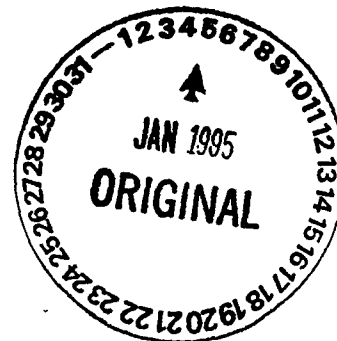POLICE TRAINING NEEDS: DO ATTITUDE DIFFERENCES

BETWEEN SUPERVISORS AND THEIR

OFFICERS EXIST?

BY

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Do differences in attitude about training needs exist between police
non-supervisory personnel and their immediate supervisors? Literature on differences
or similarities between the two groups is lacking. Nevertheless, the few studies that
have been conducted (see below) suggest that training attitudes among these two
groups may differ. The purpose of this study is examine whether differences in
training attitudes exist between supervisors and line-personnel of selected Texas law
enforcement agencies.

The literature on training in law enforcement suggests that training plays an
important part in achievement of any organization's goals and success (Noe, 1986:
736). Police departments, like other organizations, strive for success and
achievement of goals. Many organizations are realizing that quality and productivity is
enhanced through various types of training. Private organizations have embraced this
concept, and most spend large sums of money for training of their employees. Noe
(1986: 736) reports that training activities are currently receiving increased attention in
the industrial and academic communities. Private organizations spend over $30 billion
dollars annually for training programs involving 15 billion work hours (Miller, 1990:
429). Public agencies have been much slower in following the lead of the private
sector.

Most public service agencies, police departments included, have limited financial resources. Marsh and Grosskopf (1991: 65) suggest that the one factor that all police departments have in common is dwindling budgets and resources. These resources are divided up into various areas, and training usually gets the smallest allotment. Training is also one of the first programs to suffer within any law enforcement agency during tight budget times (Tully, 1986: 3).

The use of limited training funds is always a problem for police administrators whom must consider state training requirements and the constantly changing criminal element (Dees, 1990: 48). Administrators must also consider civil court actions and technological advances in the law enforcement field.

It is evident that training plays an important role in police agency operations. Problems like the ones mentioned make it important for organizations to examine their training needs. The literature suggests that the examination should include the training decision making process. Traditionally, organizations have made training decisions without input from their employees. However, the importance of considering employee attitudes about training needs is becoming more recognized. This recognition has prompted a limited number of studies in this area.

Even more limited are the number of studies that have considered the training need attitudes of non-supervisory personnel and their supervisors. However, comparative studies regarding the training attitudes of non-supervisory personnel and their supervisors reveal that differences exist between the two groups. Based on support from the literature, the primary hypothesis developed for this study is: Training need attitudes will be significantly different among supervisory and non-supervisory personnel in police agencies.

A review of the literature which addresses the various training recommendations suggest that supervisor and employee attitudes will differ in regard to three general training topic: technical, interpersonal, and supervisory training. The analysis of the literature also suggested an examination of the attitudes of the two groups relative to these areas of training is necessary for an in-depth understanding of the training need attitudes. Based on this contention, the following subhypothesis was developed: The training need priorities of police supervisors and their officers will differ in regard to technical, interpersonal, and supervisory training. A brief summary of each of the relevant chapters follows and is designed to serve as a guide for the research at hand.

Chapter two will provide the basis for the concepts developed in this study. The review of literature will investigate the importance of training for public and private organizations. The chapter will examine the varying definitions of training. The literature will also be utilized to identify some common areas of training found in the public and private organizations.

Chapter three will provide the research setting for this study. The Texas law enforcement structure, in general, will be described. Particular attention will be devoted to a description of the structure of the Killeen and Temple police departments, the two utilized for this study.

Chapter four will discuss the research methodology, describe the paper's survey research approach, and evaluate this method in comparison with other methods that could have been used to answer the study's central questions.

Chapter five will present the survey results as well as the analysis of the data received. The findings of the study will be provided. The differences and associations of supervisory and non-supervisory personnel will be examined using cross-tabular analysis and frequency distributions.

Chapter six will provide the summary, conclusions, and recommendations derived from the research. This chapter will examine the strengths and weaknesses of the study in general and suggest recommendations for the possible areas for future research.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

It is felt that the a brief history of law enforcement and the influences that introduced training into this area should be examined. It is hoped that this examination will reveal some of the shortcomings of early law enforcement which then led to calls for training that would help lead the way to professionalism.

Background

The origins of administration reform in police, education, regulation of economy, and even defense began in the latter part of the nineteenth century (Knott and Miller, 1987: 5). The authors suggest that moralistic reformers wanted to end political graft and corruption. The movement was for a nonpartisan civil service and greater professionalism in government.

Early government agencies were operated by unqualified personnel. The agencies were generally influenced by political relationships rather than by formal organized rules. There were likely to be very few levels of hierarchy between the lowest rank and the chief executive (Knott and Miller, 1987: 15). In most cases, chief executives found that their authority was undermined by the outside political forces.

Reforms in bureaucracy were motivated by a number of reasons. Among these reasons was the desire for greater control of an expanding bureaucracy. By creating a central administrative control, clear lines of authority with single chief executives could be developed (Knott and Miller, 1987: 3). The common belief was that the resulting organizational structure would produce both efficiency and accountability.

A second factor in the reform movement was the assumption that it was possible to create a nonpolitical, essentially technical government organization and management (1987: 4). This move was an attempt to provide government organizations, primarily the military, with an environment where there were no overbearing political or special interest group relationships.

Although reformers in the nineteenth century began the movement to end corruption and inefficiency in government, it was not until the Progressive era that real changes were taking place (1987: 5). The driving force was the desire for control and efficiency. The progressives, also tired of political machines, strove for politically neutral bureaucracy that was staffed by professional administrative experts.

Although some reform measures did more harm than good, other measures gave rise to continued efforts for changes through calling for standardization, general rules and policies, and even training for the various agencies. One of the many government agencies targeted for reform were the police departments which were also found to be corrupted by outside influences.

History of Law Enforcement

Police departments began emerge around the middle-1820s. Southern cities like Baltimore, Richmond, Atlanta and several others organized troops of police for the purpose of capturing runaway slaves (Walker, 1977: 4). In northern cities, police troops were organized to deal with frequent riots that had begun to occur as a result of massive immigration and rapid concentration of unskilled labor in new factories. In either case, there was little evidence that these police troops were effective at all. The police did not functions as individual patrol officers. They did not wear uniforms and were not allowed to carry weapons unless under the direct supervision of the commander. it appears that their main function was to maintain order by brute force (1977: 4).

By 1850, the urban police function had begun to undergo several crucial changes. In a few cities, police began to operate in patrols, taking over the function of the old day and night watchman (1977: 5). For the first time, police were given the duty of preventing crime by their mere presence. This revolutionary concept involved uniform officers being placed on patrol wherever crimes were thought likely to occur. The use of police patrol meant the decentralization of the police (Stone and Deluca, 1985: 23). Initially, police troops were organized in a centralized area until they were called out to quell a disturbance or chase a runaway slave.

The urban police agencies were generally organized under a police chief appointed by elected officials. However, the police chief had little personnel and operational control at the precinct station. The precincts were often run by a ward boss through precinct captains that were appointed to further the cause of the political machine (1985: 27).

The precinct captains, under the control of the ward bosses, administered personnel policy. The chief's orders and policies were often ignored in this process. The captains hired, promoted, and fired their own personnel. The captains also assigned personnel to their beats and provided all supervision. Loyal party followers of the political machine were rewarded through government jobs which in most cases were in the police departments (1985: 27). This system of patronage would work until the party in power lost an election, after which the new administration would fire the entire police force and install its own followers (Fogelson, 1977: 15).

During this period, police work was a very low-status occupation. Individuals of questionable character who were unable to obtain work elsewhere generally filled police positions. Officers were poorly paid and given no training; there were no pensions, paid holidays, or other benefits (Stone and Deluca, 1985: 24). Police were also held in low esteem by the public, consequently, there were no formal requirements for being a police officer, only that one be desperate enough to work.

During this same period, America underwent one of its periodic waves of moral reform. Church leaders and idealistic reformers were determined to improve social conditions in the cities (1985: 24). Reformers pressured state legislatures and local governments to prohibit what they considered immoral social behavior. Hundreds of laws were passed to forbid such vices as gambling, prostitution, public drunkenness, and so forth (24).

The responsibility of enforcing the new laws fell on the shoulders of the police agencies. The problem was that the agencies were incapable of handling such a major expansion of their duties (Fogelson, 1977: 15). Police agencies met with little success in dealing with serious crime. Major crimes against persons were rarely solved. Crimes such as rape, assault, and kidnapping were simply regarded as not police problems (Stone and Deluca, 1985: 25).

Police agencies began to deal with the new laws not by arresting violators, but by accepting bribes. Offenders who could pay were allowed to operate undisturbed, while those who did not pay would be arrested. This system fit with the prevailing political structure in which the ward bosses determined who would be allowed to operate based on their party loyalties (Fogelson, 1977: 15).

In summary, police departments controlled by political machines were generally meant to carry out the party's wishes for continued control of government agencies. As reforms began to surface, political machines began to find themselves out of power. The result of years of unprofessionalism and corruption left police agencies incapable of handling their new and expanding duties. These duties called for standardized regulation and training for police agencies and their officers. However, even at the turn of the century, no formal training was required for police officers. The outcome of the Progressive and Populist reform movement was a focus on professionalism, meritocracy, and specialization for government organizations, all of which implicitly were based on the requirements of education and training for various public sector positions. An overview of the development of professional training follows.

Training Defined

Training is defined numerous ways in the literature. Laird (1985: 11) defines training as an experience, a discipline, or a regimen which causes people to acquire new predetermined behavior. Training is a learning process whereby people acquire skills or knowledge to aid in the achievement of goals (Jackson and Mathis, 1988: 250).

In the past, training was viewed primarily as a means of boosting the skills and job-related knowledge of workers so as to increase organizational output and efficiency (Haas, 1991: 225). Contemporary managers have come to view training as contributing to a wide range of both organizational and individual needs. Beyond enhancing the technical skills of employees, certain types of training may benefit a public agency by helping to make it more manageable, instilling "organizationally appropriate" decisions and behaviors in the workforce (Nigro and Nigro, 1976: 229). It is suggested that the individual might view training as a means to further promotions and career development, or as making the work experience more enjoyable.

Employee interest in training is more widely recognized as Nigro and Nigro (1976) illustrate. The authors note that the mutuality of training as a benefit to both organization and the individual is a dominant theme of modern views of training, viewed as a process aimed at changing behavior (230). The authors conclude, the desire "new" behavior must be considered valuable to both the organization and the individual.

Training is viewed as having broader purposes than originally thought. Sylvia and Meier (1983: 142) view that training is now commonly believed to enhance worker satisfaction and morale in addition to enhancing the quality and quantity of worker output. Although training was once viewed as beneficial only to the organization, the

acquisition of new or enhanced skills is now viewed as valuable to the employee as well. Not all types of training can or will contribute to every conceivable purpose. Some training is likely to contribute to worker productivity without enhancing employee satisfaction and morale and vice versa (Haas, 1991: 225).

The training needs of non-supervisory personnel have been overlooked by local governments and the public personnel literature (225). A problem is that the determination of individual training needs are not adequately identified (Herbert and Doverspike, 1990: 253). The day to day management of public agencies may tend to overlook the potential disparity between the very real organizational needs for training and the potential for serving a broader purpose (Haas, 1991: 226). This oversight possibly results in the equally real needs of individuals being overlooked.

Training for managers and supervisors receives greater emphasis in government agencies than does training for rank and file employees. Both Haas (1991) and Sylvia and Meier (1983) maintain that the "organizational needs" to be fulfilled from training are generally those catered to by the attitudes and actions of managers and supervisors who may have their own priorities. Nigro and Nigro (1976: 232) demonstrate support for this contention. They add:

> Unfortunately, too often administrators and their trainers decide on training needs without bothering to consult with employees. Management assumes that what it believes is logical and relevant will be so perceived by the trainees.

Existing differences persist among local government supervisors and line-personnel in regard to training attitudes. Although literature on training attitudes of local government supervisors and line-personnel is limited, the few studies conducted suggest that training attitudes among these two groups do differ (226). If this analyses is accepted, a potential may exist for significant differences between the two groups about training policies.

In his study, Haas (1991) attempted to determine whether, and in which ways, the priorities of local government employees differ from those of their supervisors. He hypothesized that there would be significant differences in the attitudes of the two groups. Haas (1991: 230) found that training priority differences did exist between supervisors and their line-personnel: Line-personnel were more interested in technical skills type training, while supervisors were more interested in human developmental training.

Klinger (1980: 244) also demonstrated attitude differences between the two groups in regard to training needs. Klinger found that employees view training as a reward for higher performance, a break from routine job duties, or a means of learning skills that will hasten a move to a more desirable position. He reported that managers view training as a means of improving work unit productivity by increasing output or

reducing cost. Other literature further supports the contention of differences between non-supervisory personnel and supervisors. Line-personnel perceive training as leading to better jobs or assignments; managers see training as contributing to higher production, fewer mistakes, greater job satisfaction, and lower turnover rate (Jackson and Mathis, 1988: 251).

Differences in non-supervisory and supervisor attitudes toward training issues are also found in law enforcement literature. Reed (1978: 32) found training to be valued by the career minded police officer, as enhancing opportunities for increased salaries, promotions, and job assignments. From the management perspective, Reed notes one reason police departments seek increased training is to achieve a "professional" status.

Dees (1990: 48) suggests that law enforcement agencies generally take an "organization needs" approach toward training. This approach fails to consider differences between supervisory and non-supervisory personnel's opinions about their training needs. One reason is that administrators often have a difficult time evaluating training needs objectively, as their perspective necessarily changes when they enter the executive environment. In fairness, some aspects of law enforcement require stringent and specific training; however, law enforcement is not just about enforcing

laws. Police departments have entered an era in which other types of training are need and wanted by their non-supervisory personnel. This need will become more evident as agencies strive to recruit more professional and educated individuals. The increased demand and supply of better educated and training officers stems from a number of causes. Among these causes is the evolvement of state standards for law enforcement training for police officers.

Training Mandates for Law Enforcement

The need for educational and training standards for police officers was first documented in the Wickersham Commission report of 1931 (Reed, 1988: 32). The catalysts for the call for professional training resulted from the civil disorder and the increasing crime rate that was present in many American cities. The Commission brought into focus some of the glaring deficiencies that existed in local law enforcement and made many recommendations that were the impetus for future reforms and commissions (Swanson and Territo, 1983: 25). Other government agencies have voiced support for standardized training in law enforcement over the years. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice in 1967 was the first national commission to look a crime on a national level since the Wickersham Commission (25). This commission was influential in the

adoption of many police training reforms (Garmire, 1977: 519). Subsequent

commissions such as the National Advisory Commission on the Causes and

Prevention of Violence in 1969, the American Bar Association Project on Standards for

Criminal Justice in 1972, and the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice

Standards and Goals in 1973 were among other strong advocates of required

professional training for law enforcement officers (Reed, 1988: 32).

As a result of the cry for standardized training, many states have implemented

"minimum" training requirements. Some states have stronger requirements than

others. Nevertheless, in some states that have training mandates, agencies are still

allowed to place an individual on the police force before receiving any training

(Kuykendall and Unsinger, 1975: 259). There are also states that still have no

mandatory training standards for law enforcement.

The majority of the states that have standardized training for law enforcement

usually require that individuals seeking to be police officers attend a basic police

academy. These states may require successful completion of the academy training

before obtaining a peace officer's license. Without this license, an individual wanting

to become a police officer may not be allowed to practice law enforcement. The basic

premise was that new patrol officers should not be given street assignments until

basic training has been completed (Eastman, 1971: 183).

Law enforcement agencies themselves may be affected by state training mandates. First, the agencies may not allow a non-licensed individual to work as a police officer. Agencies may also be required to insure that their licensed officers receive additional training in future years in order to maintain the license. Whether training is mandated or merely recommended, a main idea behind training is to promote professionalism in law enforcement. The outcry for reforms in police agencies echoed from agency to agency because of wide corruption and injustices. One such injustice was the continuous violation of citizens' constitutionally protected rights which was a driving force behind police reforms. As more citizens began asserting their rights in court, many police departments found that training issues had to be addressed to protect against civil lability cases.

Training related Civil Liability

Civil action against police in the 1970s was met by police administrators with unfavorable response. This response mirrored that of the Warren Court's due process rulings of the 1960s (McCoy, 1984: 57). The belief was that the Court's inquiry into policing would cause officers to refrain from fighting crime. The rationale was that officers would become afraid of being sued by a citizen.

Concern arose from a series of Supreme Court rulings that tightened the liability

structure for the entire range of police defendants (57). McCoy found that, in the

1960s, individual officers were generally the only ones held liable for violations of

citizens' constitutional rights protected under 42 U.S.C. Section 1983. Individuals were

generally the only ones held liable in these cases due to the fact that government

entities were not considered "persons" as applied under 42 U.S.C. Section 1983. 42

U.S.C. Section 1983, otherwise known as the Civil Rights Act of 1871, provided that:

> Every person who, under color of any statute, ordinance, regulation,
> custom, or usage, of any State or Territory, subjects, or causes to be
> subjected, any citizen of the United States or other person within the
> jurisdiction thereof to the deprivation of any rights, secured by the
> Constitution and laws, shall be liable to the party injured in an action at
> law, suit in equity, or other proper proceeding for redress.

In the case of Monroe v, Pape, 365 U.S. 167 (1961) the U.S. Supreme Court,

(hereinafter referred to as the Supreme Court) held that officers were liable for

violations of citizens' constitutional rights as protected under 42 U.S.C. 1983 (McCoy,

1984: 57). Although this precedent was a first, the officer still had the protection of

"good faith." This allowed the officer to shift the blame for an illegal act to the

supervisor. The contention might be that the supervisor failed to supervise and train

which led to an officer's false belief that his or her good faith actions were legal.

Initially, immediate supervisors were immune from liability because the courts consistently held that the doctrine of "respondeat superior" did not apply (58). This doctrine means, "let the master answer." According to Novit (1982: 11) the doctrine is based on the principal established under the master-servant doctrine. The rule was based on the servant carrying out the master's wishes. If doing so caused harm to a person or property, then the master should assume liability. In modern terminology, employer and employee replaces master and servant. Since the supervisor is not the person who employed the officers, he or she is not an "employer" as viewed under the doctrine (58). The "employer" was considered to be the municipality which was paying the employee.

The federal courts in the 1970s began re-examining the role of supervisors in civil lability cases. The courts found that the nature of the employment relationship was not an issue as previously held. The issue was whether there was sufficient degree of involvement in the illegal actions by the supervisory personnel to serve as basis for civil liability (11). McCoy (1984: 58) suggested that a supervisor's failure to train patrol officers properly or to supervise them so that they adhere to constitutional standards is sufficiently negligent to bring supervisory personnel into the web of liability.

Even with supervisory immunity abandoned in cases of negligent training or supervision, supervisors could still find protection under the "good faith" defense provided to the line-personnel under the Monroe case. McCoy (1984) found supervisors shifted the blame to the department or city. The supervisor claims he or she was, in good faith, following written policies or "traditional bureaucratic customs" implemented and approved by the department and or city. If the supervisor and the officers were found acting in good faith, the plaintiff had no where else to turn. Traditionally, municipalities were immune from liability for violations under 42 U.S.C. 1983 (60).

Municipalities and other government units received immunity due to the fact that the entities were not considered "persons" under 42 U.S.C. 1983. The case of Monell v. New York Department of Social Services, 463 U.S. 658, 98 S. Ct. 2018, 56 L. Ed. 2nd 611 (1978) opened the door that considered municipalities "persons" answerable for 42 U.S.C. 1983 violations (Valente, 1987: 939). In addressing this issue, the Supreme Court held:

> Our analysis of the legislative history of the Civil Rights Act of 1871 compels the conclusion that Congress "did" intend municipalities and other local government units to be included among those persons to whom section 1983 applies. Local governing bodies, therefore, can be sued directly under section 1983 for monetary, declaratory, or injunctive relief where, as here, the action that is alleged to be unconstitutional implements or executes a policy statement, ordinance, regulation, or decision officially adopted and promulgated by that body's officers.

> Moreover, although the touchstone of the section 1983 action against a governing body is an allegation that official policy is responsible for a deprivation of rights protected by the Constitution, local governments, like every other section 1983 "person," may be sued for constitutional deprivations..... (Monell v. New York City Department of Social Services, 463 U.S. 658, 98 S. Ct. 2018, 56 L. Ed. 2nd 611,1978).

While the Supreme Court held that municipalities were persons under section 1983, the decision only applied under certain conditions. Although municipalities could be held liable for section 1983 violations, they could not be held so simply because the municipality was the employer. The Monell case paved the way for citizens to collect damages from municipalities in cases where the rights were violated; however, the case only applied to federally protected rights (Valente, 1987: 939). The case also raised the issue of holding municipalities liable because of official policy. Under the Monell ruling, a local government can be sued for damages under section 1983 when the government employee's conduct that caused the damage represents official policy (Statsky, 1982: 65).

The Supreme Court sentiments were reiterated by reformers who hoped police activities, and governmental policies and practices generally, would be more carefully controlled (McCoy, 1984: 58). The basic principal of this view is that if no particular unit can escape constitutional scrutiny, perhaps, all decisionmakers will try to prevent unconstitutionality at all levels of municipal policing (58). Most of the literature

stresses the importance of sufficient training to prevent civil liability cases from emerging. Many civil cases against cities and their police departments are based on improper or insufficient training. As a result of liability issues raised by the courts, administrators are forced to address their training problems.

The Supreme Court recently imposed an implicit affirmative duty on municipal police departments; that duty is to train their police officers to perform tasks which would prevent violations of citizens' constitutional rights (Aaron, 1991: 46). Police supervisors and line-officers are also held personally liable in 42 U.S.C. 1983 cases. More frequently, the courts are holding that officers should not perform a duty for which they have not been trained. Law enforcement officers are aware of their own rights (46). It is increasingly probable that officers will refuse to perform those duties for which they have not been trained.

In summary, there are a number of driving forces behind law enforcement training. The individual officer may seek training for self improvement, while the supervisor might view training as a means to increase production or reduce potential liability. For both non-supervisory and supervisor personnel, law enforcement training is a must for aiding in the prevention of law suits because of the potential for violations of a citizen's constitutionally protected rights. There are many other reasons for training, and each of these areas adds a different type of requirement to the spectrum. For this reason, training priorities must be examined by the individual and the agency.

Training Areas

The literature suggests training in government agencies can be divided into three major topic areas. These areas are technical, interpersonal, and managerial skills. Because of the diversity of law enforcement work, these topics should be viewed in the broadest sense. Training now includes a variety of technical, managerial, and even interpersonal skills (Haas, 1991: 225). Melnicoe and Mennig (1978: 32) observed that law enforcement training includes three important areas. The first area is instruction in the development of good habits and attitudes. Practical instruction is the second area. Training in this area includes how, what, when, where and why tasks are performed. The final area is the development of potential in employees. Many types of training exist, and job skills, supervisory, and employee development training are just a few identified as important areas for enhancement of skills (Jackson and Mathis, 1988: 250).

Technical Skills Training

The literature suggests that "technical" training is perceived a variety of ways by researchers. Technical training is viewed as promoting professionalism and also has proven effective in combating civil and criminal charges that are made against law enforcement personnel (Grosskopf and Marsh, 1991: 641). Reed (1988: 32) observed that technical training is primarily designed to teach the mastery and application of

rules, the development of mechanical skills in the operation of equipment, and the development of skills in the performance of routine maneuvers. Technical training, in a limited sense, provides an employee with specific and immediately-usable skills. Technical training increases the quality and quantity of officer productivity (Margeson, 1988: 36).

Of the three topic areas chosen for this study, technical training seems to have the most influence on supervisors and line-officers. Part of this influence stems from the fact that many states have "minimum" training standards which fall under technical training. In most of these states, training begins with a basic police academy whose function is to provide basic skills training for the prospective officer (Stone and Deluca, 1985: 310). Any basic training program should be designed to develop those skills necessary to successfully perform a new job (Bopp, 1974: 183). The technical training areas vary from state to state, but most programs are designed to prepare a first year officer for patrol duty assignments.

In 1965, the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) advocated a 200 hour basic training course (Kuykendall and Unsinger, 1975: 261). This recommended course included academic study of the criminal justice system, judicial procedure, the laws of evidence and arrest, and the organization of law enforcement agencies. Instruction in skills training for patrol procedures, and firearms training were among other favored topics (Stone and Deluca, 1985: 310).

The IACP's recommendations were not accepted by all states. Even in cases where standardized training is implemented, there are widespread discrepancies. Stone and Deluca (311) found that aside from those agencies that offer no recruit training at all, basic training programs vary in length remarkably. Some programs vary in duration from one to two weeks (40 to 80 hours) to as much as eight weeks (320 hours). Although the length of basic training academy may differ from state to state, there are similarities in the training programs which includes technical training areas.

The existing literature on various areas of technical training is extensive. Training includes the use of force, firearms training, child abuse and neglect recognition, and family violence investigation, just to name a few. In most states, these topics are among some of the core training areas that are mandated.

Melnicoe and Mennig (1978: 306) observed that law enforcement technical training is divided into several areas. The authors cite the California Commission on Peace Officer's Standards and Training is an example. The Commission developed several major training topics. The major topics include knowledge of federal and state laws, investigation, patrol procedures, traffic control, juvenile procedures, and administration of justice. The California technical training areas are found in the majority of other states' programs (Melincoe and Mennig, 1978: 306).

Technical training is viewed as contributing to a variety of advantages and is perceived as promoting increased quality and quantity in officer productivity. Some of the supporters tout this training topic as promoting professionalism, and others view technical training as providing immediate skills to perform a job or assignment.

Interpersonal Skills Training

Interpersonal skills training is also known as human resource or employee development. Development training is different from technical training because the focus is on less tangible attitudes and values (Jackson and Mathis, 1988: 299). Supporters of human resource development see the acquisition of such skills as a way to enhance an employee's capability to handle responsibilities successfully. Human resource development is concerned with improvement in the intellectual or emotional abilities needed to do a better job (277).

Wexley and Baldwin (1986: 279) found human resource development is a multifaceted and long-term process. The authors suggest success depends on a variety of potential activities, factors within the individual, jobs, and policies within the organization. Human resource development is often viewed as the key to fighting today's organizational economic ills. The problem is evaluating the various methods and making the right choices about what is best for the organization (Fredler and Garcia, 1985: 35).

Developmental training is much more involved than learning a skill such as typing. The purpose includes changing attitudes about involvement of employees and improving abilities to communicate. Such training also facilitates the use of better judgement and more innovative decisions (Jackson and Mathis, 1988: 277).

Employee development has undergone radical change within the last ten to twenty years. Government managers have had a growing awareness that organization and employee development are "inextricably interwoven" (Miller, 1990: 429). The congruency between the employee's aspirations and organizational goal attainment can be greatly ameliorated through human resource development (King and Bishop, 1991: 285). The view is that the success of both the employee and the organization is based on mutual purposes and goals. While organizational development is considers the "total" operations of the organization, employee development is concerned with individual workers as separate, yet unique part of the total (Miller, 1990: 430).

Supervisory Training

The literature suggests law enforcement agencies take a reactive approach to supervisory training. In most cases, an officer who wishes to be promoted studies from supervisory texts and then takes a written examination. Supervisory training is generally given after an individual has been promoted, and, even then, training is at a minimum in many agencies.

According to Melnicoe and Mennig (1978: 4), training programs for non-supervisory personnel have been heavily emphasized in the police service. However, little, if any, consideration was given to the training of supervisors until California and New York, through their respective commissions on law enforcement standards and training, took the lead. The two states developed training programs that require various supervisor training for newly promoted officers.

Supervisory training is also found to be important to the achievement of an agency's goals for professionalism and increased quality and quantity in production. In terms of importance to non-supervisory personnel, it would seem that such training would be very important because of increased chances for promotions. This training is viewed as a way to advance in the organization. Caution is suggested in the giving of management training arbitrarily. Beasley (1991: 5) found that eighty percent of the officers hired will remain at the officer level; therefore, the remaining twenty percent who have leadership potential need to be identified and trained for supervisory positions.

In summary, supervisory training is generally given after an individual has been promoted. Most police officers are promoted upon scoring the highest on an examination designed to measure knowledge of supervisory skills. The literature also suggests that non-supervisory personnel might view supervisory training as a way to advance in the department while police organizations see supervisory training as a way to achieve organizational goals.

This research project will examine attitudes regarding training in two Texas law enforcement agencies. Chapter three will provide an overview of the setting for this study.

CHAPTER 3

Research Setting

Since this study examines and compares the police officers attitudes towards

training in Killeen and Temple, Texas policed departments, Texas law enforcement

training mandates and the state agency, the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement

Standards and Education, should be briefly examined. Additionally, an in-depth

examination of the Killeen and Temple Police departments follows; the organizational

structure and training philosophies of these two agencies will be documented and

explained.

The Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education,

(hereinafter referred to as TCLEOSE) sets minimum training standards and

recommendations for Texas police departments and peace officers. TCLEOSE law is

found in chapter 415 of the Texas Government Code. This chapter explains the

commission and its authority (TCLEOSE RULES, 1991: 29).

The Commission is the state agency that oversees the training standards and

recommendations for Texas peace officers. The standards set forth the requirements

that must be met for obtaining and maintaining a peace officer's license. Both the

individual and police departments are affected by the Standards set forth by

TCLEOSE. Except under certain circumstances, an individual can not work as an

officer before obtaining a peace officer's license.

TCLEOSE training requirements are found in, <u>TCLEOSE Rules: Current Rules</u> <u>of the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education</u> (February 1, 1992). The rules were developed according to the guidelines and authority provided in the <u>Texas Government Code</u>, chapter 415. It is through these rules that training requirements for individuals and Texas law enforcement agencies are regulated. The Killeen and Temple police departments are greatly influenced by the TCLEOSE training requirements and recommendations.

Killeen and Temple Police Departments

The two agencies in this study were chosen because of their many similarities. Killeen has a population of about 65,000 that includes some Fort Hood Military personnel and their dependents. The city of Temple has a population of about 45,000. Both cities have their population increased during peak business hours because of their proximity to other towns and municipalities. The city of Killeen is located next to the Fort Hood Army Base which has military personnel and dependents who live on the base that enter the city for employment and recreational needs. The city of Temple is a large industrialized area that supports jobs and provides recreational activities for many citizens of smaller surrounding communities. Due to the many similarities of the cities, the organizational structure of their respective police departments are likewise similar.

Both the Killeen and Temple police departments are managed by police chiefs. The police chiefs have assistants, or deputy chiefs to aide in the overall operation of the police department. Generally, the deputy chiefs have their duties divided between administrative and operational functions. The captains are next in the chain of command of both organizations. The captains' responsibilities fall into three general areas. These duties include administrative, patrol, and operational functions.

Following the rank of captain is the position of lieutenant who is the immediate supervisor of the many sergeants of the various divisions of the police departments. The sergeants are the non-supervisory officers' first link to management. The remainder of the sworn officers are non-supervisory personnel. These officers are assigned to various patrol or support unit positions. It is the patrol sergeants and their officers that this study is concerned with.

Department Training

Both Killeen and Temple police departments require various training for prospective and current officers. Both agencies are strongly influenced by the TCLEOSE requirements. Both agencies send recruits to the Central Texas Regional Police Academy which is certified by TCLEOSE as a basic police academy. Upon successful completion of the academy, officers from both agencies undergo additional

training in their respective agencies. Before these officers are assigned to lone patrol duties they must undergo field training. This training involves the recruit being assigned to a veteran officer who is known as a field training instructor, or FTI. In this program, the recruit is instructed in various police procedures and department policies. Field Training, exposes the recruit to the many situations that he or she will face in their duty assignments. This process is similar in both the Killeen and the Temple departments. A slight difference is that the Killeen department's program is sixteen weeks long, while Temple's is fourteen.

The need for continuous training has led both the departments to seek certification as police academies. Temple received certification in 1987, and Killeen in 1989. The certifications allows both agencies to provide additional on-site training for their officers. Many advantages are reaped as a result of the academy certification. For example, other uncertified agencies pay to send their officers to Killeen or Temple for training. Neither Killeen nor Temple have to send their officers away for training. Another advantage is that both agencies have formed a cooperative in which training is shared between the two. This system allows for each agency to send their officers to the other agency's training at no cost of the training. This cooperative is feasible due to the fact that the agencies are only approximately twenty minutes away from each other.

The two agencies share training for a variety of reasons. First, the shared training allows for a greater variety of training offerings. Secondly, the cooperative allows both agencies to increase the training revenue by coordinating training programs. Because of the close proximity to each other, to offer a major training seminar simultaneously would decrease enrollment from other agencies making the program less cost effective. Another advantage is the expansion of instructor resources. Department instructors of various expertise are at the disposal of both agencies at a minimal cost.

Training for both agencies is structured using various guidelines. TCLEOSE requirements and recommendations are the primary sources for types of training provided. Generally, specific TCLEOSE training area requirements are met during the basic police academy training. Training for both agencies are also sometimes influenced by societal events such as the 1991 police beating of Rodney King incident in Los Angeles California. Both agencies generally direct most training at uniform patrol functions. This training is provided so as to aid the line officer with various skills required to perform everyday patrol functions. Patrol functions include mainly technical skills type training.

The training philosophies of both agencies include the idea of providing continuous training in order to produce a well-rounded officer and an overall professional police department. Although each department has to insure that their officers received the mandated hours of training, both strive to offer training beyond the minimum standards. This training although mainly designed for patrol officer functions, also offers specialized training to interested officers. The philosophy is that the opportunity to train in various areas allows an officer to be able to perform various duty assignments or duties.

In summary, both the Killeen and Temple police departments operate in a similar environmental setting. This setting places many like demands on both agencies, and, as a result, the departments have similar organizational structures. The demands on these agencies require various types of training for their officers. Most of this training is necessarily geared toward the patrol line functions; although, the need for specialized training is also addressed by both agencies.

Chapter four will provide an overview of the methodology used to measure and evaluate differences in attitudes toward training between supervisory and non-supervisory personnel in two Texas police departments.

CHAPTER 4

Methodology

Data to test the hypothesis of this study were obtained by surveying police

line-personnel and supervisors of the Killeen and Temple police departments. The

participants were provided with a list of training areas included in three major training

topics - technical, interpersonal, and supervisory. The non-supervisory respondents

were asked to rank the training according to the importance they placed on each area.

Their immediate supervisors were asked to rank the training according to what they

felt was important for their personnel to receive.

This study utilized survey research to collect the data. Although there are a

number of alternative research methods available, the survey method was the most

appropriate for the conditions under which this study was conducted. Before

proceeding to the details of the conditions, an overview and evaluation of survey

research is provided.

Survey Research

According to Mason and Bramble, (1989: 52) the survey is common in

sociological and political-attitude research. The survey method may be utilized to

determine views or attitudes for the purpose of planning or decision making. This

method is used to collect original data that can be used to measure and explain

attitudes and behaviors being studied (Babbie, 1989: 236). Survey methods are appropriate for collecting data about a population's attitudes (Welch and Comer, 1983: 50). Mason and Bramble (1989: 52) explain that survey research is used to study the distribution of characteristics in a population.

Survey research, like other methods, is found to have strengths and weaknesses. Knowing the these is important to determining which method is most appropriate to the study at hand (Babbie, 1989: 236). Surveys are particularly useful in describing the characteristics of a large population. In one sense, surveys are flexible. Many questions may be asked on a given topic, giving considerable flexibility to the analysis. Finally, the standardization of the questionnaire provides reliability strength (254).

Survey research has a number of weaknesses. Welch and Comer (1983: 50) recommend that a survey not be used unless it is the absolutely best way to collect the information being sought. The authors advise that a "opinion" survey is a complicated operation and suggest that an expert be contacted to insure sound procedures are being followed.

Surveys may produce superficial and often misleading data. This method seldom deals with the context of social life (Babbie, 1989: 254). The survey researcher can seldom develop the feel for the total life situation in which respondents are thinking and acting. Surveys are also inflexible in regard to research design.

This method usually requires that an initial survey design remain unchanged throughout the study (254). Surveys are also known as generally weak on validity because of artificiality.

There are three main methods for collecting survey data: telephone interviews, face-to-face interviews, and self-administered questionnaires. Although all three have unique strengths and weaknesses, the mail questionnaire appears to have the most advantages. This questionnaire is generally inexpensive and less time consuming. Another advantage is that there may only be a need for a small staff. It is possible for one person to conduct a mail survey. This method is appropriate for dealing with sensitive or controversial issues. The self-administered questionnaire provides for anonymity that is not possible through face-to-face or telephone interviews. Respondents are more likely to complete self-administered questionnaires (Welch and Comer, 1983: 51, Babbie, 1989: 254, and Mason and Bramble, 1989: 52).

Weaknesses of the self-administered questionnaire include low response rates. There is also a greater risk of improperly completed or incomplete questionnaires than with face-to-face or telephone surveys. Although questionnaires can ask standardized questions that give the same choice of answers to all respondents, the format cannot deal with the contingency questions. Questionnaires can be regarded as impersonal. Respondents can react unfavorably to the medium and skew their responses (Zemke and Kramlinger, 1988: 156).

Even with the various strengths and weaknesses of survey research and self-administered questionnaires, there are situations where this method is the best for the study being conducted. The question of which research method is best can be answered by examining the questions being asked, the available resources and the nature of the previous work in the field (Mason and Bramble, 1987: 58). There is no one method that is appropriate to all research topics, and each methodology has unique strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, a knowledge of optional methods is important.

Although other various methods are suitable, the survey method is the most appropriate for this study. One reason is that survey allows for the collecting of data for describing a population that is too large to observe directly. The purpose of this study is to examine whether or not police non-supervisory personnel and their supervisors in their attitudes toward training needs. Specifically, this study will examine the distribution of characteristics of a population of the Killeen and Temple police line-personnel and their supervisors.

Respondents

This study is concerned with the attitudes of first-line officers and their

immediate supervisors. The participants for this study were selected from the Killeen

and Temple police departments. The participants were chosen according to their duty

assignments. There were no support unit officers or supervisors used for this study.

The relatively small population makes it possible for a one-hundred percent rate. The

respondents and their selection are covered further in Chapter five.

The surveys that were distributed to both the Killeen and Temple police

departments. Instructions as to the return of the surveys were also provided. The

Temple police department respondents had a centralized department box in which

they could return the completed surveys. The Killeen police department respondents

were asked to return their questionnaires to their training coordinator.

Test Instrument

The survey instrument was developed by utilizing various sources of

recommended training for police officers identified in the literature review. These

sources provided a list of various law enforcement training areas. The first source to

be used was a list of training areas that was provided by TCLEOSE (1991: 1-2). The

TCLEOSE list contained areas of training that are required and or recommended for law enforcement officers. This list was compared with training that was found in a 1983 Federal Bureau of Investigation study titled, "State and Local Law Enforcement Training Needs." This study gathered state and local training needs information by surveying over 16,000 state and local law enforcement agencies (Phillips, 1984: 6). This study yielded training topics and areas that were found to be common in law enforcement agencies all over the United States. The three most common training topic areas found in the literature were technical, interpersonal, and supervisory training. These topics were divided even further into specific training areas. The areas chosen were also found to be the most common according to the literature.

The completed instrument for this study lists training areas for all three topics combined. Free space was allotted so that respondents could add additional training areas if they so desired. A copy of the survey instrument may be found in Appendix A. The results found in the returned surveys will be discussed at length in chapter five. The chapter provides the analysis of the survey data and draws the conclusions regarding the training hypothesis and subhypothesis presented in Chapter one.

CHAPTER 5

Data Analysis

Overview of Respondent Characteristics

The respondents for this study were chosen according to their duty

assignments as patrol officers or as immediate supervisors of the patrol officers. The

population of both police departments totaled eighty-eight non-supervisory personnel

and their immediate supervisors. The Killeen police department study population

consisted of forty patrol officers and six immediate supervisor sergeants. The Temple

police department population consisted of thirty-seven patrol officers and five

immediate supervisor sergeants.

After the eighty-eight questionnaires were hand-delivered to both agencies,

recontact was made in order to obtain an acceptable response rate. Subsequent

follow-ups led to an increased response rate from both agencies. Response rates of

about seventy percent from Killeen patrol officers and eighty percent from the their

immediate supervisors were received. The Temple police department response rate

was increased to just above fifty percent for patrol officers and eighty percent from

their immediate supervisors.

Demographic Data

The survey instrument was constructed with three parts. The first portion

contained six demographic questions designed so as to provided a comparison of the

characteristics among the respondents of the survey. The questions also allowed for

the separation of non-supervisory and supervisory personnel for purposes of data

analysis. The second part of the survey instrument contained sixty-six training areas

that respondents could rank according to the importance that they placed on them.

While non-supervisory personnel were asked to rank the training according to the

importance they place on it, their supervisors were asked to rank training according to

the importance they felt it was for their personnel to have. This list was designed so

as to test the hypothesis for the study. The final portion of the instrument consisted of

a single question designed to test the subhypothesis of the study. The question

allowed respondents to rank the three general training areas as found in the literature

review.

An overview of the characteristics of the respondents from both agencies is

provided in Table 5-1. The agencies are shown to be similar in many ways. Table

5-1 reveals that the departments were well matched according to the number and rank

of respondents. The non-supervisory respondents for Killeen numbered twenty-eight;

for Temple, the respondents numbered twenty-one. In regard to the supervisors,

Killeen had five respondents and the Temple sample contained four participants.

TABLE 5-1

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS AND POSITION
(within each agency)

KILLEEN:	N= 28 Non-Supervisory Officers 5 Supervisors
TEMPLE:	N= 21 Non-Supervisory Officers 4 Supervisors

Table 5-2 demonstrates that the respondents from the two departments were

also similar in gender. All twenty-eight of the Killeen non-supervisory respondents

were male and twenty of the Temple respondents were male. One female respondent

respondent in a non-supervisory position from Temple responded to the survey. The

supervisor respondents for both agencies were males. At this time neither agency has

a female line-personnel supervisor. Table 5-2 provides a general overview of the

gender breakdown for the two departments.

TABLE 5-2

GENDER OF RESPONDENTS

	Killeen		Temple	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Non-supervisory	28	0	20	1
Supervisors	5	0	4	0

Table 5-3 shows that the majority of the non-supervisory respondents reported being in the thirty-one to forty year old range. Table 5-3 also reveals that the supervisors in general tended to be older that the non-supervisory respondents.

TABLE 5-3

AGE OF RESPONDENTS

	Years			
	21-30	31-40	41-50	51 +
KILLEEN				
Non-supervisory	8	16	3	1
Supervisors	0	3	2	0
TEMPLE				
Non-supervisory	3	14	3	1
Supervisors	0	2	1	1

Table 5-4 shows the education level of the respondents of both departments. The majority of the non-supervisory respondents from both agencies reported having some college education. Most of the Killeen supervisor respondents reported having some college education while Temple supervisors were equally divided between the four educational levels provided. There were no officers from either department who held Doctorate degrees.

TABLE 5-4

EDUCATION LEVEL

	High School	Some College	Bachelor's	Master's
KILLEEN				
Non-supervisory	0	21	7	1
Supervisors	0	4	1	0
TEMPLE				
Non-supervisory	0	15	6	0
Supervisors	1	1	1	1

Table 5-5 illustrates a difference in the number of years the respondents have been in their present positions. The majority of Killeen non-supervisory respondents reported being in their present positions for five years or less. Most Temple non-supervisory respondents reported being in their positions from six to ten years. Most Killeen supervisors reported having five years or less in their current positions. The Temple supervisors were equally divided in the amount of years in their positions.

TABLE 5-5

TIME IN PRESENT POSITION

	Years				
	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21 +
KILLEEN					
Non-supervisory	14	9	5	0	0
Supervisors	3	2	0	0	0
TEMPLE					
Non-supervisory	4	13	3	1	0
Supervisors	1	1	0	1	1

Table 5-6 shows the number of years the respondents had been with their police departments. The non-supervisory Killeen respondents reported having the same amount of time with the department as was reported in Table 5-5. This was not the case with the Temple respondents. Respondent decreases in the five years or less and the six to ten year range were observed. The differences observed are due to the Temple department's recent reorganization. Non-supervisory patrol officers who were lost through attrition were replaced by support unit officers. Support unit officers generally have more time with the department.

There were also differences observed between the Killeen and Temple supervisor respondents. Three Killeen supervisor respondents reported having six to ten years with their department, and two supervisors reported having eleven to fifteen years with the department. The Temple supervisors were more diversified in terms of years; all reported being with the department for more than five years.

TABLE 5-6

TIME WITH THE DEPARTMENT

	Years				
	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21 +
KILLEEN					
Non-supervisory	14	9	5	0	0
Supervisory	0	0	3	2	0
TEMPLE					
Non-supervisory	3	12	4	1	1
Supervisory	0	1	1	1	1

Support for Training

The survey data indicated that there is strong overall support for training from both supervisor and non-supervisory respondents of each agency. The study's hypothesis: "Training need attitudes will be different among non-supervisory personnel and their supervisors," was tested through the utilization of the training area list. A frequency count was used to record the participants' ranking of various training.

A substantial difference between the priorities for training indicated by the non-supervisory respondents and the supervisors of both agencies was observed in the area of general training topics. Table 5-7 illustrates that the non-supervisory respondents were more supportive of the general technical training topic while the supervisors showed more support for the general interpersonal training topic.

Table 5-7 also illustrates that non-supervisory respondents were more interested in technical skills training than were the supervisory respondents. Nineteen Killeen, and sixteen Temple non-supervisory respondents chose technical training as the most important general topic. The supervisors from both agencies demonstrate more support for interpersonal training. Three Killeen, and two Temple supervisors chose interpersonal skills training as the most important general training topic.

The supervisory training topic received low support from both the supervisor and non-supervisory respondents. Three Killeen, and one Temple respondents ranked this topic as being the most important. There were no Killeen supervisors who ranked supervisory training as being most important; only one Temple supervisor ranked it as the most important general topic.

TABLE 5-7

GENERAL TRAINING TOPICS

	Technical	Interpersonal	Supervisory
KILLEEN			
Non-supervisory	19	6	3
Supervisory	2	3	0
TEMPLE			
Non-supervisory	16	4	1
Supervisory	1	2	1

Summary

Nineteen Killeen and sixteen Temple non-supervisory respondents chose technical training over interpersonal and supervisory training. Three of the Killeen supervisors and two of the Temple supervisors selected interpersonal training over technical and supervisory training.

Non-supervisory interest in the general area of technical skills lends support to the view that this group would be interested in training that would enhance opportunities for increased professionalism as pointed out by the literature. Technical training in police work generally deals with "first-line" issues that aid the police officer in the performance of daily duties. It appears that the non-supervisory respondents are more concerned with training that will enable them to perform their patrol oriented functions.

In regard to the supervisors, their interest in interpersonal training seems to support that they would rather enhance the human development of their officers than promote employee technical training. This finding goes contrary to the theory that management views training as solely for increasing productivity. This is especially true since interpersonal training does not directly affect productivity. The preference indicated by the supervisors may also reflect current trends in police training. Some of these trends are a result of current and past societal events around the nation.

Complaints of departments and their officers as being insensitive in regard to race, culture, and or, other societal differences have impacted training philosophies. These events have led some agencies to require interpersonal type training for their officers.

It has been somewhat demonstrated that differences in regard to general training priorities exist between the non-supervisory officers and the immediate supervisors of this study. It is also noted that significant differences between these two groups could not be examined due to the small sample size. A detailed discussion about the limitations of the study is found in chapter six. Presently, an overview of the support for specific training areas follows.

Support for Specific Training Areas

Differences between non-supervisory officers and their immediate supervisors were not limited to the general topic areas discussed. Training priority differences in regard to specific training areas were found as well. Although statistical difference could not be measured, a brief explanation of the findings is provided.

Appendix B provides an overview of the Killeen non-supervisory respondents' ranking of specific technical training areas. Appendix C provides a similar overview of the Temple non-supervisory respondents. The Killeen supervisor respondent rankings of these same areas are found in Appendix D, while Temple's respondent rankings are found in Appendix E.

In regard to the non-supervisory respondents' ranking of specific technical area training, both Killeen and Temple officers indicated somewhat similar training interests. Upon reviewing Appendices B and C it is readily noticed that the five highest ranked training areas for both groups include most of the same areas of training.

The five highest ranked technical training areas for Killeen non-supervisory respondents, in the order of selection, consist of firearms training, use of force, weapon retention, non-lethal use of force, and search of persons. The Temple respondents selected use of force, firearms training, non-lethal use of force, weapon retention, and felony vehicle stops as the five highest technical training priorities.

Killeen non-supervisory interest in firearms training as the top priority is possibly a result of the Killeen Luby's mass shooting in which numerous people were killed in October of 1991. This Tragedy culminated with police officers and the lone gunman exchanging gunfire. In the end, multiple shots had been fired and a question arose as to civilians possibly being shot by officers while the gun battle ensued. Fortunately, this was not the case; however, officers were reminded of the fact that innocent people can be injured or killed in police involved shootings.

The Temple non-supervisory respondents' interest in the use of force training is likely a result of the exposure of excessive use of force by police officers. Possibly the most widely known is the Rodney King case in Los Angeles. Excessive force cases in Dallas, Texas, may also have influenced the respondents of this study.

The lack of response and ranking of the technical training areas by the

supervisors from both agencies make it difficult to make any judgements as to their

training priorities. Because of the low N of this group, significant differences can not

be examined. Appendices D and E provide an overview of the supervisors' technical

training rankings.

Because the respondents were given the option to disregard training that they

felt was not important, many training areas were not ranked. A second explanation for

training areas not being ranked is the low number of Killeen and Temple supervisor

respondents. This situation indicates that the ranked training were a result of chance

rather than differences in priorities. Nevertheless, various ranking by the supervisors

indicates that differences do exist between the non-supervisory respondents and their

supervisors in regard to technical training.

Interpersonal Training

Appendix F illustrates the Killeen non-supervisory and supervisor respondents'

ranking of interpersonal training. Both Killeen non-supervisory and supervisor

respondents ranked worker/supervisor relations as the top interpersonal training

priority. Decision making and communication skills were ranked second and third by

the two groups. Differences in priorities are observed after the third priority ranking of

interpersonal training. It is interesting to note that Killeen non-supervisory respondents ranked examination preparation and promotion application procedures as the two least important interpersonal training areas. This runs counter to the contention that non-supervisory personnel are more interested in promotional enhancing opportunities.

Appendix G illustrates the ranking of interpersonal training by Temple non-supervisory and supervisory respondents. The non-supervisory respondents ranked communication skills training as the top interpersonal training priority. The group ranked race and culture relations, and assertiveness, as second and third priorities. The Supervisors only demonstrated three areas of importance in regard to this topic. Once again, this is attributed to the low sample size and the option of omitting any training not considered to be important.

Supervisory Training

Appendix H demonstrates the ranking of supervisory training by the Killeen non-supervisory and supervisor respondents. Both of these groups chose decision making and planning as the first supervisory training priority. Non-supervisory respondents ranked budget preparation as the least important while supervisors rated media relations last in this training area.

Killeen non-supervisory interest in decision making and planning may demonstrate a desire for clear and quick decision making from supervisors. A few of the Killeen officers commented on problems of indecisiveness of supervisors and administration on various issues. The supervisors did not comment on supervisory training; however, they may be expressing the same sentiments as the non-supervisory respondents. The supervisors may be applying this to their supervisors and administrators.

Appendix I provides an overview of the Temple non-supervisory and supervisor respondents' ranking of supervisory training. Non-supervisory respondents ranked subordinate counseling and interviewing as the first supervisory training priority. Supervisors ranked officer performance and evaluations training as the most important training area. Both of these groups ranked media relations as the least important of the training topic.

Temple non-supervisory interest in subordinate counseling and interviewing is indicative of dissatisfaction with current procedures. Some respondents commented that there were no such process. The common complaint is that mistakes attract frequent attention, but officers are rarely counseled on how to correct them. Along the same lines, officer performance evaluations are another source of dissatisfaction. The complaint is the same; officers are penalized for shortcomings, but are not counseled

as to improve. Some of the supervisors commented on continuous complaints from their officers about the unfairness of the evaluation process. A main complaint about the process is that it is too subjective; supervisor's personal attitudes toward an officer can be reflected in the evaluation.

Media relations ranked last in three out of the four groups surveyed, although the fourth group did rank media relations second to the last in order of importance. This is understandable and surprising at the same time. This position may be a result of increased exposure that officers have received through the media. Most exposure is not flattering to police officers, and a mistrust of the media may have developed.

The surprising aspect of the low-status ranking of media relations is based on the same exposure previously mentioned. Because of the increased contact with the media, it is only logical that officers would want to train in how to cultivate the relationship. This training would assist the police agencies in making allies of the media which is beneficial in numerous ways. One benefit would be that officers and departments would be seen as more open, with nothing to hide. This would help increase community support. It is now being realized that the media is not the enemy, but rather, another tool that aids in a department's effort for professionalism.

As presented, many differences in specific training area priorities exist between the non-supervisory and supervisory respondents. The findings indicate there is a need for future research in regard to police officer attitudes toward training. An overview of the study's findings, conclusions, and recommendation follows in Chapter six.

Chapter 6

Summary, Conclusions, and Overview

The purpose of this study was to examine whether differences exist between

non-supervisory police officers and their immediate supervisors. The hypothesis

developed from the literature suggested that differences would exist between the two

groups in regard to training priorities. The subhypothesis for the study indicated that

differences in training priorities of the two groups would be observed in the three

general training general training topics provided.

Summary

Survey research was utilized to attempt to test the hypothesis and the

subhypothesis of the study. The test instrument was developed utilizing a training list

of required and recommended training for Texas peace officers as provided by

TCLEOSE. Additional training areas were obtained from a 1983 Federal Bureau of

Investigation study.

The completed instrument consisted of six demographic data questions to

provide a comparison of the characteristics of the respondents of the study. The

second portion of the questionnaire contained the three main training topics; technical,

interpersonal, and supervisory training. Utilizing the TCLEOSE training list and the

FBI 1983 training list, the main topics were divided into specific training areas.

The respondents surveyed involved non-supervisory patrol officers and their immediate supervisors who were assigned to first-line patrol duties. Upon attempting to tabulate the responses and rankings it was found that the response rate size was not adequate for evaluating significant differences between the two groups. A frequency count was conducted which revealed that the training could not be statistically measured. Although this condition existed, differences were observed in both the general topic training areas and the specific training as well.

In regard to the main hypothesis of the study, some training priority differences between non-supervisory personnel and their supervisors were found to exist. The greatest differences were found in specific technical training areas. Specific interpersonal and supervisory training areas also revealed priority differences.

The study's subhypothesis in regard to the differences in the general training topic areas was tested using a final question about which topic was felt to be the most important. In examining the subhypothesis, it was found that the non-supervisory respondents were more interested in technical skills training, while the majority of the supervisors chose interpersonal skills training. The supervisory general topic received the least amount of support.

Recommendations

On face value, this study demonstrated that differences in training priorities exist between non-supervisory patrol officers and their immediate supervisors. The relatively small population utilized for the study does not allow for the quantification of the findings. Therefore, recommendations for future research is presented.

As learned from this study, future survey populations need to be of adequate size to allow for random sampling so as to statistically evaluate the data obtained. Although the initial population was small, a larger more in-depth response rate would have strengthened the study. Because of the variability of training priorities, a content analysis to compare mandated training with actual training is recommended. In-depth interviews are also recommended so as to examine supervisor and non-supervisory differences. The interviews can evaluate reasons for why differences exist. Because of the lack of expertise in the research field, only these few recommendations are made. It is recognized that there are many other methods available to examine the question at hand. Regardless of the method utilized, future research has the potential for yielding insightful information about training priorities.

Why is future research in this area important? Local governments have

severely limited financial resources at their disposal for training. Often, limited training

funds are reduced even further during times of financial crunches. Even with limited

budgets, police departments expend a large portion of their financial resources to

training. Training also suffers from personnel shortages which are common to many

law enforcement agencies. The situation of limited resources usually has a negative

impact on training. In times of shortages, training is often reduced to required training

that is mandated by TCLEOSE or the police department.

Police administrators are realizing that meeting state "minimum" training

requirements or standards is not enough. Administrators also recognize the fact that

the criminal element is utilizing updated techniques and technology to perpetrate their

crime. This trend is forcing police departments to train their officers in new and

expanding fields not previously seen in law enforcement.

Training needs have to be evaluated to enable the agency to provide the best

and most effective training possible. Although training is generally provided for the

organization's benefit, many agencies are realizing that including their employees'

individual interests in training decisions increases that benefit. Training programs can

provide a variety of functions beside increasing tangible productivity. It is now

recognized that training has gone beyond technical skills. Training is also utilized to

create a more conducive work environment and produce better individual decision

making. With enormous amounts of financial, human, and time resources expended

each year on training, future research is needed to aid in the quest for more efficient

and effective training. Part of the research should examine the impact of attitudinal

differences between non-supervisory and supervisory personnel.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Part 1. Demographic Data

Please circle the appropriate answer provided below.

1. Age:

    (A) 21-30   (B) 31-40   (C) 41-50   (D) 51 and over

2. Sex:

    (A) Male   (B) Female

3. Level of Education:

    (A) High school   (C) Bachelor's degree   (E) Master's

    (B) Some college   (D) Some graduate work (F) Doctorate

4. Position in Department:

    (A) Supervisory   (B) Non-supervisory

5. Time in Present Position (years):

    (A) 5 or less   (B) 6-10   (C) 11-15   (D) 16-20   (E) over 20

6. Time with the Department (years):

    (A) 5 or less   (B) 6-10   (C) 11-15   (D) 16-20   (E) over 20

Part II. Training

Following are three separate training sections; technical, interpersonal, and supervisory training. There are 66 specific training areas within these three sections. There is also allotted space for any additional training areas you might wish to list. Ranking is done by placing a number next to the training area (#1 being the most important, followed by #2 and so on). Consider all training areas in the three sections combined before ranking; **do not use the same number twice**. **Supervisors**, please rank the training areas according to the importance that you feel it is for your personnel to receive.

Technical Training

First Aid/CPR	___	Firearms Training	___
Interview Techniques	___	Emergency Driving	___
Computer Skills	___	Handcuff Tactics	___
Child Abuse Investigation	___	Latent Print Techniques	___
Traffic Stops	___	Hazardous Material Recognition	___
Weapon Retention	___	Use of Force	___
Arrest Procedures	___	Case Preparation	___
Drug Investigation	___	PR-24/Baton Techniques	___
Note taking/Report Writing	___	Non-lethal Use of Force	___
Crime Scene Search	___	Vehicle Patrol Skills	___
DWI Enforcement	___	Felony Stops	___
Juvenile Procedures	___	Crowd Control	___
Court Testifying	___	Search of Persons	___
Surveillance Tactics	___	Building Searches	___
Evidence Gathering	___	Probable Cause Development	___
Police Radio Operation	___	Informant Development	___
Accident Investigation	___	Hostage Negotiation	___
Search Warrant Execution	___	Prisoner/Suspect Transport	___
Tactical Response	___	Follow-up Investigation	___
Writing Affidavits for Search/Arrest Warrant	___	Traffic Safety and enforcement	___
Domestic Disturbance Investigation	___	Field Training Officer Skills Training	___

Please use the space below to add any training that was not listed above. Be sure to
rank it according to the importance you place on it.

Interpersonal Skills

Managing Office Stress	____	Public Interaction	____
Assertiveness	____	Race/Culture Sensitivity	____
Peer Relations	____	Time Management	____
Worker/Supervisor Relations	____	Decision Making	____
Communication Skills	____	Promotion Training	____
Career Interview Preparation	____	Exam Preparation	____
Handling Rejection	____	Professional Ethics	____

Please use the space below to add any training that was not listed above. Be sure to
rank it according to the importance you place on it.

Supervisory Training

Subordinate Counseling and Interviewing	____	Handling Citizen Complaints	____
Officer Complaints and Grievances	____	Decision Making and Planning	____
Officer Evaluations	____	Budget Preparation	____
Department Policies and Procedures	____	Supervisor Field Training	____
Media Relations	____	Utilization of Personnel and Equipment	____

Please use the space below to add any training that was not listed above. Be sure to rank it according to the importance you place on it.

Of the three training areas listed, please circle the one most important.

(A) Technical   (B) Interpersonal   (C) Supervisory

APPENDIX B
Technical Training

Killeen Police Department Non-supervisory Respondents	
Technical Training	Number of Officers Ranking
1. Firearms training	9
2. Use of Force	5
3. Weapon Retention	5
4. Non-lethal Use of Force	4
5. Search of Persons	3
6. Child Abuse Investigations	4
7. Vehicle Felony Stops	4
8. Building Searches	3
9. Notetaking and Reports	3
10. Domestic Disturbance	3
11. Traffic Stops	4
12. Vehicle Patrol Procedures	4
13. Arrest Procedures	4
14. Accident Investigations	3
15. Traffic Safety Enforcement	3
16. Interview Skills	4
17. Evidence Gathering	4
18. Emergency Driving	4
19. Juvenile Procedures	2
20. Handcuffing Techniques	4
21. Writing Affidavits	6
22. DWI Enforcement	4
23. Tactical Response	4
24. Probable Cause Development	2
25. Crowd Control	4
26. Follow-up Investigation	3
27. First Aid/CPR	3
28. Search Warrant execution	4
29. Case Preparation	4
30. Crime Scene Search	4
31. Drug Investigation	2
33. Surveillance Techniques	2
34. Transport of Prisoners	3
35. Tactical Response	3
36. Hazardous Material	2
37. Informant Development	4
38. Latent Print Development	4
39. PR-24 Training	3
40. Hostage Negotiation	2
41. Police Radio Operation	4

APPENDIX C
Technical Training Rankings

Temple Police Department Non-supervisory Respondents	
Technical Training	Number of Officers Ranking
1. Use of Force	6
2. Firearms Training	4
3. Non-Lethal Use of Force	3
4. Search of Persons	3
5. Vehicle Felony Stops	3
6. Vehicle Patrol Procedures	2
7. Emergency Driving	4
8. Weapon Retention	2
9. Traffic Stops	3
10. Arrest Procedures	2
11. Domestic Disturbance	3
12. Probable Cause Development	2
13. Field Training Officer Skills	3
14. Transport of Prisoners	4
15. Handcuffing Techniques	3
16. PR-24 Baton Training	3
17. Court Testifying	2
18. Interviewing Skills	3
19. Drug Investigation	4
20. Police Radio Operations	4
21. Writing Affidavits	3
22. First Aid/CPR	2
23. Latent Print Development	3
24. DWI Enforcement	2
25. Accident Investigation	3
26. Child Abuse Investigation	3
27. Building Searches	2
28. Evidence Gathering	3
29. Traffic Safety Enforcement	3
30. Follow-up Investigation	1
31. Crowd Control	3
32. Case Preparation	2
33. Crime Scene Search	3
34. Informant Development	2
35. Search Warrant Execution	3
36. Notetaking and Reports	3
37. Computer Skills	3
38. Hostage Negotiations	3
39. Juvenile Procedures	2
40. Surveillance Procedures	4
41. Tactical Response	2
42. Hazardous Material	2

APPENDIX D
Technical Training Rankings

Killeen Supervisor Respondents	
Technical Training	Number of Officers Ranking
1. Use Of Force	3
2. Weapon Retention	2
3. Building Search	2
4. Probable Cause Development	2
5. Traffic Stops	2
6. Police Radio Operations	2
7. Search of Persons	2
8. Handcuffing Techniques	2
9. Vehicle Felony Stops	2
10. Child Abuse Investigation	2
11. Juvenile Procedures	2
12. Follow-up Investigations	2
13. Writing Affidavits	2
14. Crowd Control	2

APPENDIX E
Technical Training Ranking

Temple Supervisor Respondents	
Technical Training	Number of Officers Ranking
1. Interviewing Skills	2
2. Court Testifying	2
3. Juvenile Procedures	2
4. DWI Enforcement	2
5. Follow-up Investigations	2
6. Crowd Control	2
7. Tactical Response	2
8. Informant Development	2
9. Computer Skills	2

APPENDIX F
Interpersonal Training

Killeen				
Non-Supervisory		**Supervisors**		
1. Workers/Supervisor Relations	6	1. Workers/Supervisor Relations	2
2. Decision Making and Planning	6	2. Decision Making and Planning	2
3. Communication Skills	4	3. Communication Skills	3
4. Time Management	8	4. Assertiveness	2
5. Managing Office Stress	4	5. Peer Relations	2
6. Assertiveness	3	6. *	
7. Public Interaction	3	7. *	
8. Professional/Ethical Conduct	4	8. Race/Culture Relations	2
9. Career Interview Preparation	2	9. *	
10. How to Deal with Rejection	8	10. How to Deal with Rejection	2
11. Race/Culture Sensitivity	3	11. Professional/Ethical Conduct	2
12. Examination Preparation	4	12. How to Apply for Promotions	2
13. How to Apply for Promotions	4	13. Examination Preparation	2
14. Peer Relations	3	14. *	

APPENDIX G
Interpersonal Training Rankings

Temple				
Non-Supervisory		**Supervisors**		
1. Communication Skills	4	1. *	
2. Race/Culture Sensitivity	4	2. Worker/Supervisor Relationship	2
3. Assertiveness	7	3. *	
4. Worker/Supervisor Relationship	3	4. *	
5. How to Deal with Rejection	4	5. *	
6. Public Interaction	5	6. *	
7. Career Interview Preparation	5	7. *	
8. Peer Relations	5	8. *	
9. Time Management	3	9. Public Interaction	2
10. Professional/Ethical Conduct	2	10. *	
11. Decision Making and Planning	2	11. *	
12. How to Apply for Promotions	5	12. *	
13. Examination Preparation	3	13. How to Apply for Promotions	2
14. Managing Office Stress	2	14. *	

* Training Omitted or Not Ranked

APPENDIX H
Supervisory Training Rankings

Killeen					
Non-Supervisory			Supervisory		
1.	Decision Making and Planning	7	1.	Decision Making and Planning	2
2.	Department Policies and Procedures	3	2.	Subordinate Counseling/Interviewing	2
3.	Handling Citizen Complaints	3	3.	*	
4.	Officer Performance Evaluations	4	4.	Handling Citizen Complaints	2
5.	Officer Complaint & Grievances	3	5.	*	
6.	Supervisor Field Training	3	6.	*	
7.	Subordinate Counseling/Interviewing	4	7.	*	
8.	Placement and Use of Personnel		8.	*	
	and Equipment	5	9.	Supervisor Field Training	2
9.	Media Relations	7	10.	Media Relations	4
10.	Budget Preparation	13			

APPENDIX I
Supervisory Training Ranking

Temple					
Non-Supervisory			Supervisors		
1.	Subordinate Counseling/Interviewing	8	1.	Officer Performance Evaluations	2
2.	Officer Complaint & Grievances	5	2.	*	
3.	Officer Performance Evaluations	5	3.	*	
4.	Decision Making and Planning	7	4.	Handling Citizen Complaints	2
5.	Supervisor Field Training	4	5.	*	
6.	Handling Citizen Complaints	5	6.	Supervisor Field Training	2
7.	Department Policies & Procedures	4	7.	*	
8.	Placement and Use of Personnel		8.	Placement and Use of Personnel	
	and Equipment	4		and Equipment	2
9.	Budget Preparation	7	9.	Budget Preparation	3
10.	Media Relations	9	10.	Media Relations	3

* Training Omitted or not Ranked.

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