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The Training Curriculum at Pennsylvania Municipal Police Academies: Perceptions of Effective Training

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THE TRAINING CURRICULUM AT PENNSYLVANIA
MUNICIPAL POLICE ACADEMIES:
PERCEPTIONS OF EFFECTIVE TRAINING

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research

in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

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Title: The Training Curriculum at Pennsylvania Municipal Police Academies:
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This study examined the perception of effective police academy training curriculum topics as reported by Pennsylvania municipal police officers. A second purpose explored the relationship between the police academy pedagogy and the perception of training adequacy that exists by individual officers.

Using survey data from 152 municipal police officers this research found respondents have received the most adequate training in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions in the area of criminal law. The curricular topic of informants was perceived to be the least effective training area. Literature identified training gaps uncovered in Chapter II of this study showed officer training deficiencies in the areas of homeland security, cybercrime, and same-sex domestic violence. Homeland security ranked fourth in least adequacy. Cyber crime was the third least adequate training curriculum topic according to respondents. Same-sex domestic violence training was perceived to be the second least adequate.

This study also sought to determine if there was a significant difference in the perceived adequacy of training between police officers who completed academy training at a higher educational academy and those who attended a governmental academy. An independent sample *t*-test showed no statistical significant difference. The results of this study also explored if a statistically significant difference exists in the level of militarism experienced between higher educational academies and governmental academies. This study found a significant degree of

militarism does exist at academies conducted in a governmental setting compared to a higher educational facility.

The results of this research add to the sparse literature that exists on varying police academy pedagogical techniques. The findings of this study provide valuable information for police academy instructors and curriculum authors. The information obtained as a result of this study can be used to better prepare police officers for their employment responsibilities.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The job of a police officer has historically been one of great stress and complexity (Marenin, 2004). According to police training pioneer and revolutionist, August Vollmer (1933):

The citizen expects police officers to have the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of David, the strength of Samson, the patience of Job, the leadership of Moses, the kindness of the Good Samaritan, the strategical training of Alexander, the faith of Daniel, the diplomacy of Lincoln, the tolerance of the Carpenter of Nazareth, and finally, an intimate knowledge of every branch of the natural, biological, and social sciences. If he has all these, he might be a good policeman!

Police officers work long, irregular hours under intense pressure and stressful conditions. It can be argued that when a doctor makes a mistake a person is dissatisfied; when a lawyer makes a mistake a person pays too much, but when a police officer makes a mistake innocent people could perish or be sent to jail (Edwards, 1993). This study attempted to examine the perception of adequacy that exists among Pennsylvania municipal police officers concerning the academy training curriculum and compare the perceived effectiveness to the academic literature that exists on training gaps or inefficiencies.

Research has shown that police training is insufficiently or inadequately conducted in several respects. Furthermore, police officers insist that academy curriculum authors have lost touch with the realities of police work. If all the aforementioned statements are valid, how can we be assured the next time the police are called a competent and well-trained professional will arrive?

Current Police Training Curricular Gaps

Current issues in police academy curricular training reveal that gaps exist in competency levels of officers. New concerns for homeland security defense have directly impacted the employment duties of police officers (Wilson & Grammich, 2009). Post September 11, 2001 has resulted in police officers being tasked with performing job duties unheard of by their superior officers including surveillance, intelligence gathering, and risk threat assessments (Wilson & Grammich, 2009). Although federal law enforcement agencies have been created solely to protect against national security threats, patrol officers initially respond to suspicious terrorist acts and are tasked with preventing and detecting this type of behavior (White & Escobar, 2008). Therefore, proper training in this subfield is vital. According to White and Escobar (2008) typical police training has not adopted counter-terrorism awareness in any great quantity.

According to Kraska (2007) technology advancements have increased the employment responsibilities of police officers. The catalyst behind changes in policing is largely due to advances in technology (White & Escobar, 2008). However, most police departments have been very slow in adopting technology to counter crime, understand its intricacies in crime commission, and have largely failed to adequately train officers in cyber knowledge (White & Escobar, 2008).

The Federal Bureau of Investigation has seen its cyber crime caseload increase 1200% over the last few years and estimates this type of misbehavior causes tens of billions of dollars in monetary losses annually (Rataj, 2008). According to Hall (2008) law enforcement is ill prepared to handle the criminal element that has infiltrated the “lightning-quick” evolution of our technology. The only other issue that frustrates law enforcement more than cyber crime is terrorism (Goodman, 2001). Goodman (2001) further explains that prior to the terrorist events of

September 11, 2001, “to law enforcement, the internet was considered by many as the most daunting challenge and the most problematic policing issue in history.” Brenner (2009) concluded that out of the hundreds of thousands of police officers dispersed throughout the United States, only a few are adept at dealing with digital evidence.

The work of O’Dell (2007), revealed another area of concern for police academy curricular training such as the investigation and handling of domestic violence incidents. Three distinct philosophical eras characterize police handling of domestic violence incidents. Before the 1970s, police response to domestic violence incidents was categorized as (a) the traditional response: separate the victim from the attacker for a “cooling off” period with usually no subsequent arrest following the incident (O’Dell, 2007). The service response method (b) popular in the 1970s and mid-1980s meant that police educated domestic violence participants on the errors of their ways and provided social service agency referrals (O’Dell, 2007). During this era, arrests were made based on judgment and officer discretion (O’Dell, 2007). From the 1980s to modern day, the method of handling domestic violence incidents is known as (c) the required arrest response (O’Dell, 2007). Currently, many police departments are required by law to take custody of a person at every domestic violence incident in which physical injuries however slight are observed (Brecci, 2002).

The problem with the current model of police domestic violence response system is the illegal or unsubstantiated arrest of victims who are usually women. Research by Robinson and Chandeck (2000), link the actual response by police to domestic violence victims and/or perpetrators to the militaristic atmosphere of policing coupled with a nearly all male police workforce to foster masculine stereotypes that support hostility and aggression toward women. Therefore, because women comprise the largest portion of domestic violence victims in

heterosexual relationships; male officers do not understand family violence from the female's perspective unfavorably affect the implementation of required arrest procedures (O'Dell, 2007). The illegal or improper arrests of women in domestic violence incidents usually stems from a lack of knowledge concerning what constitutes self-defense indicating a lack of quality police training (O'Dell, 2007). Finally, when police academies decide to thoroughly train officers on domestic violence incidents and the intricacies of self-defense they also need to educate officers on the controversial topics of male privilege thinking, entitlement, and understanding bias (O'Dell, 2007). False and illegal arrests of victims defending themselves are made in great frequency due to inappropriate and absentee training (O'Dell, 2007).

A study done by Tesch, Bekerian, English, and Harrington (2010) found a lack of police academy curricular training on the handling of domestic violence cases that involve same-sex partners. Most research on same-sex domestic violence incidents reveals that it occurs with the same frequency perpetration in heterosexual couples (Barnes, 1998; Island & Leterllier, 2002). Additionally, research shows that police departments across the country are receiving more calls for help in same-sex domestic violence incidents than in the past (Tesch, Bekerian, English, & Harrington, 2010). Research conducted in Chicago revealed that 89% of officers surveyed ($n = 91$) reportedly responded to one or more incidents of same-sex domestic violence (Tesch, Bekerian, English, & Harrington, 2010). According to Tesch, Bekerian, English, and Harrington (2010) 70% of officers reported that they did not receive any classes or training during the police academy on same-sex domestic violence incidents.

The study done by Johnson (2011) revealed that a major cause of assaults to police officers stems from responding to domestic violence incidents. Johnson (2011) concluded the

prevalence of reported incidents of domestic violence has remained stable since the 1980s and the manner in which officers are trained has not changed either.

The results of Daly's (2005) study found police officers are inept in their abilities to properly investigate child abuse incidents as a result of inadequate police academy curricular training. Since the 1960s (around the same time regimented training became required of most police cadets), the number of reported episodes of child abuse rose from 150,000 to nearly 3 million assaults annually (Daly, 2005). Specialized training in the basic police academy is needed to address this growing concern stemming in some instances from the increased widespread use of technology and internet crimes. Daly (2005) argues that cadets in police academies are not being properly educated on the following topics: forensic interviewing, crucial evidence collection techniques, child memory, human development, and suspect interrogation. In their study of police empathy efficacy, Oxburgh and Ost (2011) found that officers are not comfortable interviewing child victims which is attributable to poor job preparation. Additionally, the training that is available to officers during the police academy in the areas of child abuse is inadequate at best and many times counterproductive (Daly, 2005).

Research shows that frequently it is the patrol officer who received minimal training and who initially responds to the child abuse incident (Daly, 2005). Specifically, only 14% of child abuse investigations are dispatched to detectives who may have had more extensive training than the patrol officer (Daly 2005). Daly (2005) also reports that nearly 90% of police agencies do not specifically employ detectives thus, often it is one officer (ill-trained patrolman or patrolwomen) who must investigate the child abuse case and progress it through prosecution and trial.

The field of policing is a social science discipline that experiences expeditious change as a result of what is taking place in the world (Peat & Moriarty, 2009). Currency on the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed to meet the rigor of this field requires ongoing change to meet the demand (Peat & Moriarty, 2009). However, “agencies tend to become in-bred in training and practice by failing to benefit from research and from the wisdom officers trained in other agencies could offer” (Peat & Moriarty, 2009).

Officers constantly argue that academy training is “irrelevant to real world police work” (Birzir & Tannehill, 2001). Birzir (1999) argues that the curriculum design of most police training academies is the responsibility of senior staff, however, even though these individuals are sworn officers they largely have forgotten the real practice of police work due to the majority of their time being spent in an office and not on the street.

Brief History of Policing

American policing developed shortly after 1822 and was inspired by London’s police department and its chief, Sir Robert Peel. Although law enforcement in the United States has been in existence for over 150 years, it was not until the 1960s that most departments began to offer formal academy training (White & Escobar, 2008). However, the earliest roots of a police training curriculum in the United States dates back to 1853 in New York City (Edwards, 1993). In 1853, the training of New York City police officers lasted only 30 days and was limited in curricular content to military drills and classroom instruction in the areas of local ordinances, criminal law, and departmental policies (Palmiotto, 2003). By 1914, the New York police training regimen was increased to 6 weeks and shortly after to 12 weeks (Palmiotto, 2003).

Although New York was the pioneer of formal police training, other cities established their own training programs. Philadelphia established a police training school in 1913 and

during the 1920s, the Los Angeles police department metamorphosed its training program to greater length and intensity (Palmiotto, 2003). New York was first to establish a formal state police training academy in 1917 that lasted four weeks. According to Peak (2006) after the creation of the New York State Police Academy, the training regime was expanded to 6 weeks that resulted in 250 hours of instruction. The Pennsylvania State Police Academy was created in 1919 as a four month training program and eventually was extended to six months as is the length today. According to Schmallegger (2009) initially, both academies included courses in criminal law, traffic law, rules of evidence, criminal investigation, and first aid. By the 1930s, every state except Wisconsin developed a state police department and training program. In 1935, the Federal Bureau of Investigation began their involvement in training municipal and state police officers by creating the Police Training School (Palmiotto, 2003). The training however, was restricted as it largely is today to educating police supervisors.

In 1959 the first state mandated training program for municipal police officers was instituted, and the requirement began in New York (Peak, 2006). To become a municipal police officer in New York after 1959, an individual was required to complete 80 hours of formal training (Palmiotto, 2003). By the late 1960s, California, Michigan, Ohio, Georgia, and Kansas also required that police cadets participate in a mandatory training program (Palmiotto, 2003).

Pennsylvania did not create a state mandated basic training curriculum for municipal police cadets until 1974 after the Municipal Police Officers' Education and Training Commission (MPOETC) was formed. The MPOETC has identified a core job description for police officers that consist of 16 essential employment functions or competencies. The goal of the MPOETC academy is to train officers to meet the competencies by providing 758 hours of instruction in various police curriculum content areas. Upon completion of training, a written

certification exam is administered to all cadets based on 33 core curriculum topics. The curriculum content for Pennsylvania's basic municipal police academy training is the responsibility of MPOETC's commission members including.

Pedagogical Methods at Police Academies

Although evidence of policing dates back thousands of years, the formal emphasis on training officers has only evolved since the late 1960s. The training environment and pedagogy of police academies can affect a police officer's perception of the adequacy of training that was received. According to a study by McCay (2011) there is a mismatch between a police cadet's preferred learning style and the actual methods of academy instruction. Active participation from learners by utilizing a practical, scenario-based teaching methodology is the preferred method of police academy instruction as indicated by police cadets during McCay's (2011) qualitative study. In Pennsylvania, the number of instructional hours devoted to scenario-based, practical learning comprises 25% (192) of the total course and is the same for all police academies whether the setting is a governmental facility or whether the training is held on a college campus.

According to a national study by the U.S. Department of Justice Bureau of Justice Statistics, 43% of police academies operated by individual states indicated the training environment to be predominately militaristic, 26% of county police academies were reported as militaristic, and 17% of city academies are primarily militaristic (Reaves, 2009). While there is a tendency, especially at the governmental police academies to prepare police cadets using the military model, officers can be effectively trained under non-military means (McCay, 2011).

Problem Statement

According to Haberfield (2002), much can be done to better prepare police officers for the wide array of tasks they routinely perform on a daily basis. Haberfield (2002) comments on the police cadets of the 1970s and 1980s by labeling them as “responsibility absorbers” in which most possessed prior military training and were almost robotic in thinking. These early police officer cadets were trained at the academy to follow a reactive policing cycle of respond, control, and return to service. Many scholars argue that the pedagogical environment of nearly every police academy in the United States actually thwarts the learning process (White & Escobar, 2008). The paradox for police officers is that society demands they work in a democratic manner yet their training occurs in a “very paramilitary, punitive, and authoritarian environment” (White & Escobar, 2008). This researcher found no research specific to Pennsylvania and few studies of other parts of the United States that compared the perceived satisfaction levels of police officers as a result of training in different academy environments and settings.

There is some research on the training gaps or curricular deficiencies that exist between what a police officer learns in the academy and what he or she believes is important for employment preparedness, but the findings are contradictory. Curricular programs for police cadets of today are likely to need a stronger emphasis on strategic thinking, problem solving abilities, community collaboration, terrorism, domestic violence, child abuse investigations, and increased technological skills (O’Dell, 2007; Tesch, Bekerian, English, & Harrington, 2010; Wilson & Grammich, 2009).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the perception of adequacy that exists among Pennsylvania municipal police officers concerning the academy training curriculum and compare

the perceived effectiveness to the academic literature that exists on training gaps or inefficiencies. Specifically, this study examined the perception of the adequacy relative to 33 police academy training curriculum topics as reported by Pennsylvania municipal police officers. A second purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between the police academy training environment and the perception of training adequacy that exists by individual officers.

Significance of the Study

The study is important because it contributes valuable insight into the perceived adequacy of training as described by municipal police officers in Pennsylvania. McCay (2011) remarked in the recommendation section of his dissertation that studies need to be done that compare officers trained under militaristic and non-militaristic methods to uncover differences in job satisfaction and preparedness. Salo (2012) explained that future researchers should persist in an examination of the relationship between the police training environment and acquired skill sets. The MPOETC police academy training curriculum has not been updated since the year 2008; therefore, there is considerable value in examining training issues facing the police today in large part due to the changing nature of policing and continued efforts to professionalize this occupation (White & Escobar, 2008). The findings of this study should be seen as an opportunity for police departments to improve their training programs to better prepare the “new-generation” employee and the public that they will serve (Wilson & Gramlich, 2009).

Operational Definitions

Andragogy. Pedagogical technique that aims to build decision making, problem solving, and communication skills (Werth, 2009).

Cadet. A person in training en route to becoming a sworn police officer.

Certification. “The assignment of a certification number to a police officer after successful completion of a mandatory basic training course” (Municipal Police Officers’ Education and Training Commission, 2011).

Community Oriented Policing. Community Oriented Policing (COP) is a philosophical and organizational strategy that promotes collaboration between community members and police.

Higher Educational Academy. Training that is conducted at a college or university campus.

Governmental Academy. Training that is conducted at a city, county, or state facility.

Militarism/Paramilitary. Characteristics associated with the armed forces (McCay, 2011).

Municipal Police Officers’ Education and Training Commission. The Municipal Police Officers’ Education & Training Commission (MPOETC) “established in 1974 to set the training standards for police officers seeking employment in Pennsylvania.” (Municipal Police Officers’ Education and Training Commission, 2011).

Municipal police officer. “A full-time or part-time employee assigned to criminal or traffic law enforcement duties of any of the following: (i) county, city, borough, town, or township; (ii) railroad; (iii), campus or university; or (iv), airport police.” (Municipal Police Officers’ Education and Training Commission, 2011).

Police academy. “A training school which provides a basic police training course within the functional organization of a police department or an educational facility in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania” (Municipal Police Officers’ Education and Training Commission, 2011).

Theoretical Position

Much is known about curricular and pedagogical theories in higher educational settings however, sparse information exists on the applicability of these theories to police training (Cross, 1981; Jarvis, Holford, & Griffin, 2005; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Therefore, frame factory theory was suitable to use as a starting point for this study (Karp & Stenmark, 2011). Frames are explained as factors that identify the teaching situation or the boundaries within which the police operate and carry out training. Organizational frames are resources such as the number of instructors available during police training, the allotment of curricular hours to various subject matter, and the size of the class roster (Kiely & Peek, 2002). Frames set limits on what types of training can be offered. According to Kiely and Peek (2002) change is difficult to achieve in police academies and organizations. Due to frames, academy instructors and cadets have little control over the curriculum and the pedagogical environment. This theory could help explain why the police academy curriculum and pedagogy have been slow to revolutionize.

Pedagogical theory can be used as a framework for studying the training environment of police academies. The theory of andragogy was first revealed by Alexander Napp in 1833 (Rachel, 2002). The theory was not widespread until Malcolm Knowles (1973) authored *The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species* (McCay, 2011). Andragogy is an emerging pedagogical method used to train police officers. The principal characteristic in andragogy education is to increase “decision making, problem solving, communication, and collaboration skills” (Werth, 2009). This approach to instruction builds critical thinking skills, fosters self-directed learning, and increases intrinsic motivation (Hmelo-Silver, 2004). Barrows (2002) explains the andragogy method of training police cadets infuses practical application problem-solving into the pedagogy and encourages cadets to use prior life experiences to work through dilemmas and focuses on presenting knowledge that is readily identified as being immediately transferable to the

workplace. Additionally, learning for the andragogy model to be effectively implemented requires that police training be based on an approach that is holistic, realistic, and integrated (Marenin, 2004).

The holistic approach to educating and training police cadets results in the mutual involvement of teacher and student in an open learning environment (Marenin, 2004). Holistic training also includes the notion that transmission of knowledge should be experiential, the stressing of goals and values, and critical thinking skills are developed with an emphasis on career-long learning (Marenin, 2004).

The research by Roberg and Kuykendall (2000) showed that andragogy police training must be realistic and based on what an officer actually does. This can be accomplished by focusing more attention to learning about police service and order maintenance as opposed to strict law enforcement teachings. Specific topics in the andragogy model of education designed to teach realistic job responsibilities include communication skills building, human behavior awareness, principals of social science knowledge, and empathy (Marenin, 2004).

Another element of the andragogy approach to education is the stressing of general and abstract principals of democratic policing coupled with teaching the practical aspects of law enforcement (Marenin, 2004). Police decision making in the field is a dynamic, complicated, and contingent process (Marenin, 2004). For this reason, andragogy education teaches decision making and judgment skills.

Lastly, the andragogy education model teaches acceptance. Much emphasis is placed on the adherence of human rights and values, diversity, and tolerance which is usually taught in a group discussion format. These group meetings teach police cadets that societal members

deserve to be treated fairly and justly when law enforcement encounters arise and an appreciation for cultural diversity begins to develop.

The foundation of nearly all studies of police agencies and environments is contingency theory. Contingency theory states that organizations particularly police departments are only effective if they remain dynamic and are adaptable to technological and environmental changes (Maguire & Uchida, 2007). The focus of contingency theory is on the task environment defined as elements with direct relevance for the work environment of the organization (Ericson & Haggerty, 1997). In the profession of policing, the task environment includes dealing with citizens, the courts, understanding crime, diversity, and being able to relate to the community. Contingency theory posits that organizations that fail to adapt to technological and environmental changes will be ineffective or fail (Langworthy, 1995).

The MPOETC has identified 16 essential functions or competencies that a police officer should possess after completing the basic academy. These competencies can be understood in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions. Knowledge is defined as “familiarity, awareness, or understanding gained through experience or study” (Lee & Herner-Patnode, 2010). According to Lee and Herner-Patnode (2010) dispositions refer to beliefs, preferences, and values. Specifically dispositions include an appreciation for diversity, caring, and honesty (Lee & Herner-Patnode, 2010). A skill is defined as something a person can do (Lee & Herner-Patnode, 2010).

According to MPOETC (2011), once a cadet has fulfilled all of the graduation requirements of the academy and has become a certified officer, he or she must be knowledgeable about the specific elements of individual criminal charges as found in essential function “A.” According to essential function “B” officers must be competent in their abilities to

arrest and detain persons. This translates to knowledge officers must have to be able to observe persons in custody to determine whether they are intoxicated, in medical distress, or have a mental health concern. According to MPOETC (2011), knowledge in other areas includes the competency to determine accurate geographical direction of vehicles involved in traffic accidents and comprehension of the Pennsylvania crime and vehicle codes, defined as essential function “F.”

MPOETC (2011) has identified over 200 skills that newly graduated officers are expected to have acquired during the basic police academy. A sampling of skills includes the ability to respond to and conduct initial investigations of various crimes and events delineated by MPOETC as essential function “A.” These skills include the competency to be able to secure a crime scene, protect evidence, interview witnesses, and control media access at police incidents. MPOETC has identified essential function “H” as the ability to operate emergency vehicles. An officer must be skilled in the ability to engage in high-speed driving through congested areas, operate a patrol vehicle in all types of weather, and read vehicle license plates while operating a patrol vehicle (Municipal Police Officers’ Education and Training Commission, 2011).

According to the essential functions of a police officer as determined by MPOETC, dispositions are important employment competencies. MPOETC has identified essential function “K” as the ability to develop and maintain positive community and interpersonal relations. Examples of dispositions under this competency includes the ability to develop trusting relationships with citizenry, consider ethical standards while performing law enforcement duties, and have an appreciation for cultural diversity (Municipal Police Officers’ Education and Training Commission, 2011).

Research Questions

1. In which of the curriculum topics do certified Pennsylvania municipal police officers believe they have received the least and most adequate training in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions?
2. Do police officers who completed basic police academy training at a higher educational academy perceive their training to be more or less adequate than those who attended a governmental academy?
3. Do police officers who completed basic police academy training at a higher educational academy perceive their training to have been less militaristic than those who attended a governmental academy?

Research Design

This study involved quantitative, comparative research that included data obtained from survey respondents. The study sample included 997 Pennsylvania municipal police officers chosen from systematic sampling. Descriptive statistics and independent sample t-tests were used to analyze the data.

Limitations

Several limitations exist in this study which must be considered when applying the results to the entire population of municipal police officers. The limitations include:

- This research project only surveyed certified Pennsylvania municipal police officers.
- State troopers and federal law enforcement officers were excluded from this study.
- The sample population was not stratified due to the unavailability of specific police officer characteristic data.

- Not every police academy curriculum topic was included in this survey. Only the 33 MPOETC police academy curriculum topics that require a certification assessment were included in this survey.
- This study relies on data extracted from the perception and memory of current municipal Pennsylvania police officers and not actual assessment scores.

Summary

This chapter presented the issue of curriculum gaps that exist in police academies and theories of training as well as proposed research questions. In many states hair stylists and barbers are required to complete twice the amount of training hours as police officers do for initial certification. What is unclear, however, is if the curriculum and pedagogical methods of instruction at Pennsylvania's municipal police academies adequately prepares cadets for actual police work.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature review for this study begins with a brief discussion of desired curriculum topics of police academies. It then moves to an examination of the global historical development of law enforcement. Next, a reflection on police academy training literature is presented, followed by a discussion of the field training mentorship experience. Lastly, the chapter moves to an examination of police academy training environments and programs in the United States with a particular focus on different models and the research that has emerged from these models.

According to Maguire and Uchida (2000) police officers must constantly exhibit competence in all of their dealings with the public. The public must have confidence that police officers are able to complete their job responsibilities dutifully. Facing danger and enduring unusual hardships is rampant in the daily lives of police officers. Becoming aware of the dangers and officer safety precautions are essential objectives of police training (White, 2007). While bravery is difficult to teach, it is important that officers are given the tools during training needed to overcome adversity under potentially volatile situations.

According to Harr (2005), policing is among the top stressful positions in the world. Officers experience extreme stress with regularity and to a degree that most citizens would find unbearable. As a result of a study by Kop and Euweman (2001), police officer stress manifests itself primarily due to the exposure of danger, shift work, fear of unknown situations, and a lack of belief in leadership. Police academy training, therefore, needs an effective stress management component to assist cadets in handling routine trauma.

Problems, stress, and emotions often prompt citizens to request police service. According to Mastrofski (1999) citizens judge the quality of police service by the officer's

ability to show empathy and concern for their concerns and dilemmas. No matter the provocation, officers are expected to remain calm and maintain professionalism. The development of effective coping skills is an area of academy curriculum content that can be presented to police cadets to assist in demeanor enhancement.

Police officers, much like military soldiers, suffer from “battle fatigue syndrome” (White, 2007). According to Morash, Haar, and Kwak (2006) stress can cause police officers to suffer from alcohol and drug use, cardiovascular disease, depression, stomach ulcers, and divorce. Presentations on employee assistance programs and stress reduction techniques during the cadet training cycle are needed as a cursory introduction to avert moral demise (White, 2007).

The study by Resig and Lloyd (2009) found that interpersonal considerations such as treating the public with respect and taking time to listen to people’s concerns results in increased citizen cooperation. An arduous task for police trainers is to develop an academy curriculum that is infused with a foundation in reasoning, negotiating, and persuasive communication learning abilities (White, 2007).

The study by Coupe and Griffiths (1999) found that satisfaction levels with police response to burglary crimes increase as the amount of time the officer spends with the victim increases. Officers who remained on scene with the burglary victim for an average of 40 minutes resulted in higher satisfaction ratings by the citizenry while dissatisfied citizens reported an average of 27 minutes with the officer.

Police officers may face any conceivable combination of danger, stress, and personality types in which overt action is usually necessary. For these reasons, it is suggested that officers be ready to competently identify controlled substances, counsel a person threatening bodily harm

to himself/herself, understand the physics of automobile accident reconstruction, know if a person is under the influence of an intoxicating substance or is having a medical emergency, and countless other competencies.

Historical Perspectives of Policing

Greece

The word “police” originated from the word “*polis*, Greek meaning government center” (Haberfield, 2002). The term eventually evolved to include a definition referring to any type of planning for maintaining harmonious existence (Haberfield, 2002). Since the inception of recorded time, society has sought protection from harm, including defense mechanisms from property theft and personal violence. Therefore, the first recorded evidence of law enforcement stems from hunting and gathering societies. Specifically, tribal leaders in Babylon maintained codified law dating back to 2181 B.C. and preserved the “scripture” in a manifest known as the Hammurabi Code (Haberfield, 2002). According to Western religious ideology, evidence of this ancient police force is discernible in the Biblical book of Genesis. Hammurabi’s police force is the first ruler appointed department known in recorded history (Haberfield, 2002).

As societies evolved so did their methods of maintaining order and preserving the peace. According to Haberfield (2002) in ancient Greece, tribal organizations and corresponding methods for handling reprieves characterized archaic police methods. Damage done to a person or private property was handled confidentially with the victim seeking their own justice. It was believed that “The people were the police; the police were the people” (Haberfield, 2002). The policing and judicial system of ancient Greece was quite sophisticated for its time and contained a plethora of laws, formal magistrates, juries, jailers, and executioners (Haberfield, 2002).

Italy

In 31 B.C., ancient Rome formally developed a police force based on the insight of Emperor Augustus Caesar (Haberfield, 2002). Having to choose between a military presence of peacekeepers and the general citizenry to possess responsibility for law and order maintenance, the civilian Praetorian Guard was created. Caesar abandoned the idea of military law enforcement due to an army being too frightening. However, law enforcers were all former members of the military and this practice was abandoned in A.D. 6 due to their barbaric and grotesque manner. Roman emperor Augustus Caesar ultimately abandoned the Praetorian Guard and instituted a policing system comprised of a night watch force known as the Vigils who were non-military members. The main function of the early police force in Italy was to fight fires, maintain order at markets and public assemblies, and arrest law violators (Haberfield, 2002). Emperor Caesar's night watch police force set the precedent for other localities to establish their own system of law enforcement and remained relatively unchanged for centuries (Haberfield, 2002).

England

Early English police history dates back to the sixth century in which lords regulated municipalities. Despite the lords being the chief managers of townships and communities, security was still based on the ancient kinship practices that had previously been in place since recorded history. Tribes were responsible for providing security their members, despite the existence of a much more sophisticated system of policing that had been created in other parts of Europe originating from the ancient Romans. In the eighth century A.D., the kingship-based method of policing underwent a metamorphosis with the primary responsibility of security being transferred to the lords. The *frankenpledge* system was ultimately developed by 1066 in which

law enforcement was stripped away from the lords and given to King William. By 1200 A.D. the *frankenpledge* was replaced by the *parish constable system*. Under this system, a sheriff was appointed by the king and became the most powerful officer of the shire or municipality, whose responsibilities also included court supervision. Prior to this time in England, law enforcement was a mismanaged, unorganized group of posse members (Haberfield, 2002).

In 1285, the Statute of Winchester was enacted and arguably was the first formal attempt at improving and sophisticating law enforcement in England. Three measures were created as a result of this statute: 1. a watch and ward system was developed in which nightly patrols were conducted as opposed to the former “daylight” only presence of law enforcers, 2. once a person committed a crime and was identified, a *hue and cry* (group of early police officers similar to a modern day warrant squad) would be organized to capture the offender, 3. every male aged 15 to 60 was required to keep a weapon in his home (Haberfield 2002).

The Statue of Winchester also mandated that one man from each individual parish would serve a 12 month term as constable on a revolving basis. The constable’s responsibility was to organize the parish’s watchmen group and guard the town. However, the concept of the constabulary underwent a change for the worse between the 15th and 18th century. Political strife and corruption resulted in utter deterioration of the constabulary system. Additionally, subcontracting of the constable became permitted by the person whose turn it was to serve. This resulted in constables who were often physically and/or mentally challenged serving as a law enforcer and the practice of subcontracting continued for many years (Haberfield, 2002).

In 1749, under the command of London magistrate Henry Fielding, a group of plainclothes detectives known as the Bow Street Runners was formed (White, 2007). According to White (2007) the runner group is considered to be London’s first professional police force and

gained fame and respect for their proactive crime control efforts and their success in thwarting a plot to assassinate several government officials. Although the group was eventually disbanded, the Bow Street Runners demonstrated to the government and citizens that an organized, nonmilitary force could be instrumental in reducing crime (White, 2007).

In 1829, as a result of an infestation of crime and disorder in London, Sir Robert Peel (England's Home Secretary) proposed to parliament the "Metropolitan Police Act." The act recommended that a full-time professional police force comprised of civilians be created. In order to purposefully distinguish themselves from military presence, Sir Robert Peel recommended that officers (also known as "Bobbies" named after himself) were to be unarmed and wear distinctive top hats and formal attire (White, 2007). Additionally, Peel's principles were based on the following revolutionary and unprecedented guidelines:

- Prevention of crime is the basic mission of the police
- The police must be stable, efficient, and organized along military lines
- The police must be under governmental control
- The distribution of crime news is absolutely essential
- The deployment of police strength must be done on the basis of time and area
- No quality is more indispensable to a policeman than a perfect command of temper; a quiet, determined manner has more effect than violent action
- Good appearance demands respect
- The securing and training of proper persons is at the root of efficiency
- Police must have the full respect of the citizenry
- A citizen's respect for the law develops his respect for the police
- Cooperation of the public decreases as the use of force increases

- Police must render impartial enforcement of the law
- Physical force is used only as the last resort
- The police are the public and public are the police
- Police represent the law
- Police headquarters should be centrally located and easily accessible to the public
- Policemen should be hired on a probationary basis
- The absence of crime and disorder is the test of police efficiency (Champion &Hooper, 2003)

United States

Historical policing in the United States is traced back to volunteer watchmen in which community members as an obligation to public service patrolled the streets of major cities under the supervision of constables or sheriffs. Participation in the watchmen style of policing was viewed as an important ingredient in community service. Problems and tribulations with the volunteer system of night watch policing resulted in several cities recognizing the need to recruit paid, full-time watchmen (Grant &Terry, 2005).

According to Walker and Katz (2002) as large United States cities began to feel the negative effects of industrialization and urbanization, North America was not immune to the same problems that plagued London and forced Peel’s Metropolitan Police Force into its inception. In 1844, after returning from a mentoring session in London on police professionalism, officials in New York City created the first police department in the U.S. and modeled the new department in part from the “Bobbies.” Other major cities including Boston, Chicago, and Philadelphia quickly adopted their own full-time professional police departments.

United States policing during the 19th century has been labeled the political era. According to Walker and Katz (2002), politics influenced every facet of American law enforcement during infancy attempts to professionalize the peace keepers. Most police departments and officers in the 19th century could be characterized as inefficient, infested with corruption, and suffered from a lack of professionalism (Walker & Katz, 2002). Part of the corruption in the mid and late 1800s can be attributed to a lack of selection and training standards for police officers. Specifically, officers were chosen solely on the basis of their political contacts and there was no formal police training curriculum (Walker & Katz, 2002). If a prospective police officer possessed political affiliations; physical ailments, poor eyesight, criminal convictions, and a lack of education all would be overlooked and the unqualified applicant would be appointed as a law enforcer. According to White (2007) in the 1800s an appointment to the New York City Police Department could be awarded with a \$300.00 donation to the local government (White, 2007).

The first effort to reform the corrupt and ill-prepared police officers in historical times stemmed from the efforts of the Progressive movement in 1880. The Progressives, an educated upper-class conglomeration of civilian citizens, sought to remove politics from policing and civilize the officers responsible for safekeeping the community (Uchida, 2005). The Progressives pursued a myriad of police improvement initiatives including the notion that:

- Police departments should be centralized, with more power and authority resting with the chief
- The quality of police personnel should be upgraded through rigid selection standards, training, and discipline.
- The police function should be narrowed to include crime control only.

- Police departments should be autonomous from political control (Uchida, 2005)

According to Walker and Katz (2002) experts believe the initiatives of the Progressives were largely unsuccessful and no measurable outcomes can be observed from their efforts.

However, in an attempt to combat the political corruption and the arbitrary appointing of police officers based solely on bribes or party endorsements, the Pendleton Act of 1883 was passed.

The Act, which initiated the civil service component of government jobs, required that employment for certain public sector positions be awarded on the basis of merit as opposed to political connectivity and likely was prompted by the Progressives.

According to Walker and Katz (2002), as it is true today, early police officers of the 19th century spent the majority of their daily activities patrolling city streets. However, patrol activities in the infancy stages of policing in the United States accomplished very little in terms of crime suppression or effective criminal investigative efforts. Due in part to a lack of training and accountability, officers spent more time in barber shops where they could partake in the local gossip and in saloons than on crime fighting mechanisms (Walker & Katz, 2002).

As the 20th century began, a second effort at police reform was underway with Berkeley California Police Chief August Vollmer at the helm. Considered the “father” of the modern police professionalism movement, Chief Vollmer initiated many innovative reforms in Berkeley California which eventually became the norm for police agencies. Vollmer was an advocate of hiring college educated officers and actually founded the criminology program at the University of California. A sample of his tenants which closely mirror those of the progressives with the exception that his were actually implemented include the following:

- Police should be involved in crime fighting only and not social service work
- Officers should be experts in their work

- The department should be administratively efficient with centralized command and an appropriate and effective use of police personnel be utilized
- Qualified chief executives must be appointed; professionalism must flow from the chief's office
- Departments should employ rigid selection standards, including minimum standards for intelligence, health, and moral character
- Police officers should be college-educated
- Departments should develop specialized units to handle specific crime problems; officers in those units should have proper training and expertise in specific crime problems (Uchida, 2005)

Between 1906 and 1931 Chief August Vollmer accomplished many improvement standards for modern police practices including:

- 1908 Vollmer began a police training school
- 1911 All patrol officers were using bicycles
- 1914 Three automobiles were used for patrol and the entire force had gas powered patrol vehicles within 2 years
- 1917 He began annual lectures on police training on a national basis
- 1918 Vollmer initiated testing to measure physical, mental, and emotional fitness of police recruits
- 1921 Vollmer initiated "lie detection" tests, created a fingerprint repository, and professed the use of handwriting analysis to solve crimes
- Vollmer authored the Wickersham Commission Report outlining a roadmap for police reform (Peak, 2006)

During the 1920s, the first national attempt to enhance police training began with the Wickersham report. This manual, titled for its chairman Attorney General George W. Wickersham, was developed under the direction of President Herbert Hoover. To study the quantity of police training that officers received, the Wickersham Commission surveyed cities with less than 10,000 inhabitants and those that contained residents between 10,000 and 75,000 in number. The report found that in cities with less than 10,000 residents, “there is absolutely nothing done which by any stretch of the imagination could be considered as police training” (Palmiotto, 2003). In other words, law enforcement officers were given a gun and badge and were instructed to enforce the law without any training. The report found that about 20% of the cities with a population of 10,000 to 75,000 did have some type of formal police instruction varying between one week and six months in duration. The commission eventually issued 14 separate reports for police reform and training improvements which became assimilated into mainstream law enforcement practices (Palmiotto, 2003).

The President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice established by Lyndon Johnson in 1968 also scrutinized police training practices and published two volumes of recommendations and policies bolstering police education methods (Palmiotto, 2003). *The Task Force Reports* on police training stipulated that virtually every police department across in the country could benefit by improving the quality of training its cadets received. Due to a lack of proper training, if any was provided at all, the *Task Force Reports* recommended that individual states be responsible for providing and assessing police training (Palmiotto, 2003). Specifically, the *Task Force Reports* recommended that states create a commission on police standards. Included in the recommendations were the following:

- Establish minimum statewide selection standards
- Establish minimum standards for training, determine and approve curricula, identify required preparation for instructors, and approve facilities acceptable for police training
- Certify sworn police personnel

As of today, all of the above-mentioned recommendations are currently implemented.

Pennsylvania

In part due to President Johnson's interest in police training, Pennsylvania established a mandatory police training program in 1974 formulated by the Municipal Police Officers' Education & Training Commission (MPOETC). The initial training of police officers required 420 hours of education in order to become a certified, employable officer. From 1974 to 1987 the required amount of hours to become an officer was 480. From 1988 to 2000, 520 hours (3 months of full-time study) of formal training and education were required for employment as certified Pennsylvania police officer. In 2001, the training hours required to be a police officer increased to 758 or 6 months of full-time study as it is today (Municipal Police Officers' Education and Training Commission, 2011). The current MPOETC curriculum provides 566 hours of classroom instruction and 192 hours of practical application training in a multitude of topics.

Table 1

Current Municipal Police Officers' Education and Training Commission Academy Curriculum

Topics

Curriculum Topics	Classroom Hours	Practical Application Hours
Introduction to the academy	7	
Introduction to law enforcement	24	
Physical fitness	12	42
Laws and procedures	112	
Defensive tactics	12	32
Traffic law	52	8
Crash investigation	20	
Patrol procedures	57	
Criminal investigation	51	2
Human relations	24	
Crisis management	23	
Families in crisis	20	
Basic firearms	8	72
Operation of patrol vehicles	20	20
Report writing	8	
Case preparation	20	
First aid	52	
Handling arrested persons	32	
Total	566	192

Police Academy Training Research Literature

Research by Van Maanen (1972) suggested that police training academies only teach technical facets of law enforcement duties thus, they are lacking in practical training.

Specifically, Van Maanen's (1972) research discovered that over 95% of surveyed police officers believed not enough attention was given to practical instruction and exercise in patrol procedures. Research conducted by Brand (1993) for the purpose of investigating the content of the minimum standards for basic law enforcement certification in Nevada concurs with the findings of Van Maanen (1972). Brand (1993), created a questionnaire which addressed 47

mandated performance objectives as to subject usefulness and comprehension. Brand (1993) found that cadets were not adequately exposed to actual scenarios during the course of their training cycle.

Pike (1981) studied the training cycle of several academies and concluded the program produces rookies, not highly functioning police officers. Survey data by Fullerton (1984) on the efficacy of police training revealed the curriculum did not adequately prepare cadets for specialized law enforcement activities such as drug enforcement, forensic science, and communications skills. According to Birzir (1999) minimal police academy training time is devoted to communication skills.

Doctoral research by Finnimore (2005) on the beliefs officers have toward their academy education found 30% believed they were not prepared to be a police officer. Additionally, Finnimore (2005) found survey respondents believed that subject matter on the laws of arrest, search and seizure, and use of force were the most valuable and important aspects on police academy training. The study completed by Pray (2006) to examine police officers' perceptions of the effectiveness of their academy training resulted in negative attitudes toward job preparation competencies. According to Wilson and Grammich (2009) three areas of policing including increased involvement in community policing, homeland security, and the infiltration of exotic crimes has necessitated the need for revamping the manner in which police officers are trained.

Since the 1980s, nearly all police departments in the United States have implemented community oriented policing to guide its dealings with the public. This paradigm shift impacts the environment that police training is administered by representing a pivotal shift in the way officers carry out their daily responsibilities by attempting to involve the public in crime fighting efforts (Maguire & Mastrofski, 2000). Community oriented policing is a

philosophical and organizational strategy that promotes collaboration between community members and the police (Champion & Hooper, 2003). According to the work of Yero, Othman, Lawrence and Susaiman(2012), the United States government has paid over 18 billion dollars to law enforcement agencies for community policing projects since the late 1990s. The practice of community policing is predicted to increase worldwide, but officers do not have a sufficient understanding of its goals and practice (Yero et al., 2012).

The main premise of community oriented policing is that the police and community must work harmoniously to identify, prioritize, and eradicate crime, drug offenses, social, physical, and neighborhood decomposition (Champion & Hooper, 2003). Specific aspects of community policing include: officers knocking on resident's doors to target crime problems, ride-along programs with elected officials for a firsthand neighborhood crime perspective, business community collaboration and crime prevention training, police speaking engagements at local and civic groups, and the forming of a concrete relationship with the media (Champion & Hooper, 2003). With the adoption of the community oriented police perspective officer training must also be made available if this ideology is to have any viable effects.

Democratic policing is a term used to describe the current trend of policing based in part on the COP framework. Characteristics of democratic policing which represent a shift in the way law enforcement is conducted from past practices includes: respect for human rights, tolerance of cultural differences, fairness in administering justice, accessibility and punctuality in police service delivery, and community responsiveness and accountability (Marenin, 2004). With this standard in mind, officers must understand law enforcement as it exists within the larger society, cultural diversity contexts, and institutions (Marenin, 2004). Police officers must also be able to make sound judgments in accordance with community impact in mind,

understand diverse expectations, be less authoritative, and be a better listener, as opposed to being compartmentalized, rigid, and robotic in thinking.

If community and democratic policing topics are offered during initial training it is weak at best (White & Escobar, 2008). Allen (2002) examined the results of a 1984 dissertation on patrol officer training needs juxtaposed to the needs of officers as reported in 2001. The findings concluded that both the 1984 and 2001 respondents expressed very similar views on the lack of community policing training at the academy. Specifically, academy training fails to develop critical skills such as communication, problem solving and cultural diversity which are highly critical if COP is to be effective (White & Escobar, 2008).

Police Academy Training Environments

The paramilitary model of police training has been in existence since the inception of policing. Sir Robert Peel, known as “the father of modern policing” organized the world’s first formal crime fighting agency in 1829 along military training specifications (Hess & Wroblecki, 2006). This particular training method is based on a military model of education and socialization (Gundy, 2003). Academies that utilize the paramilitary model for transforming civilians into police officers refer to the curriculum as stress training. Stress academy training has been described as “a cross between Paris Island Marine Corps boot camp and college” (Violanti, 2003). In a paramilitary model of police training, cadets undergo approximately 28 weeks of intense training and adult socialization in preparation for employment (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). Police academies based on the military model exaggerate physical, mental, and emotional activities that transform a cadet into a well-honed disciplined officer (Peak, 2006). Stress is created in several ways, including: physical training, unwavering demands for perfection, group punishment, vociferation, unrealistic time constraints for task

accomplishment, and the awarding and taking away of privileges (Gundy, 2007). The experience is “designed to remove individual personal characteristics so that an embracement of the esprit de corps of the organization can occur”(Albuquerque &Paes-Machado, 2004). Because new police cadets are often young they are fairly impressionable, thus the academy can persuade them into accepting and embracing the police subculture (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010).

Because most paramilitary police academies are residential, meaning cadets are not permitted to leave the premises except on rare occasions during the training cycle, they are isolated from their external responsibilities. Additionally they are subject to extensive rules, regulations, and rigidity. The preceding characteristics of the paramilitary police academy are all purposely interwoven into the training program to increase solidarity and strengthen relationships with fellow cadets (Chappell &Lanza-Kaduce, 2010).

According to Hundersmarck (2009) the emphasis in a paramilitary approach to training police officers results in an exceedingly structured learning environment with a traditional lecture-based classroom pedagogical style. Cadets spend most of their time in the classroom listening to instructors lecture and take notes on a wide variety of police agency topics (Hundersmarck, 2009). Some form of the paramilitary model coupled with expert enunciation of material is the way many police academies in the United States operates (Hundersmarck, 2009).

In Pennsylvania, the following governmental certified training centers teach basic police skills that lead to certification:

- Pennsylvania State Police Academy
- Pennsylvania State Police Northeast Training Center
- Pennsylvania State Police Northwest Training Center
- Pennsylvania State Police Southeast Training Center

- Pennsylvania State Police Southwest Training Center
- Allegheny County Police Training Academy
- Philadelphia Police Department Recruit Training
- Pittsburgh Police Training Academy
- Reading Police Academy

Several of the above mentioned academies specifically advertise a military style training environment while others do not. According to the Pennsylvania State Police website regarding the academy and branch training centers, “Military courtesy and discipline are practiced from the first day you enter the academy as a cadet. Cadets learn to meet and exceed seemingly impossible physical and mental challenges” (Pennsylvania State Police, 2011). According to the Reading police academy website, “Prospective students should be aware the academy operates as a structured paramilitary school and the course is both academically and physically challenging” (Reading, 2012). The Philadelphia Police Department’s website states, “The agency is structured as a paramilitary organization. This means that we employ a culture and protocols that closely approximate those of the armed forces” (Philadelphia, 2011).

Police academies that utilize the paramilitary approach to training aim to achieve several objectives such as positional authority and intimacy with the chain of command (supervisory hierarchy) (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). Cadets also learn discipline and the meaning of deference in law enforcement (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). Third, cadets learn how to work while exposed to intense stress (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). According to Gundy (2007) the paramilitary environment of police academies creates a highly disciplined, physically fit officer who is capable of making decisions, following orders, giving orders, and someone capable of improvising, adapting, and overcoming any challenge that may be encountered.

The purpose of institutions of higher learning is to develop “communication and interpersonal skills as well as critical thinking and problem solving abilities” (Levinson, 2005). In Pennsylvania, the following colleges are certified by MPOETC to offer the municipal police officer training curriculum:

- Community College of Beaver County
- Delaware County Community College
- Greater Johnstown Career & Technology Center
- Harrisburg Area Community College
- Indiana University of Pennsylvania
- California University of Pennsylvania
- Carnegie Mellon University
- Lackawanna College
- Mansfield University
- Mercyhurst College
- Montgomery County Community College
- Temple University
- Westmoreland County Community College

The municipal police academies that are held at Indiana University of Pennsylvania, California University of Pennsylvania, and Carnegie Mellon University do not offer the militaristic pedagogical approach to training. According to Indiana University of Pennsylvania’s website, the programs at the preceding institutions are not operated as a boot camp (Indiana University of Pennsylvania, 2012). It is unknown if any of the other college setting police academies utilize the paramilitary training approach.

As an alternative to the paramilitary pedagogical approach to training Stargel (2001) examined the effectiveness of the andragogy training curriculum model at the Kentucky Department of Criminal Justice by collecting data from individual interviews with 13 cadets and three instructors. The researcher also spent many hours personally viewing cadet training exercises. Major findings from this study showed that cadets did not understand the fundamentals of andragogy training or the reasons for its use. Stargel's (2001) study resulted in mixed perceptions about the value of this type of academy training by both instructors and cadets.

Research by Poradzisz (2004) revealed that the pedagogical method of open dialog characteristic in andragogy training appeared to be favored by police recruits as opposed to the strict lecture format found in military style academies. Research by Weinblatt (1999) revealed cadets who graduated from the andragogy based academy curriculum possess assessment scores that are significantly higher in comparison to those who graduated from a militaristic style police academy. Weinblatt (1999), writes, "they [police cadets] have gained the equivalent of between two to four years of experience from the program." Studies similar to Weinblatt (1999) that compared cadet assessment scores based on different academy settings have not been found in the literature.

Illeris (2004) explains that learning environments of any type need to possess warmth, care, security, tolerance, and emotional attachment which is completely contradictory to the military model training atmosphere. Additionally, according to the work of Illeris (2004), learning environments must be reinforced with mutual responsibility, openness, and listening via reciprocated communication.

Field Training

After the basic municipal police academy is completed, newly certified officers begin an apprenticeship with a field training officer that may last between 30 and 90 days. The first formal field training program occurred in 1972 at the San Jose California police department (Clark, 1995). The field training experience is designed to provide the new officer with an opportunity to perform actual police job duties under the supervision of a competent training officer.

According to Engelson (1999) the primary manner that individuals solidify their identity as police officers is through their field training experience. Only a third of police departments in the United States have a field training program that lasts at least 90 days; the other two-thirds of departments offer training that is shorter (Reaves, 2009).

When the officer initially begins the field training program their mentor is expected to handle most of the police duties in order to allow for observation by the pupil. The new officer is expected to gradually handle actual police calls under the supervision of the training officer. A common benchmark for field training programs that last 90 days is that by the end of the first week the newly certified officer handles 5% of the workload. By the end of the third or fourth week it is expected the newly certified officer handle 25% of the workload. The division of work is expected to increase by the end of the eighth week to 60% being done by the new officer. At the end of 90 days the new officer is responsible for 95 to 100% of the workload (Hundersmarck, 2009).

New officers are formally assessed everyday on a wide array of police skills including: departmental policies, criminal law, traffic law, patrol vehicle operations, interpersonal skills, officer safety, and written communication (Sokolove & Locke, 1996). Once the predetermined field training experience allotment is over, probationary officers will perform their job duties solo and be responsible for their own actions. If a newly certified officer shows deficiencies

during the field training program their mentorship may continue with a second or third training officer until satisfactory performance standards are reached.

Summary

This review of literature provided a basic foundation for research for this study. The review of literature identified gaps that exist in what is being taught at basic police academies and what officers should know for increased job preparedness. There is an inconsistency in which police academy training topics are the most adequate and their pedagogical infusion. The review of literature has also revealed the need for more research that compares the perceived satisfaction levels of police officers due to the result of training in different academy environments and settings.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In this quantitative study, a cross-sectional survey design to account for current MPOETC academy curriculum topics in police training was used to gather data for the project. Using a Likert scale, respondents indicated their perception of the adequacy of 33 curriculum topics studied during their basic police training. The instrument was accessible online with the use of Qualtrics survey software. Respondents included a systematic sample of certified Pennsylvania municipal police officers. The statistical procedures that were used in the comparative analysis included the use of descriptive statistics, independent-samples *t*-test, and Mann-Whitney U analysis.

Statement of the Problem

This study surveyed Pennsylvania municipal police officers regarding their perception of the adequacy of 33 training academy curriculum topics. The findings of this study may assist police departments as they seek to improve their training programs.

Research Questions

1. In which of the curriculum topics do certified Pennsylvania municipal police officers believe they have received the least and most adequate training in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions?
2. Do police officers who completed basic police academy training at a higher educational academy perceive their training to be more or less adequate than those who attended a governmental academy?

3. Do police officers who completed basic police academy training at a higher educational academy perceive their training to have been less militaristic than those who attended a governmental academy?

Survey Instrument Development

A survey design instrument was chosen for this study because it aims to uncover the degree of perception of the adequacy of police training needs as opposed to learning the explanation of the relationship between training and an officer's ability to perform various job task elements (Creswell, 2005; Sogunro, 2002). The survey is often used in the law enforcement field and is an excellent method to collect data (Hagan, 2005). The research setting for this project was in an online environment. Respondents participated in the instrument anywhere the internet was accessible.

The survey is a modified version of the survey conducted by Brand (1993) that was used to determine if the Nevada state mandated police training curriculum effectively prepared cadets to perform the duties of an officer. Brand's (1993) study also attempted to determine whether the tasks taught at the basic police training academy needed to be revised or modified.

Brand's (1993) instrument is suitable for this study because both studies were designed to extract the perception officers have about the adequacy of their state mandated police training curriculum. Modification of Brand's survey instrument for the present survey stems from varying the Nevada police officer job task inventory categories to reflect the curriculum topics taught in the state of Pennsylvania at the police academy as determined by the MPOETC. Brand's survey was also modified to include survey questions related to specific curriculum content topics as opposed to measuring usefulness and comprehension on a robust scale which resulted in double-barreled questions. According to Neuman and Wiegard (2000), it is vital to

create surveys about one and only one topic. Brand's instrument was further modified to include survey questions concerning the pedagogical atmosphere of the police academy and literature identified training gaps.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability was determined after the data were collected using a Cronbach's alpha test. Reliability in the instrument was found to be statistically significant ($\alpha = .953, p < .01$). This analysis of determining internal consistency is practical once Likert type scale items are used (Creswell, 2005).

Content validity was established due to survey question six being formed from the curriculum created by MPOETC, established in 1974 to set certification and training standards for police officers employed in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. According to MPOETC, regulations published from the Act 120 statute guide the process for determining eligibility for certification and standardize the basic academy and annual in-service training curriculum provided to all certified police officers. Question six also included four items that were created based on a literature review of known police training gaps.

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

According to Reaves (2009), nationally Pennsylvania has the highest number of municipal police departments. The latest recertification statistics available in 2012 indicated a total of 22,660 municipal police officers were employed in Pennsylvania represented by 1,171 police departments.

Table 2

Breakdown of Departments by Total Number of Officers Employed

Officers	Departments
1-5	312
6-10	276
11-30	483
31-100	81
>100	19

The sampling frame for this study results from the total number of municipal police officers in Pennsylvania (22,660). According to Porter and Whitecomb (2003), it is not uncommon to have a response rate less than 50%. This survey instrument was administered to a sample population of 997 municipal police officers.

Stratified random sampling was preferred for the selection of survey participants in this study, however specific information needed to accomplish this is was not available. An attorney for the Pennsylvania State Police agency open records division informed the researcher that specific information about graduates of any MPOETC academy cannot be divulged.

Data Collection

All police departments in Pennsylvania (1,171) were listed in an Excel spreadsheet in a systematic (alphabetic) manner and assigned an individual number. Randomization of the police department list was then completed via Excel. Police officers from the first 55 police departments representing 23 of Pennsylvania's 67 counties listed in the randomized spreadsheet were selected for participation in this study. The email addresses of 997 certified municipal police officers were retrieved by visiting each of the 55 police department websites.

Once the list of the 997 Pennsylvania municipal police departments was identified through systematic sampling, the chiefs of each respective department were contacted via a U.S. Postal Service letter. After seven days, the researcher personally called each of the 55 chiefs and explained that a survey instrument would be sent to each officer. Once permission was received from each police chief to conduct the survey, an email was sent to the sample population along with the survey instrument that asked for their cooperation in the research project. A reminder email was sent to all officers who did not participate in the survey seven days after the initial dissemination. The reminder email did not yield any significant survey results. A total of 152 officers participated in the survey.

Survey Instrument

The background section of the survey focused on the academy setting where training took place, time in service, gender, level of education, and the perceived militarism that existed during training. The second part of the survey asked respondents to assess their perception of the adequacy of their training in 33 MPOETC police academy curriculum areas by using a five point Likert Scale. The 33 MPOETC police academy curriculum topics as show in Table 3 were chosen for analysis because they are required areas for written testing leading to certification. An additional four police training curriculum topics not specifically included in the MPOETC course outline was also included in an attempt to gain perceptions of adequacy of four areas of knowledge in which a literature review showed officer deficiencies. Finally, respondents were asked about their field training experience.

Table 3

Municipal Police Officers' Education and Training Commission Academy Curriculum Sections and Certification Exam Topics

Curriculum Sections	Certification Exam Topics
Introduction to law enforcement in PA Laws and procedures	Moral issues Constitutional law Criminal law Laws of arrest Search and seizure
Defensive tactics Motor vehicle law enforcement	Use of force in law enforcement Vehicle code enforcement DUI enforcement
Patrol procedures	Role of patrol in policing the community Patrol activities Monitoring and controlling traffic Vehicle stop techniques Crimes in progress Crowd control Crime prevention
Principles of criminal investigation	Officer as first responder Securing the crime scene Interview/Interrogation Evidence collection Identification of suspects Crimes against property Controlled substances Informants
Human relations	Communication Cultural diversity Crisis intervention
Crisis management Families in crisis Report writing Case Preparation Handling arrested persons	Domestic violence and police response Report writing and note-taking Courtroom testimony Mechanics of arrest Handcuffing Transporting prisoners Custody of the mentally ill

Summary

This study was designed to examine the adequacy of the curriculum at Pennsylvania municipal police academies in preparing cadets for police work. Participants for this study were selected via systematic sampling in an attempt to answer three research questions that focused on the existence of perceived adequacy of police academy training topics, the adequacy of training at governmental and higher educational academies, and the militarism of the various training settings. It is expected the results of this study will add to the existing literature on the adequacy of police academy training.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this study was to examine the perception of effective academy training that exists among Pennsylvania municipal police officers and compare findings to the academic literature that exists on training gaps or inefficiencies. Specifically, this study examined the perception of the adequacy relative to 33 police academy training curriculum topics as reported by Pennsylvania municipal police officers. A second purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between the police academy training pedagogy and the perception of training adequacy that exists by individual officers.

The data were collected via the use of online survey software Qualtrics in an attempt to answer the following research questions:

1. In which of the curriculum topics do certified Pennsylvania municipal police officers believe they have received the least and most adequate training in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions?
2. Do police officers who completed basic police academy training at a higher educational academy perceive their training to be more or less adequate than those who attended a governmental academy?
3. Do police officers who completed basic police academy training at a higher educational academy perceive their training to have been less militaristic than those who attended a governmental academy?

A quantitative analysis was used after data collection for this study with the aid of SPSS for Windows. Descriptive statistics, an independent sample *t*-test, and a Mann-Whitney U analysis were determined to be the appropriate measurements for this study.

This chapter begins with results from an analysis of demographics of the survey respondents as illustrated in text and tables. The chapter then moves to results from data collected on the perceived adequacy of the police academy curriculum topics analyzed with descriptive statistics. Data collected on the adequacy of police training as delineated by a higher educational academy or governmental academy is then presented by an independent sample *t*-test. Lastly, the chapter examines the results of data analyzed with the Mann-Whitney U statistical test to determine if militarism is greater at a governmental academy than at a higher educational academy.

Survey Respondent Demographics

A total of 997 surveys were sent to Pennsylvania municipal certified police officers. There were 152 surveys completed which represents a response rate of 15%. Out of the 152 surveys, 144 were male (94.1%) and 8 (5.3%) were female as shown in Table 4. Also shown in Table 4 are the total percentages from respondents who graduated from a higher educational police academy 94 (61.8%) and those who completed training at a governmental academy which included 55 (35.2%) officers. Three respondents failed to identify the setting where their training took place. Respondents who completed training at a higher educational academy represented a larger share (26.6%) than those from the governmental academies.

Table 4

Gender and Academy Location of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Male	144	95.0
Female	8	5.0
Higher Education	94	61.8
Government	55	35.2

Employment longevity for all respondents was categorized into six groups as shown in Table 5. The years of service were grouped as 0-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21-25, and greater than 25. Twenty-five (16.4%) respondents indicated their employment longevity was five years or less. Thirty-seven (24.3%) respondents indicated they have been employed as a municipal police officer between 6 and 10 years. There were 22 (14.5%) respondents who indicated their police employment longevity was between 11 and 15 years. The number of respondents who indicated employment longevity in the 16 to 20 year range was 28 (19.4%). There were 19 (12.5%) respondents who indicated employment longevity in the 21 to 25 year range. The number of respondents who indicated their police employment experience exceeded 25 years was 21 (13.8%).

Table 5

Employment Longevity of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
0-5	25	16.4
6-10	37	24.3
11-15	22	14.5
16-20	28	19.4
21-25	19	12.5
25+	21	13.8
Total	152	100

The data in Table 6 show the highest education level achieved by the respondents. There were 41 (27%) respondents who possessed a high school diploma or equivalency. The number of respondents who possessed an associate's degree was 43 (28.3%). Fifty-two (34.2) respondents completed a bachelor's degree. There were 15 (9.9%) respondents who attained a master's degree. One respondent (.7%) was in possession of a doctorate.

Table 6

Education Level of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
High School	41	27
Associate's	43	28.3
Bachelor's	52	34.2
Master's	15	9.9
Doctorate	1	.7
Total	152	100

Results

Descriptive statistics were used to answer research question one. Table 7 represents the range of responses to the perception of training adequacy that existed by survey respondents for the certification exam curricular topic of moral issues. The MPOETC categorized moral issues under the broader topic heading of introduction to law enforcement. Two respondents (1.3%) indicated they strongly disagreed with the adequacy of training received in moral issues. The number of respondents who disagreed was seven (4.6%) and 21 (13.8%) indicated their belief toward training in this area was neutral. There were 89 respondents (58.6%) who agreed the academy prepared them in the topic of moral issues and 33 (21.7%) strongly agreed with their training adequacy.

Table 7

Introduction to Law Enforcement

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Moral Issues	2 (1.3%)	7 (4.6%)	21 (13.8%)	89 (58.6%)	33 (21.7%)

Table 8 provides the range of responses for the category of laws and procedures which represents curriculum topics in constitutional law, criminal law, search and seizure, and laws of arrest. Only one respondent (.7%) strongly disagreed training prepared him/her in the area of constitutional law and seven (4.6%) disagreed. There were 14 respondents (9.2%) who indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. Over half of the respondents (88) indicated they agreed constitutional law training was adequate, while 42 (27.6%) strongly agreed.

Table 8

Laws and Procedures

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Constitutional Law	1 (.7%)	7 (4.6%)	14 (9.2%)	88 (57.9%)	42 (27.6%)
Criminal Law	1 (.7%)	1 (.7%)	6 (3.9%)	83 (54.6%)	61 (40.1%)
Search & Seizure	2 (1.3%)	10 (6.6%)	19 (12.5%)	79 (52.0%)	42 (27.6%)
Laws of Arrest	2 (1.3%)	2 (1.3%)	8 (5.3%)	89 (58.6%)	50 (32.9%)

One respondent (.7%) strongly disagreed and one (.7%) disagreed their training in criminal law was adequate. Six respondents (3.9%) indicated their perception of training effectiveness in this area was neutral. Over half of the respondents (83) agreed while 61 (40.1%) strongly agreed the academy training in criminal law adequately prepared them for employment as a police officer.

Two respondents (1.3%) strongly disagreed their training in search and seizure was adequate while 10 (6.6%) disagreed. The number of respondents who indicated their perception of adequacy was neutral numbered 19 (12.5%). Just over half of the respondents (79) indicated they agreed their training in this area was adequate while 42 (27.6%) strongly agreed.

Two respondents (1.3%) strongly disagreed their training in the area of laws and procedures was adequate and another two (1.3%) disagreed. Eight respondents (5.3%) indicated their training in this area was neutral. There were 89 (58.6%) who agreed their training was adequate and 50 (32.9%) strongly agreed.

Table 9 provides the range of responses for defensive tactics; specifically use of force. Only one respondent (.7%) strongly disagreed the use of force topic provided adequate training and another two (1.3%) disagreed. There were 19 (12.5%) respondents who indicated their perceived adequacy of training in this area was neutral. Over half of the respondents (83) agreed their training was adequate and 47 (30.9%) strongly agreed.

Table 9

Defensive Tactics

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Use of Force	1 (.7%)	2 (1.3%)	19 (12.5%)	83 (54.6%)	47 (30.9%)

Table 10 provides the range of responses for the category of motor vehicle law enforcement which represents curriculum topics in the vehicle code and driving under the influence of alcohol enforcement (DUI). Only one respondent (.7%) strongly disagreed on the adequacy of training for the vehicle code and nobody (0.0%) disagreed. Six respondents (3.6%) indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. There were 86 (56.6%) respondents who indicated they agreed vehicle code training was adequate while 59 (38.8%) strongly agreed.

Table 10

Motor Vehicle Law Enforcement

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Vehicle Code	1 (.7%)	0 (0.0%)	6 (3.9%)	86 (56.6%)	59 (38.8%)
DUI Enforcement	6 (3.9%)	20 (13.2%)	43 (28.3%)	67 (44.1%)	16 (10.5%)

Only six respondents (3.9%) strongly disagreed the DUI topic provided adequate training and another 20 (13.2%) disagreed. Over one-fourth (43) of the respondents indicated their

perceived adequacy of training in this area was neutral. There were 67 (44.1%) who agreed their training was adequate and 16 (10.5%) strongly agreed.

Table 11 provides the range of responses for the category of patrol procedures and operations which represents curriculum topics in community policing, patrol activities, monitoring and controlling traffic, vehicle stop techniques, crimes in progress, crowd control, and crime prevention. Eight respondents (5.3%) strongly disagreed training prepared him/her in the area of community policing and 22 (14.5%) disagreed. There were 34 respondents (22.4%) who indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. Exactly half of the respondents (76) indicated they agreed community police training was adequate while 12 (7.9%) strongly agreed.

Table 11

Patrol Procedures and Operations

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Community Policing	8 (5.3%)	22 (14.5%)	34 (22.4%)	76 (50.0%)	12 (7.9%)
Patrol Activities	3 (2.0%)	17 (11.2%)	29 (19.1%)	89 (58.6%)	14 (9.2%)
Monitoring Traffic	6 (3.9%)	27 (17.8%)	45 (29.6%)	65 (42.8%)	8 (5.3%)
Vehicle Stops	2 (1.3%)	11 (7.2%)	15 (9.9%)	91 (59.9%)	32 (21.1%)
Crimes in Progress	3 (2.0%)	12 (7.9%)	39 (19.7%)	93 (61.2%)	13 (8.6%)
Crowd Control	2 (7.9%)	57 (37.5%)	32 (21.1%)	45 (29.6%)	5 (3.3%)
Crime Prevention	9 (5.9%)	44 (28.9%)	41 (27.0%)	50 (32.9%)	7 (4.6%)

Three respondents (2.0%) strongly disagreed and 17 (11.2%) disagreed their training in patrol activities was adequate. There were 29 respondents (19.1%) who indicated their perception of training in this area was neutral. Respondents who agreed the academy training in community policing was adequate numbered 89 (58.6%) and 14 (9.2%) strongly agreed.

Six respondents (3.9%) strongly disagreed their training in monitoring and controlling traffic was adequate while 27 (17.8%) disagreed. Forty-five respondents (29.6%) indicated their perception of adequacy was neutral. There were 65 respondents (42.8%) who indicated they agreed their training in this area was adequate while only eight (5.3%) strongly agreed.

Two respondents (1.3%) strongly disagreed their training in vehicle stop techniques was adequate and another 11 (7.2%) disagreed. Fifteen respondents (9.9%) indicated their training in this area was neutral. There were 91 (59.9%) respondents who agreed their training was adequate and 32 (21.1%) strongly agreed.

Three respondents (2.0%) strongly disagreed their training in the curriculum topic of crimes in progress was adequate and 12 (7.9%) disagreed. Thirty respondents (19.7%) indicated their perception of adequacy was neutral. There were 93 respondents (61.2%) who agreed their training in this area was adequate and 13 (8.6%) strongly agreed.

Twelve respondents (7.9%) strongly disagreed and 57 (37.5%) disagreed their training in crowd control was adequate. Thirty-two respondents (21.1%) indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. There were 45 respondents who (29.6%) agreed and only five (3.3%) strongly agreed academy training in crowd control adequately prepared them for employment as a police officer.

Nine respondents (5.9%) strongly disagreed their training in crime prevention was adequate and 44 (28.9%) disagreed. Forty-one respondents (27.0%) indicated their perception of

adequacy was neutral. Just under one-third of the respondents (50) indicated they agreed their training in this area was adequate and seven (4.6%) strongly agreed.

Table 12 provides the range of responses for the category principles of criminal investigation which represents curriculum topics in officer as the first responder, securing the crime scene, interviewing techniques, evidence collection, crimes against property, controlled substances, and informants. Four respondents (2.6%) strongly disagreed training was adequate in the area of officer as the first responder and seven (4.6%) disagreed. There were 21 respondents (13.8%) who indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. For the constitutional law topic, 97 respondents (63.8%) indicated they agreed this topic was adequate while 23 (15.1%) strongly agreed.

Table 12

Principles of Criminal Investigation

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
First Responder	4 (2.6%)	7 (4.6%)	21 (13.8%)	93 (63.8%)	23 (15.1%)
Secure Scene	5 (3.3%)	9 (5.9%)	25 (16.4%)	94 (61.8%)	19 (12.5%)
Interviewing	17 (11.2%)	46 (30.3%)	42 (27.6%)	41 (27.0%)	6 (3.9%)
Evidence Collection	7 (4.6%)	27 (17.8%)	50 (32.9%)	58 (38.2%)	9 (5.9%)
Property Crimes	5 (3.3%)	18 (11.8%)	35 (23.0%)	82 (53.9%)	11 (7.2%)
Controlled Substances	11 (7.2%)	33 (21.7%)	32 (21.1%)	65 (42.1%)	12 (7.9%)
Informants	46 (30.3%)	55 (36.2%)	32 (21.1%)	15 (9.9%)	4 (2.6%)

Five respondents (3.3%) strongly disagreed and nine (5.9%) disagreed their training in securing the crime scene was adequate. Twenty-five respondents (16.4%) indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. There were 94 (61.8%) respondents who agreed and 19 (12.5%) strongly agreed the academy training in how to secure a crime scene adequately prepared them for employment as a police officer.

There were 17 respondents (11.2%) that strongly disagreed their training in interviewing techniques was adequate and 46 (30.3%) disagreed. Forty-two respondents (27.6%) indicated their perception of adequacy was neutral. There were 41 respondents (27.0%) who indicated they agreed their training in this area was adequate and the remaining six (3.9%) strongly agreed.

Seven respondents (4.6%) strongly disagreed their training in the area of evidence collection was adequate and another 27 (17.8%) disagreed. Fifty respondents (32.9%) indicated their training in this area was neutral. Fifty-eight (38.2%) agreed their training was adequate and nine (5.9%) strongly agreed.

Five respondents (3.3%) strongly disagreed their training in crimes against property was adequate while 18 (11.8%) disagreed. Thirty-five respondents (23.0%) indicated their perception of adequacy was neutral. Just over half of the respondents (82) indicated they agreed their training in this area was adequate and 11 (7.2%) strongly agreed.

There were 11 respondents (7.2%) who strongly disagreed their training in controlled substances was adequate and 33 (21.7%) disagreed. Thirty-two respondents (21.1%) indicated their training in this area was neutral. There were 64 respondents (42.1%) who agreed their training was adequate and the remaining 12 (7.9%) strongly agreed.

Nearly one-third of respondents (46) strongly disagreed their training in the curriculum topic of informants was adequate and 55 (36.2%) disagreed. Thirty-two respondents (21.1%)

indicated their perception of adequacy was neutral. Only 15 (9.9%) respondents indicated they agreed their training in this area was adequate and four (2.6%) strongly agreed.

Table 13 provides the range of responses for the category of human relations which represents curriculum topics in communication techniques and cultural diversity. There were 23 (15.1%) respondents who strongly disagreed training was adequate for communication techniques and 27 (17.8%) disagreed. Nearly one-third (46) indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. Additionally, nearly one-third of respondents (49) indicated they agreed communication techniques training was adequate and only seven (4.6%) strongly agreed.

Seven respondents (4.6%) strongly disagreed and 18 (11.8%) disagreed their training in cultural diversity was adequate. Forty-two respondents (27.6%) indicated their perception of training effectiveness in this area was neutral. There were 67 (43.4%) respondents who agreed and 19 (12.5%) strongly agreed academy training in cultural diversity was adequate.

Table 13

Human Relations

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Communication	23 (15.1%)	27 (17.8%)	46 (30.3%)	49 (32.2%)	7 (4.6%)
Cultural Diversity	7 (4.6%)	18 (11.8%)	42 (27.6%)	67 (43.4%)	19 (12.5%)

Table 14 provides the range of responses for crises management and intervention. Eight respondents (5.3%) strongly disagreed the curriculum topic of crises intervention provided adequate training and another 17 (11.2%) disagreed. Nearly one-third (48) of respondents

indicated their perceived adequacy of training in this area was neutral. Just less than half of the respondents (68) agreed their training was adequate and 11 (7.2%) strongly agreed.

Table 14

Crises Management and Intervention

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Crises Intervention	8 (5.3%)	17 (11.2%)	48 (31.6%)	68 (44.7%)	11 (7.2%)

Table 15 provides the range of responses for the category of families in crises which represents the curriculum topic of domestic violence and police response. Only six respondents (3.9%) strongly disagreed training was adequate for domestic violence and 15 (9.9%) disagreed. Twenty-eight respondents (18.4%) indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. Over half of the respondents (80) indicated they agreed domestic violence training was adequate and 27 (15.1%) strongly agreed.

Table 15

Families in Crises

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Domestic Violence	6 (3.9%)	15 (9.9%)	28 (18.4%)	80 (52.6%)	27 (15.1%)

Table 16 provides the range of responses for the curriculum topic of report writing. There were 13 (8.6%) respondents who strongly disagreed the report writing topic provided adequate training and 21 (13.8%) disagreed. Thirty-six (23.7%) respondents indicated their perceived adequacy of training in this area was neutral. There were 67 (44.1%) respondents who agreed their training was adequate and 15 (9.9%) strongly agreed.

Table 16

Report Writing

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Report Writing	13 (8.6%)	21 (13.8%)	35 (23.7%)	67 (44.1%)	15 (9.9%)

Table 17 provides the range of responses for the category of case preparation which represents the curriculum topic of courtroom testimony. There were 19 (12.5%) respondents who strongly disagreed training was adequate in courtroom testimony and 32 (21.1%) disagreed. Thirty-five respondents (23.0%) indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. Just over one-third of respondents (57) indicated they agreed courtroom testimony training was adequate and only nine (5.9%) strongly agreed.

Table 17

Case Preparation

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Courtroom Testimony	19 (12.5%)	32 (21.1%)	35 (23.0%)	57 (37.5%)	9 (5.9%)

Table 18 provides the range of responses for the category of handling arrested persons which represents curriculum topics in mechanics of arrest, handcuffing techniques, transporting prisoners, and custody of the mentally ill. Three respondents (2.0%) strongly disagreed training prepared him/her in the area of mechanics of arrest and two (1.3%) disagreed. Twenty-seven respondents (17.8%) indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. There were 99 (65.1%) respondents who indicated they agreed mechanics of arrest training was adequate and the remaining 20 (13.2%) strongly agreed.

Table 18

Handling Arrested Persons

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Mechanics of Arrest	3 (2.0%)	2 (1.3%)	37 (17.8%)	99 (65.1%)	20 (13.2%)
Handcuffing	3 (2.0%)	1 (.7%)	11 (7.2%)	102 (66.4%)	35 (23.0%)
Transporting Prisoners	11 (7.2%)	20 (13.2%)	36 (23.7%)	72 (47.4%)	13 (8.6%)
Mentally Ill	19 (12.5%)	34 (22.4%)	41 (27.0%)	50 (32.9%)	8 (5.3%)

Three respondents (2.0%) strongly disagreed and only one (.7%) disagreed their training in handcuffing techniques was adequate. Eleven respondents (7.2%) indicated their perception of training in this area was neutral. Over 100 respondents (66.1%) agreed and 35 (23.0%) strongly agreed the academy training in handcuffing techniques adequately prepared them for employment as a police officer.

There were 11 (7.2%) respondents who strongly disagreed their training in transporting prisoners was adequate and 20 (13.2%) disagreed. Thirty-six respondents (23.7%) indicated their perception of adequacy was neutral. Nearly half (72) of the respondents indicated they agreed their training in this area was adequate and the remaining 13 (8.6%) strongly agreed.

There were 19 (12.5%) respondents who strongly disagreed their training in custody of the mentally ill was adequate and 34 (22.4%) disagreed. Forty-one respondents (27.0%) indicated their perception of adequacy was neutral. Nearly one-third of the respondents (50) indicated they agreed their training in this area was adequate and eight (5.3%) strongly agreed.

The range of responses for research identified training gaps is shown in Table 19. The absentee curriculum topics were identified in literature for areas of homeland security, cybercrime, same-sex domestic violence, and child abuse investigations. There were 33 (21.7%) respondents who strongly disagreed their training in the area of homeland security was adequate and another 49 (32.2%) disagreed. Thirty-three respondents (21.7%) indicated their training in this area was neutral. Thirty (19.7%) agreed their training was adequate and six (3.9%) strongly agreed.

Table 19

Research Identified Training Gaps

Curriculum Topic	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Homeland Security	33 (21.7%)	49 (32.2%)	33 (21.7%)	30 (19.7%)	6 (3.9%)
Cyber Crime	40 (26.3%)	52 (34.2%)	28 (18.4%)	28 (18.4%)	4 (2.6%)
Same Sex Domestic	42 (27.6%)	51 (33.6%)	34 (22.4%)	22 (14.5%)	3 (2.0%)
Child Abuse	12 (7.9%)	38 (25.0%)	43 (28.3%)	50 (32.9%)	8 (5.3%)

There were 40 (26.3%) respondents who strongly disagreed training was adequate in the area of cybercrime and 52 (34.2%) disagreed. Twenty-eight respondents (18.4%) indicated their perception of training adequacy in this area was neutral. Also, 28 (18.4%) indicated they agreed cybercrime training was adequate while only four (2.6%) strongly agreed.

There were 42 (27.6%) respondents who strongly disagreed their training in same sex domestic violence incidents was adequate and 51 (33.6%) disagreed. Thirty-four respondents (22.4%) indicated their perception of adequacy was neutral. Twenty-two (14.5%) indicated they agreed their training in this area was adequate and only three (5.3%) strongly agreed.

Twelve respondents (7.9%) strongly disagreed their training in child abuse investigation was adequate and one-fourth (38) disagreed. Forty-three respondents (28.3%) indicated their perception of training adequacy was neutral. There were 50 (32.9%) respondents who indicated they agreed their training in this area was adequate and the remaining eight (5.3%) strongly agreed.

Data Analysis Question One

The first research question examined perceived training adequacy for the curriculum topics taught at Pennsylvania's municipal police academies which required formal proficiency testing in order to become a certified officer. The results in Table 20 show that respondents indicated they had received the most adequate training in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions in the area of criminal law ($M = 4.33$). Respondents indicated they had received the least adequate training in the curriculum topic of informants ($M = 2.18$).

Table 20

Ranking of the Academy Curriculum Topics

Curriculum Topic	N	Mean
Criminal Law	152	4.33
Vehicle Code Enforcement	152	4.33
Laws of Arrest	151	4.21
Use of Force	152	4.14
Handcuffing	151	4.09
Constitutional Law	152	4.07
Search and Seizure	152	3.98
Moral Issues	152	3.95
Vehicle Stop Techniques	151	3.93
Mechanics of Arrest	151	3.87
Officer as First Responder	152	3.84

Table 20 (continued)

Ranking of the Academy Curriculum Topics

Curriculum Topic	N	Mean
Securing the Crime Scene	152	3.74
Crimes in Progress	151	3.67
Domestic Violence	152	3.65
Patrol Activities	152	3.62
Crimes Against Property	151	3.50
Cultural Diversity	152	3.47
DUI Enforcement	152	3.44
Community Policing	152	3.41
Crises Intervention	152	3.38
Transporting Prisoners	152	3.37
Report Writing	152	3.33
Monitoring Traffic	151	3.28
Identification of Suspects	152	3.28
Evidence Collection	151	3.23
Controlled Substances	152	3.22
Courtroom Testimony	152	3.03
Child Abuse	151	3.03
Crime Prevention	151	3.01

Table 20 (continued)

Ranking of the Academy Curriculum Topics

Curriculum Topic	N	Mean
Custody of the Mentally Ill	152	2.96
Communication Techniques	152	2.93
Crowd Control	151	2.83
Interview Techniques	152	2.82
Homeland Security	151	2.52
Computer Crime	152	2.37
Same Sex Domestic Violence	152	2.30
Informants	152	2.18

Literature identified training gaps uncovered in Chapter II of this study showed officer training deficiencies in the areas of homeland security, cybercrime, same-sex domestic violence, and child abuse investigations. Same-sex domestic violence training was perceived to be the second least adequate ($M = 2.30$) with the topic of informants being perceived as the least adequate. Cybercrime ($M = 2.37$) was the third least adequate training curriculum topic according to respondents. Homeland security ($M = 2.52$) ranked fourth in least adequacy. Child abuse investigations ranked the tenth least adequate out of all 37 academy training curriculum topics.

Data Analysis Question Two

An independent sample *t*-test was performed to answer research question two to determine if there was a significant difference in the perceived adequacy of training between police officers who attended a higher educational academy and those who attended a governmental academy $t(136) = .679, p = .50$ (two tailed). As shown in Table 21, a *p* value of .50 was found which is greater than .05. For this reason, there is not a statistically significant difference in perceived training adequacy between police officers who completed the academy at a higher educational academy and those who attended a governmental academy.

Table 21

Program Type Differences in Perceived Adequacy of the Training Program

	Setting	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Police Academy	College	94	125.6	25.6	-.679	.50
Program Setting	Government	55	128.2	21.5		

Data Analysis Question Three

A Mann Whitney U test was used to answer research question three to determine if police officers who completed basic academy training at a higher educational academy perceived their training to have been less militaristic compared to those who attended a governmental academy. The Mann Whitney U test was used as a non parametric alternative to the independent sample *t*-test. As shown in Table 22 and Figure 1, there is a statistically significant difference in the level of militarism experienced between higher educational academies and governmental academies.

Table 22

Program Type Differences in Perceived Militarism of the Training Program

Program Setting	N	M	SD	M Rank	Z	P
College	94	1.37	.484	63.32	-4.465	<.0001
Government	55	3.27	1.390	94.96		

Note. Z is asymptotic approximation of the Mann-Whitney U test statistic.

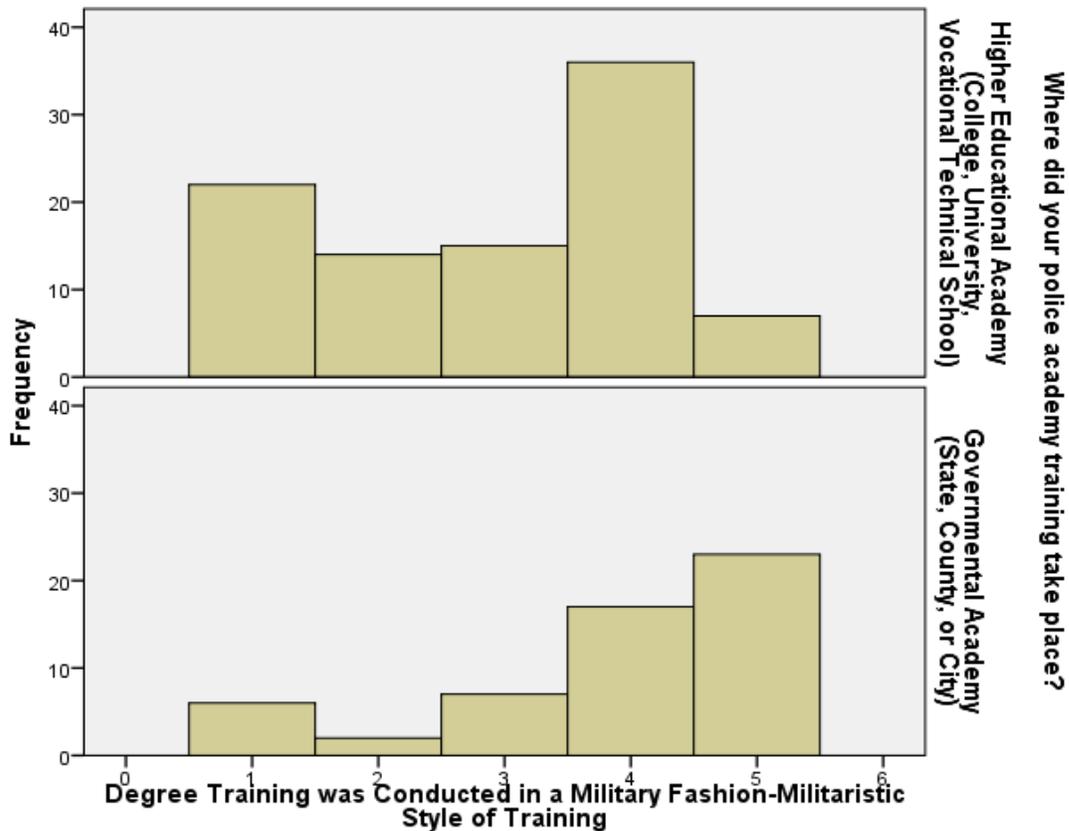


Figure 1. Degree of militarism.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the degree of adequacy that exists among Pennsylvania municipal police officers concerning the academy training curriculum. A second purpose of the study was to examine the corresponding pedagogy that results from training at higher educational institutions and governmental facilities. The results of this study confirmed that Pennsylvania municipal police officers do not receive adequate training in several areas identified by research as also lacking. The pedagogy of Pennsylvania's municipal police academies did not significantly affect the perception of training adequacy held by officers. Lastly, the data revealed that increased militarism is present at police academies operated at the governmental level as opposed to those conducted at higher educational institutions.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The objective of this study was to examine the curriculum effectiveness of Pennsylvania's municipal police academies in their attempt to produce competent officers. The study also aimed to uncover whether a pedagogical difference exists in the perception of academy training adequacy based on institutional setting. This was accomplished by a quantitative analysis concerning the opinions of 152 certified Pennsylvania municipal police officers.

Study Limitations

This study had a few limitations which must be considered when applying the results of this research to the entire population of Pennsylvania municipal police officers. Respondents relied on memory as they completed the survey instrument. Many of the respondents received their basic academy training over 10 years ago. Some of the respondents were trained more than 25 years ago.

Not every police academy curriculum topic was included in this survey. Only the 33 Municipal Police Officers' Education and Training Commission (MPOETC) police academy curriculum topics that require a certification assessment were included. Curriculum topics identified by a literature review as being absent from academy training were also included in the study. The possibility exists that other curriculum topics could influence the perception officers have toward adequacy of training.

Lastly, the number of respondents for this study was small. A larger number of respondents may have produced different results. These limitations, however, do not weaken the results of this study but provide an opportunity for continued research.

Summary of Results

The following research questions guided this study:

1. In which of the curriculum topics do certified Pennsylvania municipal police officers believe they have received the least and most adequate training in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions?
2. Do police officers who completed basic police academy training at a higher educational academy perceive their training to be more or less adequate than those who attended a governmental academy?
3. Do police officers who completed basic police academy training at a higher educational academy perceive their training to have been less militaristic than those who attended a governmental academy?

The analysis for research question 1 indicated the curriculum topic of criminal law was perceived as the most adequate training topic in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions. The Mean value for this topic was 4.33. The curriculum training topic perceived as least adequate was informants with a Mean value of 2.18.

The data analysis for research question 2 indicated there is not a statistically significant difference in perceived training adequacy between police officers who completed the academy at a higher educational academy and those who attended a governmental academy. The p -value of .50 obtained for this question which is greater than .05 indicates academy pedagogy and setting do not affect perceptions of effective training.

The analysis for research question 3 indicated there is a statistically significant difference in the level of militarism experienced between higher educational academies and governmental academies. A Z value of -4.465 was obtained during data analysis consistent with a statistical significant difference of militarism between higher educational and governmental academies.

Conclusion and Discussion

The findings of research question 1 were partially consistent with previous research. The results of this study support the research by Wilson and Grammich (2009) and White and Escobar (2008) who found that police officers are not adequately trained in homeland security. Results of this study showed that homeland security ranked near the bottom of curriculum topics in terms of effective training perception. There were only three other curriculum topics out of 37 that respondents indicated less adequacy in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions.

The results of this study also support the research of Hall (2008) and Brenner (2009) who found police officers are not adequately trained in the curricular area of cybercrime and technology enforcement. This study found cybercrime and technology investigation to be even less adequate in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions than homeland security. Out of 37 police academy curriculum topics, cybercrime was the 35th least adequate.

This study also supports the research of O'Dell (2007) and Tesch, Bekerian, English, and Harrington (2010) whose research showed police officers are not adequately trained to handle same-sex domestic violence incidents. The results of this study found the curricular topic of same-sex domestic violence incidents was the 36th least adequate topic learned at the municipal police academy out of 37 areas.

The findings of this study do not support the research of Daly's (2005) study. Daly found the curricular topic of child abuse to be inadequate at police academies. The results of this study

found there are nine other curricular topics ranked as more inadequate than child abuse at municipal police academies in Pennsylvania.

This study also does not support the research of Yero et al. (2012) or Allen (2002). Both Yero et al. (2012) and Allen (2002) found the curricular topic of community policing was inadequate at police academies. The findings of this study showed 18 other topics to be less adequate than community policing.

The findings of this study support the research by Finnimore (2005). Finnimore (2005) found survey respondents believed that subject matter on the laws of arrest, search and seizure, and use of force were the most valuable and important aspects of police academy training. The results of this study indicate officers perceive the curricular topic laws of arrest to be the third most adequate subject taught at the academy. The curricular topic use of force was the fourth most adequate subject taught at the academy according to the results of this study.

This researcher found no research in the literature that indicated the curricular topic of criminal law to be the most adequate perceived subject in terms of knowledge, skills, and disposition as was found as a result of this study. This researcher additionally found no research that indicated the curricular topic of informants was inadequately taught at police academies as this study showed.

The findings for research question 2 did not support the literature reviewed for this study. The findings for this study showed police officers who completed training at a higher educational institution do not perceive their training to be any more adequate than those who attended a governmental academy. This finding is in direct contrast to the work conducted by Poradzisz (2004) in which research revealed the pedagogical method of open dialog at higher educational training academies appeared to be favored by police recruits as opposed to the strict lecture

format found in military style academies. The findings of this study do not support the work of McCay (2011). McCay's (2011) research showed environment and pedagogy of police academies can affect a police officer's perception of the adequacy of training that was received.

The findings of this study also do not support the research of Illeris (2004). Illeris (2004) found that learning environments of any type need to possess warmth, care, security, tolerance, and emotional attachment which is completely contradictory to the military model training atmosphere. Additionally, according to the work of Illeris (2004), learning environments must be reinforced with mutual responsibility, openness, and listening via reciprocated communication. The characteristics described by Illeris (2004) are most commonly found at higher educational academies rather than governmental settings, however, as previously mentioned there is no difference in the perception of training adequacy between the two types of respondents according to this study.

The findings of this study that are in contrast with research found by Poradzisz (2004), McCay (2011), and Illeris (2004) may be due to geographical differences. These researchers conducted their studies in states other than Pennsylvania. Increased innovative and engaging methods of instruction may be more present at the training academies that were researched by Poradzisz (2004), McCay (2011), and Illeris (2004).

The findings for research question 3 were consistent with previous research. The findings of this study showed increased militarism at governmental academies compared to higher educational institutions. The results of this study support the research by McCay (2011). McCay (2011) found there is a tendency, especially at the governmental police academies to prepare police cadets using the military model. The results of this study also support the research by Reaves (2009) who found the majority of governmental police academies were

predominately militaristic. This is significant because cadets who complete training at a governmental academy will most likely be exposed to an environment characteristic of the armed forces to include strict discipline, punishment in the form of physical activity, and residency requirements. This type of oppression does not result in a more adequately trained police officers according to this study.

Recommendations

This study supports the findings of other researchers but also adds additional data not discovered during the literature review. The results of this study also add to the sparse literature that exists on varying police academy pedagogical techniques. The findings of this study provide valuable information for police academy instructors and curriculum authors. The information obtained as a result of this study can be used to better prepare police officers for the realities of law enforcement. The following recommendations are intended for municipal police academies to expand the curriculum topics taught to future law enforcers.

First, Pennsylvania municipal police academies should place more emphasis on homeland security and domestic terrorism during basic training. Currently the MPOETC academy provides only eight hours of instruction in homeland security which is also shared with the topic of street gangs. Since September 11, 2001 police officers are being tasked with performing anti-terrorism activities never before witnessed in policing history (Wilson &Grammich, 2009).

Second, municipal police academies in Pennsylvania should provide more training in the curricular topic of cybercrime and technological criminal investigations. Currently MPOETC does not provide any specific basic academy training for cybercrime incidents beyond teaching the six fundamental criminal laws governing technology. As a result of cybercrime victimization

rates increasing over 1,000% since the year 2000, proficiency in technological criminal investigation is of immense importance (Rataj, 2008).

Third, Pennsylvania municipal police academies should provide more training in the curricular area of same-sex domestic violence. Currently, the basic academy offers eight hours of instruction on domestic violence laws but does not include any specific information on same-sex abuse (Municipal Police Officers' Education and Training Commission). Police departments across the country are receiving more calls for help in same-sex domestic violence incidents than in the past thus necessitating the need for more training (Tesch, Bekerian, English, & Harrington, 2010).

Lastly, more training in the curricular topic of informants should be provided at Pennsylvania's municipal academies. Currently MPOETC provides two hours of instruction on informants and intelligence gathering.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study provided evidence to suggest that Pennsylvania's municipal police academies do not adequately train future officers in several key curriculum areas. Despite the results of this study revealing curriculum gaps in police training, further research is needed to confirm these findings. The following are recommendations for future research in the police training field:

1. Further research from a larger sample population should be gathered and analyzed.
2. This study relied on the responses of police officers without eliminating those who completed training in the distant past. An additional study could be done that limits the employment longevity of officers to five years or less.

3. Additional, research in the area of police academy pedagogy would be useful to measure the degree of training adequacy based on the higher education or governmental models.
4. Further research could examine actual police academy assessment scores as opposed to relying on the perceptions' of officers to determine curriculum adequacies and shortcomings.
5. This study relied only on the responses from municipal police officers. Further research from Pennsylvania State Police Trooper respondents could be conducted to confirm the applicability of the results to the larger population of law enforcement officers.

Summary

Many research studies have shown that a gap exists at police academies between what is taught and knowledge needed for law enforcement employment success upon graduation. This study was conducted to add to the existing literature on police training curriculum inadequacies. The study was also intended to assess pedagogical differences across the two types of municipal police academies in Pennsylvania to explore the relationship between the training environment and the perception of adequacy that exists by individual officers.

Pennsylvania's municipal police officers do not receive sufficient training in several important curriculum topics including homeland security, cybercrime, and same-sex domestic violence according to this study and supporting academic research. These gaps in curriculum content should be seen as a way to improve municipal police officer basic training.

Admittedly, more research is necessary to support the findings of this study; however, the results should be seen as providing valuable insight to the existing literature on police training.

The results of this study confirm literature findings on police training curriculum topics and provide new information previously not discovered by this researcher. Society must be assured the next time the police are called a competent and well-trained professional arrives.

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APPENDIX A

Informed Consent

You are being invited to participate in a survey as part of a study of the police academy training curriculum for a doctoral dissertation at Indiana University of Pennsylvania. The following information is provided to help you decide if you would like to participate in the survey. The title of the study is The Training Curriculum at Pennsylvania Municipal Police Academies: Perceptions of Effective Training. I am conducting a study on the effectiveness of the basic training program at MPOETC police academies. You are being invited to participate in this study provided you are a MPOETC certified officer. This study is being conducted by a doctoral student at Indiana University of Pennsylvania and is not affiliated with MPOETC. I am asking you to take a short survey indicating your perception of the adequacy relative to various police academy curriculum topics. You may ask questions concerning this research and have those questions answered before agreeing to participate.

Your participation includes the completion of an online survey that will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Information gathered from this study will be used to assist in better training and educating students, cadets, and sworn police officers. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research. The survey will not ask your name or the department for which you work. The surveys are anonymous and in no way will be able to determine who answered what to any specific question.

Your participation is voluntary and you are free to decide not to participate in this study and to withdraw at any time. If you wish to withdraw while taking the survey, simply close the web browser. Once you have completed the survey we will not be able to figure out which are your responses. You will not receive any monetary compensation for participating in this project.

Please follow this link to take the survey:

Please indicate if you consent to participating in the survey by clicking on the appropriate response

- I would like to participate in this survey
- I decline to participate in this survey

If you have any questions about the survey you can contact the researcher and/or the supervising faculty member using the contact information below:

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This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (724-357-7730).

APPENDIX B

Survey

Q1 Where did your police academy training take place?

- Higher Educational Academy (College, University, Vocational Technical School)
- Governmental Academy (State, County, or City)

Q2 How long have you worked as a certified police officer in Pennsylvania?

- 0 to 5 years
- 6 to 10 years
- 11 to 15 years
- 16 to 20 years
- 21 to 25 years
- More than 25 years

Q3 What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

Q4 What is the highest level of education that you obtained?

- High School Diploma or Equivalency
- Associates Degree
- Bachelors Degree
- Masters Degree
- Doctorate

Q5 Please rate the degree to which your police academy training was conducted in a military style setting. Examples of military settings include: cadets are required to move in-step while traveling in groups, cadets are subjected to personal and uniform inspections regularly, cadets are required to stay overnight at the academy during the week, cadets are subjected to physical exercise punishments

	Degree Training was Conducted in a Military Fashion				
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Militaristic Style of Training	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q6 The following items present various Municipal Police Officers' Education & Training Commission academy curriculum topics. Please rate each of the following police academy curriculum sections by "clicking" on the appropriate category. Please rate how well the basic police training academy prepares police officers in the following curriculum topics.

	Adequacy of Training				
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Moral Issues (1)	<input type="radio"/>				
Constitutional Law (2)	<input type="radio"/>				
Criminal Law (3)	<input type="radio"/>				
Laws of Arrest (4)	<input type="radio"/>				
Search & Seizure (5)	<input type="radio"/>				
Use of Force in Law Enforcement (6)	<input type="radio"/>				
Vehicle Code Enforcement (7)	<input type="radio"/>				
DUI Enforcement (8)	<input type="radio"/>				
Role of Patrol in Policing the Community (9)	<input type="radio"/>				
Patrol Activities (10)	<input type="radio"/>				
Monitoring and Controlling Traffic (11)	<input type="radio"/>				
Vehicle Stop Techniques (12)	<input type="radio"/>				
Crimes in Progress (13)	<input type="radio"/>				
Crowd Control (14)	<input type="radio"/>				
Crime Prevention (15)	<input type="radio"/>				
Officer as First Responder (16)	<input type="radio"/>				
Securing the Crime Scene (17)	<input type="radio"/>				
Interview/Interrogation Techniques (18)	<input type="radio"/>				
Evidence Collection (19)	<input type="radio"/>				
Identification of Suspects (20)	<input type="radio"/>				
Crimes Against Property (21)	<input type="radio"/>				
Controlled Substances (22)	<input type="radio"/>				

Informants (23)	<input type="radio"/>				
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Communication Techniques (24)	<input type="radio"/>				
Cultural Diversity (25)	<input type="radio"/>				
Crises Intervention (26)	<input type="radio"/>				
Domestic Violence and Police Response (27)	<input type="radio"/>				
Report Writing (28)	<input type="radio"/>				
Courtroom Testimony (29)	<input type="radio"/>				
Mechanics of Arrest (30)	<input type="radio"/>				
Handcuffing Techniques (31)	<input type="radio"/>				
Transporting Prisoners (32)	<input type="radio"/>				
Custody of the Mentally Ill (33)	<input type="radio"/>				
Computer Crime/Technology Investigation (34)	<input type="radio"/>				
Child Abuse (35)	<input type="radio"/>				
Homeland Security (36)	<input type="radio"/>				
Same Sex Domestic Violence Incidents (37)	<input type="radio"/>				

Q7 How well did the municipal police academy prepare you for entry level police work?

	Overall, the Basic Academy Prepared me for Entry Level Police Work				
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Overall preparation level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q8 How well did the field training experience prepare you for entry level police work?

	Overall, the field training experience prepared me for entry level police work				
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Preparation level of the field training experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q9. Do you have any recommendations to improve Pennsylvania's municipal police academies?