* is stronger in law enforcement than in most other occupations.

b. that most police officials treat corruption as a subject to be avoided.

c. a personal commitment by each member of the department to do his or her best to further the department's goal of honorably and lawfully serving and protecting the public.

d. police agencies must use preventive controls, such as a solid inspection system to discover problems before they happen.

19. What does the term "police corruption" refer to?

a. all types of wrongful police conduct, including brutality or excessive use of force.

b. what occurs privately between police officers.

c. financial loans accepted by police officers.

d. police officers involved in dishonest activities for personal gain.

20. What is extortion?

a. the practice of accepting narcotics in return for protection of the drug dealers.

b. accepting the use of excessive force in order to get the job done.

c. the practice of soliciting money or favors by police officers in return for ignoring violations of the law.

d. the practice of accepting petty bribes.

21. Kickbacks and bribes are:

a. money or something of value given to the officer by an individual or an organization in exchange for special consideration.

b. violations of the law.

c. both of the above.

d. none of the above.

22. When police protect gamblers or drug dealers:

a. they undermine the integrity of the criminal organization and only a few survive, which are easier to police.

b. they are allowing gambling and drug dealing to proceed unchecked, which damages the lives of citizens.

c. gambling and drug dealing are victimless crimes, so no harm is done.

d. they do it because the police have more important crimes to address.

23. Police corruption undermines public confidence in the police because:

a. it promotes an uneasiness in the community.

b. police officers are most effective when the public believes they are on the job and can be depended upon.

c. when corruption is exposed or is believed to exist, the public feels both betrayed and vulnerable and support for the police erodes.

d. all of the above.

24. To a substantial degree, police behavior simply mirrors the ethics of the larger community in which the police carry out their duties. Why?

a. no police department can remain an island of integrity in a sea of corruption.

b. governmental and societal corruption can spill over into policing.

c. both a. and b.

d. neither a. or b.

25. Why would officers develop cynicism about their work?

a. police officers are conceited.

b. when they meet citizens who are willing to pay them to overlook the law, some officers come to see themselves as operating in a world of corruption.

c. police officers see themselves as superior to ordinary citizens.

d. police officers are tired of being scrutinized.

26. How many "bad" or "corrupt" officers does it take to discredit the reputation of an entire police organization?

a. one.

b. two.

c. half the members of the organization.

d. none of the above.

27. There are many reasons why police officers become demoralized; three of those reasons are:

a. weak character, unethical personality and low moral standards.

b. frustration, stress, and weak character.

c. personal issues, low moral standards and status.

d. poor working hours, low pay, or uncaring citizens.

28. Because of the frustrations that an officer contends with, he or she may feel justified in doing something unethical because in their minds:

a. others do it.

b. my father did it.

c. it's not illegal when the police do it.

d. all of the above.

29. Law enforcement cannot be a true profession unless its members have a strong sense of:

a. commitment to their status in the community.

b. obligation to their responsibilities.

c. abiding commitment to their culture.

d. responsibility to their well-being.

30. Why must a police officer comply with a self-imposed higher standard of conduct?

a. to demonstrate to the citizens that he/she is superior to them.

b. to fulfill his or her duties, which are based upon the understanding that because the police are afforded much power and authority, they are held to higher standards of conduct than ordinary citizens.

c. to ensure promotion when the time is appropriate.

d. none of the above.

31. Law enforcement will always be the profession that people call upon most often when faced with a crisis. Good people, bad people, rich and poor, all turn to the police when they need help. After several years on the street dealing with problems, many officers begin to feel:

a. scared and frustrated.

b. sad and lonely.

c. suspicious and cynical.

32. What are the supervisor's ethical responsibilities in combating corruption?

a. being a role model.

b. encouraging loyalty.

c. both a. and b.

d. none of the above.

33. Supervisors are responsible for encouraging teamwork, loyalty and comradeship:

a. they must also have a positive attitude and be worthy of respect.

b. they must also refrain from negative and cynical attitudes to keep from having pessimistic and negative subordinates.

c. they must also take timely and appropriate measures to counteract unethical conduct or bad attitudes.

d. all of the above.

34. What must every police supervisor and manager make clear to all departmental members regarding corruption?

a. that corruption will not be tolerated and that the only "honest money" is the paycheck.

b. that corrupt department members will be prosecuted and sent to prison.

c. that exceptions will be made depending on the circumstances.

d. none of the above.

35. Police corruption may represent a failure by whom?

a. leadership/command.

b. the organization.

c. policy

d. all of the above

Instructions: Indicate the most correct answer for each question.

1. From where do values originate?

a. our families.

b. our traditions.

c. our religion.

d. all of the above.

2. Once established, values are:

a. easy to change.

b. very hard to change.

c. what our whole life will be about.

d. non-enforceable.

3.   Every organization has values that are important to the group; these values may be:

a. formed.

b. informal.

c. formal.

d. both b. and c.

4. If the members of an organization do not believe in its value system:

a. It's okay.

b. the organization may completely disappear.

c. the organization will not function in an ethical manner.

d. people within the organization will not be affected.

5. Organizations develop values much the same as each individual develops values. Values are formed:

a. by the people who work within the group.

b. by consulting firms who are experts in the field of "values."

c. by acceptance of good values.

d. none of the above.

6. Ethics may be defined as:

a. a specific mission to maintain law and order within an organization or profession.

b. the trust and faith placed within an organization or profession by the people it serves.

c. to maintain law and order and to arrest persons, investigate suspected criminal activity, or use force in a lawful manner.

d. the standards of conduct and moral requirements necessary to function effectively within an organization or profession.

7. In a law enforcement context, ethics can be further defined as:

a. honest and honorable service to the community rather than working for personal gain or individual profit.

b. lawful power and authority given to law enforcement.

c. A specific mission to maintain law and order within an organization.

d. Power given to an organization to lawfully and ethically investigate crimes.

8. The police service has the unique responsibility within an organized society to:

a. exercise their authority by whatever means they choose.

b. arrest persons, investigate criminal activity and use excessive force if they deem it necessary.

c. maintain law and order within the community.

d. exercise their powers in ways defined by the government, without regard for the standards of individual communities.

9. The difficulties of "individual character challenges" arise from personal flaws or defects where police personnel engage in acts of:

a. dishonesty and greed.

b. brutality.

c. individual acts of corruption.

d. all of the above.

10. If police who engage in acts of corruption are not punished:

a. it can cause a breakdown in morale among other honest and ethical employees.

b. it gives the appearance that the police service as an organization condones such activity.

c. both a. and b.

d. none of the above.

11. Organizational challenges to police ethics are difficult to deal with; in some instances:

a. the organization has adopted several forms of conduct for its members.

b. the entire police organization, or an entire unit, has adopted unethical and unprofessional police standards.

c. the entire police organization, or an entire unit, has adopted ethical and professional police standards and conduct regular training.

d. The organization has permitted or has participated in many seminars dealing with police ethics but don't understand.

12. An organization which permits or has participated in police misconduct, including extortion or solicitation of bribes and pay-offs; which uses the police structure to collect unauthorized payments, and which engages in acts of police brutality and even homicide to maintain power:

a. is fundamentally corrupt and cannot be reformed without a major change in personnel, especially at the command level.

b. can be salvaged through vigorous training in Police Ethics

c. is fundamentally corrupt but can be reformed without a major change in personnel, especially at the command level.

d. Cannot be salvaged unless there is a major change at the first line and mid-level management.

13. The term "law enforcement officials" in the *United Nations Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials* refers to:

a. only police officials of certain ranks that are responsible for ethics within their organization.

b. all persons that exercise police powers, especially the power of arrest and detention.

c. any public servant.

d. employees of police agencies that have adopted a code of conduct.

14. The use of force by law enforcement officials must be lawful, proportionate to the circumstances, and:

a. only used when no other reasonable alternative exists.

b. only be used when there are no witnesses.

c. only be used when authorized by superior officers.

d. only be used when the perpetrator has struck the officer multiple times.

15. When the police come into possession of information that relates to the private lives of other persons, that information:

a. is theirs to do with as they see fit.

b. may be released to the news media so the public can be aware of police investigations.

c. should be released only as required in the performance of their duty when required by the criminal justice system.

d. should be released only to the victims of crimes.

16. Article Seven of the *United Nations Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials* provides, in part:

a. law enforcement officials may use force only when strictly necessary and to the extent required for the performance of their duty.

b. law enforcement officials shall not commit any act of corruption and they shall rigorously oppose and combat all such acts.

c. law enforcement officials shall at all times fulfill the duty imposed upon them by law, by serving and by protecting all persons against illegal acts, consistent with the high degree of responsibility required by their profession.

d. none of the above.

17. In the PNP *Police Professional Conduct* publication, it clearly states that uniformed PNP members shall commit themselves to:

a. the democratic way of life and values, and maintain the principle of public accountability.

b. clearly represent the Government of the Philippines.

c. uphold the Constitution and be loyal to our country, people and organization, above their loyalty to any person.

d. both a. and c.

18. In accordance with the PNP *Doctrine on Command Responsibility*,

a. immediate commanders/directors shall be responsible for the effective supervision, control and direction of their personnel.

b. all police officials shall have an affirmative duty to respect and enforce the Code of Conduct.

c. immediate commanders/directors shall have the unique responsibility within an organized society to exercise their authority in whatever means they choose.

d. immediate commanders/directors shall have the responsibility within the organization to maintain law and order.

19. A police officer should never employ unnecessary force or violence and:

a. shall perform all duties impartially.

b. will treat all citizens with courtesy, consideration, and dignity.

c. will never allow personal feelings, animosities, or friendships to influence official conduct.

d. all of the above.

20. In their personal and professional capacities, a police officer should be responsible for:

a. their own standard of professional performance.

b. their own personal space.

c. their area of responsibility.

d. none of the above.

21. Whatever a police officer sees, hears or learns, which is of a confidential nature, should be kept secret unless:

a. a failure to disclose the information jeopardizes the officer's credibility.

b. the officer has a vendetta against the department or the victim.

c. the officer's personal principles require him or her to compromise the secret.

d. the performance of his duty or legal provision requires otherwise.

22. What does the term, "bringing corruption out of the closet," mean?

a. uncompromising adherence to a set of values.

b. recognizing corruption to be a chronic problem, and conceding that it is a serious one; acknowledging history of police wrongdoing within the department.

c. nonconformity with police obligations.

d. corruption that has been hanging in the closet is now being aired out.

23. What does the term "police corruption" often refer to?

a. all types of wrongful police conduct, including brutality or excessive use of force.

b. what occurs privately between police officers.

c. financial loans accepted by police officers.

d. police officers involved in dishonest activities for personal gain.

24. The major categories of corruption include:

a. negotiable graft, extortion and acceptance of petty bribes.

b. taking kickbacks and similar rewards.

c. opportunistic theft and taking bribes from other officers.

d. all of the above.

25. Some police officials do not think that corruption interferes with sound management of the police department, especially when:

a. the corruption is confined to vice enforcement.

b. they are being well compensated for their beliefs.

c. when the public accepts the corruption

d. prosecutors refuse to communicate with police officials.

26. A supervisor who solicits or accepts bribes cannot or will not control misconduct by subordinates because:

a. he or she lacks the moral authority to compel obedience or maintain satisfactory levels of discipline and productivity.

b. when sergeants, lieutenants, or captains get the bulk of the graft, patrol officers learn that as long as they do not question matters, they need not worry about discipline and can take their proper duties lightly.

c. without effective supervision, officers are likely to respond more slowly to calls for assistance, avoid assigned duties, sleep on the job, look for ways to earn extra money, and perform poorly in situations requiring discipline and organization.

d. all of the above.

27. Why do many honest police chiefs commonly hesitate to deal with corruption or go to extraordinary lengths in efforts to shield the crooks and incompetents within their ranks from exposure?

a. because they lack courage.

b. the police chief who accepts the view that corruption is here to stay is more likely to give much thought to how to combat it internally.

c. for fear that once corruption is exposed, the public will exaggerate its scope, thereby damaging the chief's and the department's reputation.

d. all of the above.

28. What is most likely to happen when police officers suspect that prosecutors and judges are corrupt?

a. officers generally have too much respect for prosecutors and judges to consider them corrupt.

b. officers will attempt to correct the corruption by using their authority.

c. officers will attempt to "cut in" on the action.

d. the suspicion may grow into a self-serving justification for an officer's own misconduct.

29. Some officers attempt to justify a dishonest or unethical deed by trying privately to convince themselves that it was warranted. When they are caught, the most typical excuse is:

a. my father did it.

b. the devil made me do it.

c. if I were paid what I should be paid, I wouldn't have had to do it.

d. who cares, I didn't want this job anyway.

30. Why is it important for police departments to adopt clear, objective use of force standards that establish exactly what level of force may be employed to repel an attack or protect the life of another?

a. because what may be considered excessive force by some individuals may be justified in the minds of others.

b. because the news media needs to have this information.

c. because all officers need to behave in exactly the same manner.

d. none of the above.

31. Each use of force incident must be thoroughly reviewed by the chain of command. Why?

a. to ensure it is appropriate.

b. so that officers who have trouble controlling their anger or show a tendency toward revenge are given counseling.

c. so that if the officer's problems continue, finding employment in another field may be necessary.

d. all of the above.

32. Law enforcement cannot be a true profession unless its members have a strong sense of:

a. commitment to their status in the community.

b. obligation to their responsibilities.

c. abiding commitment to their culture.

d. responsibility to their well-being.

33. Why must an officer comply with a self-imposed higher standard of conduct?

a. to demonstrate to the citizens that he/she is superior to them.

b. to fulfill his or her duties, which are based upon the understanding that because the police are afforded much power and authority, they are held to higher standards of conduct than ordinary citizens.

c. to ensure promotion when the time is appropriate.

d. none of the above.

34. Supervisors have additional ethical responsibilities; they must be:

a. leaders and role models who develop their employees' senses of ethics.

b. role models and buddies who ensure their employees' do anything they want.

c. supervisors and comrades who ensure they are their employees' confidant.

d. leaders and managers who develop strategies to assist their employees in achieving excellence.

35. What must every police supervisor and manager make clear to all departmental members regarding corruption?

a. that corruption will not be tolerated and that the only "honest money" is the paycheck.

b. that corrupt department members will be prosecuted and sent to prison.

c. that exceptions will be made depending on the circumstances.

d. none of the above.

APPENDIX E: Participant Consent Form

<div align="center">

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH
ICITAP/PNP POLICE ETHICS TRAINING

</div>

INTRODUCTION

You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted by Richard Miller, from the College of Education, Organizational Learning and Instructional Technology program at the University of New Mexico. I am writing a doctoral dissertation related to the effectiveness of various training methods. You were identified as a possible volunteer in the study because you are about to take a course in Police Ethics designed by ICITAP.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study will gather data from numerous ICITAP courses and statistical tests will be performed on that data to attempt to draw some conclusions about what teaching methods are most effective.

PROCEDURES AND ACTIVITIES

Participation in this study requires no additional effort beyond the normal class activities on your part – your participation is only an acknowledgement and consent that data related to your participation will be collected during the class and later included as part of a scientific analysis. All data collected will be used anonymously and it will not be possible for anyone to link any particular data to you as an individual. The data that I will collect will include pretest and post-test scores, gender, and your length of service with PNP. After the class is finished, I will request an interview with a few individuals, but those interviews will be done on a strictly voluntary basis **and each interview will require no more than 15-20 minutes to complete**. There is no penalty of any kind for you if you choose not to participate in this study and likewise, there is no personal benefit for you if you do participate. The principal benefit I expect to gain from this research is to discover how ICITAP and other training organizations might improve their teaching methods.

DISCOMFORTS & RISKS

I do not foresee any discomfort or risks that participants in this study will endure. The strict confidentiality of the source of the study data will provide all participants with complete anonymity. The class activities required of study participants will be no different than students who choose not to participate in the study, although a few volunteers will be sought to make comments and observations about their experiences after the conclusion of the class. You are free to participate in the study by agreeing to the use of your data but then decline to take part in a possible post-course interview. Your participation in the study will have no effect on your learning experience or the awarding of a certificate of completion.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

There is no particular benefit to you as a student whether or not you participate in this research study. The only expected benefit will be information that may assist ICITAP in the design of future training.

CONFIDENTIALITY

For most participants in this study, there will be no information collected that would not ordinarily be collected as part of the training course. The data used in the study will be analyzed anonymously and there will be no means by which anyone reviewing the study findings could link a particular piece of data to you as an individual. Only those students who elect to participate in a voluntary interview after the conclusion of the course will be providing any information beyond what would normally be required as part of the ICITAP training course. Any information obtained in connection with this study and that can be connected to you personally will remain confidential and it will not be disclosed to anyone. Once the study is completed, any information in my possession that is identifiable as coming from a particular individual will be destroyed.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to participate in this study or not. If you volunteer to participate, you may withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you might otherwise be entitled. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the study.

IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS AND REVIEW BOARD

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact: Richard Miller at 0920-932-8675 (Manila, Philippines) or Dr. Mark Salisbury (Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA) at 001-505-277-9768. If you have other concerns or complaints, contact the Institutional Review Board at the University of New Mexico, 1717 Roma NE, Room 205, Albuquerque, NM 87131 USA, 001-505-277-2257, or toll free at 001-866-844-9018.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT

I understand the procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction and I agree to participate in this study. I have been provided a copy of this form.

Name of Participant (please print): _____

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

In my judgment the participant is voluntarily and knowingly providing informed consent and possesses the legal capacity to give informed consent to participate in this research study.

Name of Investigator or Designee: _____

Signature of Investigator or Designee: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX F: U.N. Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials

United Nations Code of Conduct for Police Organizations

Article 1: Law enforcement officials shall at all times fulfill the duty imposed upon them by law, by serving and by protecting all persons against illegal acts, consistent with the high degree of responsibility required by their profession.

Article 2: In the performance of their duty, law enforcement officials shall respect and protect human dignity and maintain and uphold the human rights of all persons.

Article 3: Law enforcement may use force only when strictly necessary and to the extent required for the performance of their duty.

Article 4: Matters of a confidential nature in the possession of law enforcement officials shall be kept confidential, unless the performance of duty or the needs of justice strictly require otherwise.

Article 5: No law enforcement may inflict, instigate or tolerate any act of torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, nor may any law enforcement official invoke superior orders…as justification of torture or other curls, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6: Law enforcement officials shall ensure the full protection of the health of persons in their custody and, in particular, shall take immediate action to secure medical attention whenever required.

Article 7: Law enforcement officials shall not commit any act of corruption. They shall rigorously oppose and combat all such acts.

Article 8: Law enforcement officials shall respect the law and the present Code. They shall also, to the best of their capability, prevent and rigorously oppose any violation of them.

APPENDIX G: PNP Code of Police Professional Conduct

PNP Code of Police Professional Conduct

1. *Commitment to Democracy* – Uniformed PNP members shall commit themselves to the democratic way of life and values and maintain the principle of public accountability. They shall at all times uphold the Constitution and be loyal to our country, people and organization, above their loyalty to any person.

2. *Commitment to Public Interest* – PNP members shall always uphold public interest over and above personal interest. All government properties, resources and powers of their respective offices must be employed and used effectively, honestly and efficiently, particularly to avoid wastage of public funds and revenues. PNP members must avoid and prevent the "malversation" of human resources, government time, property and funds.

3. *Non-Partisanship* – PNP members shall provide services to everyone without discrimination regardless of party affiliation in accordance with existing laws and regulations.

4. *Physical Fitness and Health* – PNP members shall strive to be physically and mentally fit and in good health at all times. Toward this end, they shall undergo regular physical exercises and annual medical examination in any PNP Hospital or Medical facility, and actively participate in the Physical Fitness and Sports Development Program of the PNP.

5. *Secrecy Discipline* – PNP members shall guard the confidentiality of classified information against unauthorized disclosure, including confidential aspects of official business, special orders, communications and other documents roster or any portion thereof, contents of criminal records, identities of persons who may have given information to the police in confidence and other classified information or intelligence material.

6. *Social Awareness* – PNP members and their immediate family members shall be encouraged to actively get involved in religious, social and civic activities to enhance the image of the organization without affecting their official duties.

7. *Non-Solicitation of Patronage* – PNP members shall seek self-improvement through career development and shall not directly or indirectly solicit influence or recommendation from politicians, high ranking government officials, prominent citizens, persons affiliated with civic or religious organizations with regards to their assignments, promotions, transfer or those of other members of the force, nor shall they initiate any petition to be prepared and presented by citizens in their behalf.

Moreover, they shall advise their immediate relatives not to interfere in the activities of the police service particularly in the assignment and reassignment of personnel.

8. *Proper Care and Use of Public Property* – PNP members shall promote and maintain a sense of responsibility in the protection, proper care and judicious disposition and use of public property issued for their official use or entrusted to their care and custody just like "a good father of their family." When the Commander/Director is relieved from his post, all properties/equipment belonging to the government must be turned-over to the incoming. A committee for the purpose shall be proper. Hence, it is a taboo for outgoing Commander/Director to detach, remove and bring home or to his new assignment properties which do not personally belong to him.

9. *Respect for Human Rights* – In the performance of duty, PNP members shall respect and protect human dignity and uphold the human rights of all persons. No member shall inflict, instigate or tolerate extra-judicial killings, arbitrary arrests, any act of torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment and shall not invoke superior orders or exceptional circumstances such as a state of war, a threat ot national security, internal political instability or any public emergency as a justification for committing such human rights violations.

10. *Devotion to Duty* – PNP members shall perform their duties with dedication thoroughness, efficiency enthusiasm, determination, and manifest concern for public welfare, and shall refrain from engaging in any activity which shall be in conflict with their duties as public servants.

11. *Conservation of Natural Resources* – PNP members shall help in the development and conservation of our natural resources for ecological balance and posterity as these are the inalienable heritage of our people.

12. *Discipline* – PNP members shall conduct themselves properly at all times in keeping with the rules and regulations of the organization.

13. *Loyalty* – PNP members shall be loyal to the Constitution and the police service as manifested by their loyalty to their superiors, peers and subordinates as well.

14. *Obedience to Superiors* – PNP members shall obey lawful orders of and be courteous to superior officers and other appropriate authorities within the chain of command. They shall readily accept whenever they are assigned anywhere in the country. Therefore, it is taboo for any personnel to petition in court or in any public forum his assignment.

15. *Command Responsibility* – In accordance with the Doctrine on Command Responsibility, immediate Commanders/Directors shall be responsible for the effective supervision, control and direction of their personnel and shall see to it that all government resources shall be managed, expended or utilized in accordance with laws and regulations and safeguard against losses through illegal or improper disposition.

APPENDIX H: PNP Police Officer's Creed

PNP Police Officer's Creed

1. I believe in God, The Supreme Being, The Great Provider, and The Creator of all men and everything dear to me. In return, I can do no less than love Him above all obeying His word, seek His guidance in the performance of my sworn duties and honor Him at all times.

2. I believe that respect for authority is a duty. I respect and uphold the Constitution, the laws of the land and the applicable rules and regulations. I recognize the legitimacy and authority of the leadership, and obey legal orders of my superior officers.

3. I believe in selfless love and service to people. Towards this end, I commit myself to the service of my fellow men over and above my personal interest.

4. I believe in the sanctity of marriage and family life. I shall set the example of decency and morality, shall have high regard for family life and value of marital fidelity.

5. I believe in the responsible dominion and stewardship over material things. I shall inhibit myself from extravagance and ostentatious display of material things. I shall help protect the environment and conserve nature to maintain ecological balance.

6. I believe in the wisdom of truthfulness. I must be trustworthy and I shall uphold the truth at all times.

APPENDIX I: Ethics Training Pretest/Posttest and Simulation Raw Scores

| Class #1 | Sep 17-18, 2007 | Control Group | | | | | | | | |

Student No.	Name	Gender	Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario
001	Deleted	M	26	27	32	5	77.1	91.4	14.3	N/A
002	Deleted	M	27	20	31	11	57.1	88.6	31.4	N/A
004	Deleted	F	19	23	18	(5)	65.7	51.4	-14.3	N/A
007	Deleted	M	11	26	23	(3)	74.3	65.7	-8.6	N/A
008	Deleted	M	9	28	29	1	80.0	82.9	2.9	N/A
009	Deleted	F	6	24	32	8	68.6	91.4	22.9	N/A
010	Deleted	M	6	23	23	0	65.7	65.7	0.0	N/A
011	Deleted	F	5	28	29	1	80.0	82.9	2.9	N/A
012	Deleted	M	5	21	24	3	60.0	68.6	8.6	N/A
013	Deleted	M	6	28	32	4	80.0	91.4	11.4	N/A
014	Deleted	M	7	27	32	5	77.1	91.4	14.3	N/A
015	Deleted	M	7	24	29	5	68.6	82.9	14.3	N/A
017	Deleted	M	11	14	19	5	40.0	54.3	14.3	N/A
018	Deleted	F	1	25	26	1	71.4	74.3	2.9	N/A
019	Deleted	F	1	19	26	7	54.3	74.3	20.0	N/A
020	Deleted	M	5	24	29	5	68.6	82.9	14.3	N/A
021	Deleted	M	1	21	24	3	60.0	68.6	8.6	N/A
022	Deleted	M	1	22	23	1	62.9	65.7	2.9	N/A
023	Deleted	M	1	28	29	1	80.0	82.9	2.9	N/A
024	Deleted	M	2	20	33	13	57.1	94.3	37.1	N/A
025	Deleted	M	4	11	16	5	31.4	45.7	14.3	N/A
21	Averages:		7.7	23.0	26.6	3.6	65.7	76.1	10.3	

| Class #2 | Sep 19-20, 2007 | Control Group | | | | | | | | |

Student No.	Name	Gender	Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario
026	Deleted	M	4	24	31	7	68.6	88.6	20.0	N/A
027	Deleted	M	25	25	25	0	71.4	71.4	0.0	N/A
028	Deleted	M	27	25	30	5	71.4	85.7	14.3	N/A
029	Deleted	M	27	23	26	3	65.7	74.3	8.6	N/A
030	Deleted	M	24	23	29	6	65.7	82.9	17.1	N/A
031	Deleted	M	26	22	24	2	62.9	68.6	5.7	N/A
032	Deleted	M	18	23	26	3	65.7	74.3	8.6	N/A
033	Deleted	M	17	27	32	5	77.1	91.4	14.3	N/A
034	Deleted	F	19	19	11	(8)	54.3	31.4	(22.9)	N/A
035	Deleted	M	19	25	34	9	71.4	97.1	25.7	N/A
036	Deleted	M	9	29	29	0	82.9	82.9	0.0	N/A
037	Deleted	M	6	21	32	11	60.0	91.4	31.4	N/A
038	Deleted	M	6	8	28	20	22.9	80.0	57.1	N/A
039	Deleted	F	7	27	32	5	77.1	91.4	14.3	N/A
040	Deleted	M	7	25	32	7	71.4	91.4	20.0	N/A
041	Deleted	M	6	27	26	(1)	77.1	74.3	(2.9)	N/A
042	Deleted	M	7	14	20	6	40.0	57.1	17.1	N/A
043	Deleted	F	7	21	28	7	60.0	80.0	20.0	N/A
044	Deleted	M	7	25	28	3	71.4	80.0	8.6	N/A
045	Deleted	M	7	16	29	13	45.7	82.9	37.1	N/A
046	Deleted	M	6	26	30	4	74.3	85.7	11.4	N/A
047	Deleted	M	8	23	32	9	65.7	91.4	25.7	N/A
048	Deleted	F	2	25	29	4	71.4	82.9	11.4	N/A
049	Deleted	M	2	24	26	2	68.6	74.3	5.7	N/A
050	Deleted	F	1	20	30	10	57.1	85.7	28.6	N/A
051	Deleted	F	1	18	27	9	51.4	77.1	25.7	N/A
052	Deleted	M	3	25	30	5	71.4	85.7	14.3	N/A
053	Deleted	M	3	24	20	(4)	68.6	57.1	(11.4)	N/A
054	Deleted	M	1	23	34	11	65.7	97.1	31.4	N/A
055	Deleted	M	1	24	30	6	68.6	85.7	17.1	N/A
056	Deleted	M	6	27	29	2	77.1	82.9	5.7	N/A
31	Averages:		10.0	22.8	28.0	5.2	65.3	80.1	14.8	

Class #3	Sep 24-25, 2007	Experimental Group 1								
Student No.	Name	Gender	Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario 1
057	Deleted	M	15	21	26	5	60.0	74.3	14.3	3
058	Deleted	M	11	24	30	6	68.6	85.7	17.1	3
059	Deleted	M	22	28	33	5	80.0	94.3	14.3	3
060	Deleted	M	16	20	31	11	57.1	88.6	31.4	3
064	Deleted	M	19	13	25	12	37.1	71.4	34.3	3
065	Deleted	M	11	26	23	-3	74.3	65.7	(8.6)	3
066	Deleted	M	11	21	25	4	60.0	71.4	11.4	4
067	Deleted	M	16	24	32	8	68.6	91.4	22.9	4
068	Deleted	M	9	5	5	0	14.3	14.3	0.0	1
069	Deleted	M	5	24	24	0	68.6	68.6	0.0	3
070	Deleted	M	5	24	31	7	68.6	88.6	20.0	3
071	Deleted	F	5	19	26	7	54.3	74.3	20.0	2
073	Deleted	M	5	22	22	0	62.9	62.9	0.0	3
074	Deleted	M	3	13	25	12	37.1	71.4	34.3	3
075	Deleted	M	1	28	32	4	80.0	91.4	11.4	3
076	Deleted	F	1	22	30	8	62.9	85.7	22.9	4
077	Deleted	M	1	19	33	14	54.3	94.3	40.0	3
078	Deleted	M	1	18	16	-2	51.4	45.7	(5.7)	2
079	Deleted	F	1	24	30	6	68.6	85.7	17.1	2
080	Deleted	M	1	24	23	-1	68.6	65.7	(2.9)	3
081	Deleted	M	4	21	24	3	60.0	68.6	8.6	4
21	Averages:		7.8	21.0	26.0	5.0	59.9	74.3	14.4	3.0

Class #4	Sep 26-27, 2007	Experimental Group 1								
Student No.	Name	Gender	Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario 1
082	Deleted	M	10	29	21	(8)	82.9	60.0	(22.9)	4
083	Deleted	M	9	26	31	5	74.3	88.6	14.3	2
084	Deleted	M	12	25	33	8	71.4	94.3	22.9	3
087	Deleted	M	6	27	29	2	77.1	82.9	5.7	3
088	Deleted	M	10	15	26	11	42.9	74.3	31.4	4
089	Deleted	F	5	27	28	1	77.1	80.0	2.9	4
090	Deleted	M	6	25	31	6	71.4	88.6	17.1	3
091	Deleted	M	7	16	27	11	45.7	77.1	31.4	3
093	Deleted	M	7	20	29	9	57.1	82.9	25.7	4
095	Deleted	M	6	9	16	7	25.7	45.7	20.0	2
097	Deleted	F	3	24	28	4	68.6	80.0	11.4	3
098	Deleted	F	3	20	35	15	57.1	100.0	42.9	3
104	Deleted	M	4	24	31	7	68.6	88.6	20.0	4
105	Deleted	M	2	24	23	(1)	68.6	65.7	(2.9)	3
107	Deleted	M	2	27	28	1	77.1	80.0	2.9	4
108	Deleted	M	2	23	29	6	65.7	82.9	17.1	4
110	Deleted	M	3	27	23	(4)	77.1	65.7	(11.4)	4
111	Deleted	M	2	22	26	4	62.9	74.3	11.4	4
112	Deleted	M	3	21	26	5	60.0	74.3	14.3	3
113	Deleted	M	6	24	23	(1)	68.6	65.7	(2.9)	3
20	Averages:		5.4	22.8	27.2	4.4	65.0	77.6	12.6	3.4

Class #5	Oct 1-2, 2007	Experimental Group 2								
Student No.	Name	Gender	Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario 2
114	Deleted	M	27	20	30	10	57.1	85.7	28.6	1
115	Deleted	M	20	17	30	13	48.6	85.7	37.1	4
116	Deleted	M	25	16	31	15	45.7	88.6	42.9	1
117	Deleted	M	22	24	18	(6)	68.6	51.4	(17.1)	3
118	Deleted	M	9	20	25	5	57.1	71.4	14.3	3
119	Deleted	M	9	18	17	(1)	51.4	48.6	(2.9)	3
120	Deleted	M	16	25	33	8	71.4	94.3	22.9	4
121	Deleted	M	8	21	34	13	60.0	97.1	37.1	4
122	Deleted	M	11	20	32	12	57.1	91.4	34.3	3
123	Deleted	F	6	20	35	15	57.1	100.0	42.9	3
124	Deleted	M	6	19	31	12	54.3	88.6	34.3	3
125	Deleted	M	2	22	30	8	62.9	85.7	22.9	3
126	Deleted	M	3	25	27	2	71.4	77.1	5.7	3
127	Deleted	M	2	21	19	(2)	60.0	54.3	(5.7)	1
128	Deleted	M	2	25	32	7	71.4	91.4	20.0	3
129	Deleted	M	1	21	14	(7)	60.0	40.0	(20.0)	3
130	Deleted	M	2	26	32	6	74.3	91.4	17.1	4
131	Deleted	M	3	23	32	9	65.7	91.4	25.7	3
132	Deleted	M	8	22	35	13	62.9	100.0	37.1	3
133	Deleted	M	2	26	29	3	74.3	82.9	8.6	4
134	Deleted	M	5	22	26	4	62.9	74.3	11.4	3
136	Deleted	M	2	15	27	12	42.9	77.1	34.3	3
137	Deleted	F	2	25	27	2	71.4	77.1	5.7	4
138	Deleted	M	1	21	22	1	60.0	62.9	2.9	3
139	Deleted	M	2	26	30	4	74.3	85.7	11.4	4
140	Deleted	M	5	15	27	12	42.9	77.1	34.3	3
26	Averages:		21.3	21.3	27.9	6.5	61.0	79.7	18.7	3.0

Class #6	Oct 3-4, 2007	Experimental Group 2								
Student No.	Name	Gender	Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario 2
141	Deleted	M	16	28	28	0	80.0	80.0	0.0	4
143	Deleted	M	24	19	22	3	54.3	62.9	8.6	4
144	Deleted	M	28	29	25	(4)	82.9	71.4	(11.4)	4
145	Deleted	M	16	22	20	(2)	62.9	57.1	(5.7)	0
146	Deleted	M	10	21	27	6	60.0	77.1	17.1	3
147	Deleted	M	11	27	23	(4)	77.1	65.7	(11.4)	3
148	Deleted	M	6	24	26	2	68.6	74.3	5.7	5
149	Deleted	F	6	19	28	9	54.3	80.0	25.7	3
150	Deleted	F	5	22	28	6	62.9	80.0	17.1	4
152	Deleted	M	14	22	23	1	62.9	65.7	2.9	2
153	Deleted	M	7	26	23	(3)	74.3	65.7	(8.6)	1
154	Deleted	M	6	25	28	3	71.4	80.0	8.6	3
155	Deleted	M	10	28	25	(3)	80.0	71.4	(8.6)	4
156	Deleted	M	5	26	20	(6)	74.3	57.1	(17.1)	3
157	Deleted	M	3	27	25	(2)	77.1	71.4	(5.7)	5
158	Deleted	M	2	25	27	2	71.4	77.1	5.7	3
159	Deleted	M	5	20	24	4	57.1	68.6	11.4	2
160	Deleted	M	4	26	25	(1)	74.3	71.4	(2.9)	0
161	Deleted	M	1	27	31	4	77.1	88.6	11.4	2
162	Deleted	M	2	29	27	(2)	82.9	77.1	(5.7)	3
163	Deleted	M	2	25	27	2	71.4	77.1	5.7	4
164	Deleted	M	2	27	28	1	77.1	80.0	2.9	4
165	Deleted	M	1	26	28	2	74.3	80.0	5.7	3
166	Deleted	M	4	27	29	2	77.1	82.9	5.7	4
167	Deleted	M	5	21	25	4	60.0	71.4	11.4	4
168	Deleted	F	3	24	25	1	68.6	71.4	2.9	4
169	Deleted	M	3	25	22	(3)	71.4	62.9	(8.6)	5
170	Deleted	M	4	19	23	4	54.3	65.7	11.4	2
171	Deleted	M	4	29	30	1	82.9	85.7	2.9	5
172	Deleted	M	4	27	25	(2)	77.1	71.4	(5.7)	1
173	Deleted	M	1	19	27	8	54.3	77.1	22.9	4
174	Deleted	M	4	23	24	1	65.7	68.6	2.9	3
175	Deleted	M	1	27	23	(4)	77.1	65.7	(11.4)	4
176	Deleted	M	10	23	22	(1)	65.7	62.9	(2.9)	5
34	Averages:		6.7	24.5	25.4	0.9	70.1	72.5	2.4	3.2

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| Class #7 | Oct 8-9, 2007 | Experimental Group 3 | | | | | | | | |

Student No.	Name	Gender	Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario 3
177	Deleted	M	18	25	29	4	71.4	82.9	11.4	5
178	Deleted	M	14	28	31	3	80.0	88.6	8.6	5
179	Deleted	M	10	27	35	8	77.1	100.0	22.9	5
180	Deleted	F	30	21	28	7	60.0	80.0	20.0	3
181	Deleted	M	14	18	31	13	51.4	88.6	37.1	4
182	Deleted	M	12	24	28	4	68.6	80.0	11.4	3
183	Deleted	M	14	18	26	8	51.4	74.3	22.9	4
184	Deleted	M	9	20	30	10	57.1	85.7	28.6	3
185	Deleted	M	5	18	20	2	51.4	57.1	5.7	1
186	Deleted	M	7	23	31	8	65.7	88.6	22.9	5
187	Deleted	F	5	21	34	13	60.0	97.1	37.1	1
188	Deleted	M	5	23	29	6	65.7	82.9	17.1	1
189	Deleted	M	6	21	25	4	60.0	71.4	11.4	5
190	Deleted	M	2	26	27	1	74.3	77.1	2.9	1
191	Deleted	M	2	24	22	(2)	68.6	62.9	(5.7)	2
192	Deleted	M	1	29	29	0	82.9	82.9	0.0	4
193	Deleted	M	4	24	22	(2)	68.6	62.9	(5.7)	4
194	Deleted	M	1	25	34	9	71.4	97.1	25.7	5
195	Deleted	M	1	22	21	(1)	62.9	60.0	(2.9)	1
196	Deleted	M	5	22	24	2	62.9	68.6	5.7	3
197	Deleted	M	3	16	21	5	45.7	60.0	14.3	1
198	Deleted	M	5	17	30	13	48.6	85.7	37.1	4
199	Deleted	M	4	14	21	7	40.0	60.0	20.0	4
200	Deleted	M	5	27	35	8	77.1	100.0	22.9	2
24	Averages:		7.6	22.2	27.6	5.4	63.5	78.9	15.5	3.2

| Class #8 | Oct 10-11, 2007 | Experimental Group 3 | | | | | | | | |

Student No.	Name	Gender	Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario 3
201	Deleted	M	17	27	28	1	77.1	80.0	2.9	3
202	Deleted	F	22	22	32	10	62.9	91.4	28.6	5
203	Deleted	M	26	24	33	9	68.6	94.3	25.7	5
204	Deleted	M	20	25	33	8	71.4	94.3	22.9	3
205	Deleted	M	22	22	31	9	62.9	88.6	25.7	3
206	Deleted	M	11	24	31	7	68.6	88.6	20.0	1
207	Deleted	M	21	24	31	7	68.6	88.6	20.0	3
208	Deleted	M	10	25	29	4	71.4	82.9	11.4	5
209	Deleted	M	11	22	35	13	62.9	100.0	37.1	3
210	Deleted	M	11	24	30	6	68.6	85.7	17.1	5
211	Deleted	M	7	21	31	10	60.0	88.6	28.6	1
212	Deleted	M	8	21	29	8	60.0	82.9	22.9	3
213	Deleted	M	7	28	33	5	80.0	94.3	14.3	2
214	Deleted	M	6	22	30	8	62.9	85.7	22.9	4
215	Deleted	M	9	19	29	10	54.3	82.9	28.6	2
216	Deleted	M	5	23	28	5	65.7	80.0	14.3	3
217	Deleted	M	6	20	33	13	57.1	94.3	37.1	2
218	Deleted	F	1	25	34	9	71.4	97.1	25.7	4
219	Deleted	M	1	23	24	1	65.7	68.6	2.9	3
220	Deleted	F	1	26	33	7	74.3	94.3	20.0	5
221	Deleted	M	1	23	30	7	65.7	85.7	20.0	2
222	Deleted	F	4	25	27	2	71.4	77.1	5.7	3
223	Deleted	F	4	23	34	11	65.7	97.1	31.4	5
224	Deleted	F	4	28	31	3	80.0	88.6	8.6	5
225	Deleted	M	5	22	35	13	62.9	100.0	37.1	5
226	Deleted	M	1	29	33	4	82.9	94.3	11.4	1
26	Averages:		9.3	23.7	31.0	7.3	67.8	88.7	20.9	3.3

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| Class #9 | Oct 15-16, 2007 | | Experimental Group 4 | | | | | | | | | |

Student No.	Name	Gender	Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3
227	Deleted	M	11	19	35	16	54.3	100.0	45.7	4	5	5
228	Deleted	F	10	23	34	11	65.7	97.1	31.4	5	5	5
229	Deleted	F	10	19	32	13	54.3	91.4	37.1	5	5	5
230	Deleted	M	25	19	29	10	54.3	82.9	28.6	5	5	5
231	Deleted	M	18	26	34	8	74.3	97.1	22.9	5	5	4
232	Deleted	M	18	25	33	8	71.4	94.3	22.9	5	5	5
233	Deleted	M	12	28	30	2	80.0	85.7	5.7	5	5	5
234	Deleted	M	17	21	30	9	60.0	85.7	25.7	3	5	4
235	Deleted	M	11	26	35	9	74.3	100.0	25.7	2	3	4
236	Deleted	M	5	22	33	11	62.9	94.3	31.4	5	5	4
237	Deleted	M	9	27	29	2	77.1	82.9	5.7	3	2	4
238	Deleted	M	9	19	32	13	54.3	91.4	37.1	5	5	5
239	Deleted	M	11	26	31	5	74.3	88.6	14.3	5	4	4
240	Deleted	M	10	22	32	10	62.9	91.4	28.6	5	5	5
241	Deleted	M	10	7	30	23	20.0	85.7	65.7	3	3	3
242	Deleted	M	7	21	32	11	60.0	91.4	31.4	3	4	5
243	Deleted	M	8	22	30	8	62.9	85.7	22.9	4	4	4
244	Deleted	M	12	18	30	12	51.4	85.7	34.3	4	4	4
245	Deleted	M	4	25	34	9	71.4	97.1	25.7	5	5	5
246	Deleted	M	12	25	31	6	71.4	88.6	17.1	5	3	3
247	Deleted	M	10	23	33	10	65.7	94.3	28.6	2	2	2
248	Deleted	M	3	23	33	10	65.7	94.3	28.6	5	4	4
249	Deleted	M	4	24	30	6	68.6	85.7	17.1	3	2	1
250	Deleted	M	4	14	30	16	40.0	85.7	45.7	1	1	3
251	Deleted	M	3	27	35	8	77.1	100.0	22.9	4	3	4
252	Deleted	M	4	23	30	7	65.7	85.7	20.0	2	2	1
253	Deleted	M	3	10	27	17	28.6	77.1	48.6	3	2	2
254	Deleted	M	4	26	33	7	74.3	94.3	20.0	5	5	5
255	Deleted	M	20	26	31	5	74.3	88.6	14.3	5	5	5
256	Deleted	M	20	23	34	11	65.7	97.1	31.4	5	5	5
257	Deleted	M	20	20	31	11	57.1	88.6	31.4	2	3	1
258	Deleted	M	32	23	31	8	65.7	88.6	22.9	3	3	2
32	Averages:		11.1	21.9	31.7	9.8	62.7	90.5	27.9	3.9	3.9	3.8

Class #10 Oct 17-18, 2007   Experimental Group 4

Student No.	Name	Gender	Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3
259	Deleted	F	23	29	34	5	82.9	97.1	14.3	5	5	5
260	Deleted	M	26	20	31	11	57.1	88.6	31.4	5	5	5
261	Deleted	M	18	25	31	6	71.4	88.6	17.1	5	5	5
262	Deleted	F	10	21	30	9	60.0	85.7	25.7	3	4	2
263	Deleted	M	11	25	32	7	71.4	91.4	20.0	1	1	1
264	Deleted	M	8	27	33	6	77.1	94.3	17.1	5	5	5
265	Deleted	M	5	26	29	3	74.3	82.9	8.6	5	3	2
266	Deleted	M	6	25	28	3	71.4	80.0	8.6	4	4	3
267	Deleted	M	10	25	28	3	71.4	80.0	8.6	1	1	1
268	Deleted	M	8	21	31	10	60.0	88.6	28.6	5	5	5
270	Deleted	M	4	26	31	5	74.3	88.6	14.3	5	4	4
271	Deleted	M	10	23	28	5	65.7	80.0	14.3	1	3	2
272	Deleted	F	3	24	35	11	68.6	100.0	31.4	5	5	5
273	Deleted	F	3	25	30	5	71.4	85.7	14.3	5	5	3
274	Deleted	F	4	29	29	0	82.9	82.9	0.0	3	3	3
275	Deleted	M	10	27	27	0	77.1	77.1	0.0	3	3	2
276	Deleted	M	5	26	32	6	74.3	91.4	17.1	5	4	4
277	Deleted	M	2	18	26	8	51.4	74.3	22.9	5	4	4
278	Deleted	F	4	27	34	7	77.1	97.1	20.0	4	4	5
279	Deleted	M	5	22	27	5	62.9	77.1	14.3	5	4	4
280	Deleted	M	5	32	32	0	91.4	91.4	0.0	2	1	1
281	Deleted	M	3	23	35	12	65.7	100.0	34.3	1	1	1
282	Deleted	F	3	24	30	6	68.6	85.7	17.1	3	4	2
283	Deleted	M	5	17	25	8	48.6	71.4	22.9	5	5	5
284	Deleted	M	5	21	30	9	60.0	85.7	25.7	2	2	1
285	Deleted	M	5	21	26	5	60.0	74.3	14.3	2	2	2
286	Deleted	M	5	17	27	10	48.6	77.1	28.6	1	2	3
287	Deleted	M	2	27	28	1	77.1	80.0	2.9	5	5	5
28	Averages:		7.4	24.0	30.0	5.9	68.7	85.6	16.9	3.6	3.5	3.2

** Combined Averages **

		Years	PreTest Raw	PostTest Raw	Raw Difference	Pretest %	Posttest %	% Difference	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3
52	*Control Group:*	8.82	22.92	27.33	4.41	65.48	78.07	12.59	N/A	N/A	N/A
41	*Experimental Group 1:*	6.58	21.85	26.58	4.72	62.43	75.93	13.50	3.15	N/A	N/A
60	*Experimental Group 2:*	14.04	22.94	26.63	3.70	65.54	76.10	10.56	N/A	3.14	N/A
50	*Experimental Group 3:*	8.43	22.97	29.33	6.36	65.63	83.80	18.18	N/A	N/A	3.24
60	*Experimental Group 4:*	9.28	22.99	30.83	7.84	65.68	88.07	22.40	3.77	3.71	3.53
263	*TOTAL PARTICIPANTS*										

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APPENDIX J: Questionnaire Response Summary

Question: How has your understanding of police ethics changed since you took part in the role playing exercise(s)?

	Control Groups		Exp. Group 1		Exp. Group 2		Exp. Group 3		Exp. Group 4		Totals
Answers related to...	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6	Class 7	Class 8	Class 9	Class 10	
Earning Respect of Community	0	3	3	2	3	1	5	4	3	5	
Enhancing Effectiveness of PNP	0	6	7	5	8	1	5	6	9	6	
Duty to Expose Corruption	0	3	6	1	3	2	4	2	3	2	
Negative Effects on PNP Pride/Morale	0	3	1	1	1	1	3	4	3	3	
Other	0	4	3	6	8	2	6	7	10	6	
Total Responses	0	19	20	15	23	7	23	23	28	22	180
Number of Group Members	21	31	21	20	26	34	24	26	32	28	263
% of Group Members Responding	0	61	95	75	88	21	96	88	88	79	68

Question: In what ways will your professional behavior change because of your attendance in this class?

	Control Groups		Exp. Group 1		Exp. Group 2		Exp. Group 3		Exp. Group 4		Totals
Answers related to...	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6	Class 7	Class 8	Class 9	Class 10	
Proper Treatment of Others	0	3	2	3	7	2	5	4	4	3	
Introspection / Character & Values	0	7	3	2	3	0	5	7	11	7	
Avoiding Appearance of Impropriety	0	2	3	5	2	1	4	4	5	4	
Personal Commitment to Duty	0	5	6	3	5	1	3	2	4	2	
Adherence to Rules & Regulations	0	0	2	0	2	0	1	0	2	1	
Other	0	2	3	5	5	3	4	5	4	6	
Total Responses	0	19	19	18	24	7	22	22	30	23	184
Number of Group Members	21	31	21	20	26	34	24	26	32	28	263
% of Group Members Responding	0	61	90	90	92	21	92	85	94	82	70

Question: How will your experience in this class help you make ethical decisions in real life?

Answers related to...	Control Groups		Exp. Group 1		Exp. Group 2		Exp. Group 3		Exp. Group 4		Totals
	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6	Class 7	Class 8	Class 9	Class 10	
Yes / Identified Personal Weaknesses	0	2	3	2	3	1	3	2	5	1	
Yes / Refamiliarized with Rules & Regs	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	3	1	1	
Will Make More Circumspect Decisions	0	4	4	3	6	0	3	5	4	6	
Will Strive for Fairness	0	2	6	4	4	2	4	4	4	2	
Other	0	10	6	9	9	3	12	9	16	15	
Total Responses	0	19	20	18	23	6	23	23	30	25	187
Number of Group Members	21	31	21	20	26	34	24	26	32	28	263
% of Group Members Responding	0	61	95	90	88	18	96	88	94	89	71

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