

A STUDY OF CERTAIN CRITERIA USED FOR SELECTING
SWORN POLICE RECRUIT INSTRUCTORS IN SELECTED
CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES

Thesis for the Degree of M. S.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

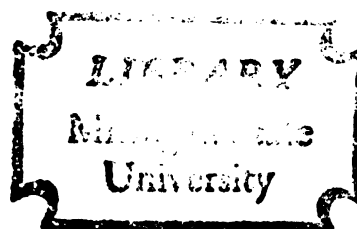
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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF CERTAIN CRITERIA USED FOR SELECTING SWORN POLICE RECRUIT INSTRUCTORS IN SELECTED CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES

By

James R. Blashill

Purpose

The full-time, sworn, police recruit instructor is the one individual in a police academy who exerts the most influence on police recruits. There is little information available, however, which relates to the criteria used in selecting these instructors.

The purpose was to determine to what degree police experience, college education, and ethnic or racial factors were considered by the directors of selected police academies during the selection process.

Methodology

The primary data was collected through the use of a questionnaire which was sent to selected police academies in the United States. A total of fifty-six cities were polled and there was a 78.6 percent return rate.

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As a descriptive survey the intention was to show the "state of the art" as it now exists and the data was manipulated in the most logical fashion in order to determine this.

Results

The prime factor in the selection process was found to be police experience. All of the academies considered this important although most also considered college equally important. A small group of "experience oriented" academies were identified and they tended to be more rigid in terms of experiential requirements.

College education was never the most important factor. However, one-third of the academies have mandated minimum levels of college for potential instructors.

Many academies also considered the race or ethnic background of potential instructors. There emerged a small group of "progressive" academies which considered this factor and had a higher percentage which required college.

Limitations

The study concentrated on a select population and only considered three factors, but it does point the way to future research in this area.

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By

James R. Blashill^{alph}

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

School of Criminal Justice

1976

Dedicated to my wife Rosemary,
who was ultimately responsible
for the completion of this work.

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To acknowledge, with thanks, the faculty of the School of Criminal Justice, Michigan State University, especially, Dr. Larry Hoover for his encouragement, and my advisor, Dr. Kenneth Christian, who readily offered his assistance. My thanks also to Dr. Robert Trojanowicz for serving on my thesis committee and to Dr. Victor Strecher, formerly of Michigan State University, who was a major influence during my graduate studies.

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But especially, my deepest thanks to Dr. Albert (Jerry) Isaac of the Michigan Department of Attorney General. He is that rare individual, a true professional. He showed me the way.

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CHAPTER I

THE RESEARCH QUESTION

Introduction

The process of preparing a person for employment most often depends upon the complexity of the work. In the recognized professions there are usually many years of academic preparation before a person is certified to perform in the field while in other less demanding positions the preparation may only include a week or two of training. Even in the recognized professions, however, the training has followed an evolutionary process. This process has generally included the following stages: the self-taught stage, apprenticeship or on-the-job training, formal agency or company training, and training by an institution of higher education.

Today, all of the recognized professions require advanced study at the university level. These include law, medicine, engineering, teaching, and pharmacy. However, several have reached the fourth stage only recently. It was possible to become a lawyer or pharmacist forty years ago after serving as an apprentice, although the most common route may have been through the university.

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Similarly, medical doctors were trained via the apprentice system until the mid-eighteenth century.

Today we see the nursing profession in a transition stage between agency (hospital) and university or college training. Many of the two and three year hospital diploma courses, which were essentially vocational, are being replaced by two and four year college programs.¹ The medical profession is demanding more than a technical background for nurses and feels they should become full-fledged members of the profession and not simply "doctor's helpers."

The training for other jobs has also undergone changes. Formerly apprenticeship has served as a primary training vehicle for such positions as embalmers and barbers. Formal training in excess of 4000 hours is now needed before one can perform these tasks.²

Overview of Recruit Training

Law enforcement training in the United States has followed this evolutionary process. Although there were attempts to keep the peace with an organized force as early as 1636 when Boston instituted a night watch, these early

¹Interview with Mrs. D. Light, Director of Nursing, Lake Superior State College, June 1976.

²National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Report on Police (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973), p. 380.

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³ A.
Gallati, *In*
Justice, 22
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⁴ I

groups were generally inept, and we cannot seriously refer to them as police officers. Volunteers were utilized, and often minor offenders were sentenced to serve on the watch.³

The issue of police training was not raised until 1829 when the British Home Secretary, Sir Robert Peel, introduced into Parliament "An Act for Improving the Police In and Near the Metropolis"--The Metropolitan Police Act. The Peelian reform consisted of twelve principles of which one dealt with the importance of training.⁴

Although some American police departments recognized the importance of the twelve principles, in practice they were slow to adopt these reforms. Consequently, there were few attempts made to train police officers. During these early years the American police were practicing the self-taught method of learning the craft. In the words of the former superintendent of the Detroit Police Department, William Rutledge: "It was the custom of men entering the ranks of the police to have placed in their hands a revolver, a club, a pair of handcuffs, and with the badge of authority pinned upon their breasts they sallied

³A. C. Germann, Frank D. Day, and Robert R. J. Gallati, Introduction to Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, 24th Printing (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1973), pp. 65-66.

⁴Ibid., pp. 60-61.

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forth to fulfill their oath of office "to enforce the law."⁵

Slowly this method evolved into the second stage, which consisted of on-the-job training. This system survives even to this day of universal academy training.

The process of sending a recruit out on patrol with a veteran was tailormade for the almost universal system of two-man patrol. Training varied in length from a few days to several months. Upon completion of the apprenticeship, the new man was assumed to be a finished product, capable of enforcing the law without immediate guidance or supervision.⁶

The third stage of police training began with the advent of the formal training school or academy. Although the New York City Police Department had established its "School for Pistol Practice" in 1895,⁷ the idea for the first formal school for police officers was put into practice by August Vollmer, the father of modern law enforcement in the United States. In 1908, Vollmer, the Marshal

⁵"Annual Report," Detroit Police Department, 1917, p. 91, in Elmer Graper, American Police Administration (Montclair, New Jersey: Patterson Smith, 1921), pp. 111-12.

⁶V. A. Leonard, Police Organization and Management (Brooklyn: The Foundation Press, 1951), p. 137.

⁷Allen Z. Gammage, Police Training in the United States (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1963), p. 7.

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of the City of Berkley, California, established an in-service school for his deputy marshals. The classes were taught by Vollmer, other police officials, and professors from the University of California.⁸ It is interesting to note that even with the long history of academics in law enforcement training, still today, the involvement of the academic community in police training is viewed with suspicion by some police officers.

A number of other police training schools were also established during this period, including Detroit, New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Cleveland, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Newark, and Louisville.⁹ These schools ranged from well-organized institutions operating on a full-time basis to the part-time "school" which actually amounted to little more than a periodic assembly of policemen to hear a lecture on some phase of police work.¹⁰

After the establishment of these schools police recruit training progressed slowly. An average of one to two departmental schools were organized annually in the years from 1909 to 1930.¹¹ Generally, these schools were

⁸Ibid., p. 6.

⁹Raymond B. Fosdick, American Police Systems (Montclair, New Jersey: Patterson Smith, 1920), p. 298.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 299.

¹¹Gammage, Police Training in United States, p. 7.

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established for the exclusive purpose of training recruits who were members of the parent organization.

In 1931, the National Commission on Law Observation and Enforcement (the Wickersham Commission) reported that only 20 percent of the 383 cities surveyed conducted formal recruit training. In the majority of cities surveyed, particularly the smaller cities, there was not even a pretext of training.¹²

For a variety of reasons, including the findings of the Wickersham Commission and the leadership of the Federal Bureau of Investigation which set standards and provided curricula and instructors for police training, the police have made progress in the past thirty years in widespread institution of formal recruit training programs. A survey of 269 law enforcement agencies by the National League of Cities, conducted in 1966, reported that 97 percent of the agencies surveyed had formal recruit training.¹³

More recent studies indicate that many states have mandated pre-service recruit training for police officers. In a 1972 study conducted by the Michigan Law Enforcement Training Council, it was found that 30 of the 39 states responding indicated mandatory recruit training. In

¹²The Police Task Force Report on the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 137.

¹³ibid., p. 138.

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addition, each state also set a minimum number of training hours which varied from 72 to 400 hours.¹⁴

Another aspect of recruit training which should be mentioned is the evolvement of regional training centers. Beginning with the concept of "zone" schools which originated in 1934 when several large municipalities began the practice of providing basic courses for smaller communities in surrounding areas,¹⁵ today we have a number of regional training centers in many states. California, Utah, Idaho, South Carolina, New Jersey, Texas, Michigan, and New York all participate in some form of regional training.¹⁶

Generally, these centers were created to provide quality training for those smaller agencies which could not maintain recruit schools. Most of these regional centers are funded by the Federal Government.

Although the regional centers are usually not connected with an existing law enforcement agency, we cannot assume that they fit the requirements of the final phase of training mentioned earlier. The educational institution requirement for the final phase would most

¹⁴Dennis W. Catlin, Law Enforcement Training in the United States (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council, 1972), pp. 6-8.

¹⁵Gammage, Police Training in United States, p. 18.

¹⁶National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice, Report on Police, p. 419.

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certainly be a degree granting school with the appropriate curricula and academic standards. The regional training centers tend to simply reproduce the standard agency program using a general approach to the subjects taught.

The police have not yet reached the stage of training in which an advanced level of education is required. The goal of a college degree for police officers is worthy and will one day be realized. However, an examination of the facts indicate that the police ranks are dominated by non-college educated officers. A recent study by Dr. Larry Hoover of Michigan State University shows that only 10 percent of the police recruits in three states have completed four or more years of college and 63 percent have a high school diploma or less than one year of college.¹⁷ Certainly this picture will change as evidenced by the proliferation of colleges and universities instituting criminal justice programs and the number of students in these programs. The primary vehicle for producing police officers is still the police academy and will remain so, especially if we consider that most police departments require all of their recruits, regardless of educational background, to complete the required training course in an academy.

¹⁷Larry T. Hoover, Police Educational Characteristics and Curricula, Monograph, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1975), p. 19.

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It is apparent that the majority of large metropolitan police departments still operate in-house police recruit training schools. Although these academies may occasionally train members of other police agencies, they are maintained primarily for the purpose of training their own recruits. The remainder of this study will focus on this or similar types of academies.

Statement of the Research Question

The police academy experience is an important phase in the career of a police officer. It is where the recruit first becomes aware of the mysteries of his craft, and it is where he should also learn, in the words of Curtis Brostron, the retired Chief of Police of St. Louis:

"Always know who you are, where you are, and what you are doing there."¹⁸ This rather profound statement sums up one of the goals which should be strived for at a police academy.

Unfortunately this goal is not always attained. As Herman Goldstein states:

Recruit training in police agencies is frequently inadequate because the instruction bears little relationship to what is expected of the officer when he goes to work in the field. In the absence of guidelines that relate to an analysis of police experience, the instructor usually is left with only the formal definition

¹⁸Victor G. Strecher, The Environment of Law Enforcement (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1971), p. 92.

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of police authority to communicate to the trainee, and this is often transmitted to the student merely by reading statutory definitions to him.¹⁹

The above is not necessarily an accurate description of the state of recruit training today. After several years of observing numerous instructors at the Criminal Justice Institute in Detroit, it became obvious to the researcher that most attempted to "breathe life" into their classes. Reality testing was the key to a successful lecture.

It is not within the scope of this study to evaluate recruit training programs or methods of teaching. It is only mentioned in order to put the goals of academy training in the proper perspective.

The Recruit Instructor

Although police academies are often staffed by a variety of instructors including sworn officers, civilians, part-time and full-time instructors, guest lecturers, and specialists, it is with the full-time, sworn police recruit instructor who teaches two or more law enforcement related subjects that this study will be concerned. He is the key to a successful recruit training program because he is the one individual who has continuous contact with

¹⁹Herman Goldstein, "Police Policy Formulation: A Proposal for Improving Police Performance," in Arthur Niederhoffer and Abraham S. Blumberg, The Ambivalent Force: Perspectives on the Police (Waltham, Massachusetts: Ginn and Co., 1970), p. 91.

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the recruit throughout the primary phase of training, and he is the first model by which the recruit will be influenced. Often his role includes counseling the recruits and otherwise providing information in a more casual atmosphere regarding the life of a police officer. Veteran officers may forget former partners with whom they have worked during their careers, but they will rarely forget their recruit training instructors.

The selection of the instructor is, therefore, of primary importance. There is little information available, however, which relates to the criteria used during the selection process for instructors. It is not known what individual traits are examined or what characteristics are considered important. Without this type of detailed knowledge it would be impossible to assess the quality of recruit instructors or to know what kind of person is being selected to staff police academies.

Overview of the Study

This study will concentrate on certain factors related to the selection process that may be used in selected cities in the United States. These cities will be subdivided by geographic region and size.

The results of the study should provide some insight as to what is considered important by the directors of the academies in the test cities, and this data may be helpful for future research efforts.

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The questionnaire format will be used to gather the needed information. As stated above, the term "instructor" will be narrowly defined, and this should eliminate much of the confusion as to the identification of the subject and it should also insure a meaningful questionnaire response. The respondent should not experience frustration in the interpretation of the instrument and should, therefore, be more inclined to supply the needed information.

Similarly, the relevant factors involved in the selection process will also be limited. Three primary factors, police experience, college education, and race or ethnic factors, were chosen. This should allow for successful management of the data.

Although the population of the study is narrow, it is hoped that there may be a general application to a larger population. Certainly there are similarities between teaching police recruits and teaching others to prepare for vocational careers and there may be similar questions as to the selection of instructors. It is hoped that this report may be of some value to all who are involved in training.

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CHAPTER II

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Survey of the Literature

The literature that was available was, for the most part, rather limited regarding the selection of recruit instructors. Many sources would mention the subject almost as an afterthought or not at all. There emerged, however, several aspects of the selection process that will be explored.

Police Experience

The experiential requirement was recognized throughout the literature as an essential attribute for the instructor. Gammage notes that three years or more experience as a peace officer is needed.¹ Other authors were more specific and included a knowledge of the subject based on experience,² and choosing an officer who has developed

¹Gammage, Police Training in United States, p. 142.

²International City Managers' Association, Municipal Police Administration, 5th ed. (Chicago: International City Managers' Association, 1961), p. 178.

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a particular capability in an area.³ R. N. Harris indicated in his book, The Police Academy: An Inside View, that the teaching personnel were of "excellent caliber with solid acumen demonstrated in the field."⁴

Many state governments, while setting minimum qualifications for instructors, have recognized the importance of practical police experience. In the preliminary study conducted in 1968, Michigan recommended five years experience for instructors in most of the subject areas.⁵ It is interesting to note, however, that the present experience qualification is less than the five year recommendation. Three years experience is required to teach in four of the subject areas while a specific period of time is not mentioned in the other fourteen subject areas.⁶

Oregon requires a minimum of three years of law enforcement experience for personnel instructing police

³K. Dean Edwards, "The Police Officer as Instructor," The Police Chief, August 1975, p. 60.

⁴R. N. Harris, The Police Academy: An Inside View (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1973), p. 13.

⁵Bern J. Kuhn, A Study of Selection and Certification Practices of Instructors Teaching in the Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council Police Training Schools (Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council, 1968), Appendix B, pp. 194-231.

⁶Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council, Policies and Procedures Manual (Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council, 1974), pp. 28-33.

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subjects.⁷ Kentucky also requires three years experience; however, they identify specific fields or subject areas.⁸

Several authors disagree with the necessity of having instructors with practical police experience. George Berkley notes that "civilians should be employed as instructors and in other capabilities in a police school, giving the school itself as much of a civilian atmosphere and setting as possible."⁹ His emphasis is on an anti-militaristic model as evidenced by the following:

Today if a police officer is to carry on his duties efficiently and intelligently, he must be a social scientist. It is necessary to get a complete man who has an understanding of his society and its people--A sense of perspective that can come only from a broad general education.¹⁰

He implies that other countries do subscribe to the civilian model: "Of the 350 teachers at the Main Police Academy in Solna, a suburb of Stockholm, some 250 are civilians."¹¹

⁷State of Oregon Board on Police Standards and Training, Policies and Procedures Manual (Board on Police Standards and Training, 1973), p. S-14.

⁸William J. Thomas and Guy A. Bays, A Study and Comparison of Certification Procedures for Police Instructors (Kentucky Law Enforcement Council, 1973), p. 7.

⁹George E. Berkley, The Democratic Policeman (Boston: Beacon Press, 1969), p. 74.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 75.

¹¹Ibid., p. 77.

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In Upgrading the American Police Saunders describes the police instructor as giving instruction that "often consists of little more than a series of unrelated talks on various aspects of police work."¹²

Niederhoffer also comments on the experience of instructors:

By the time he has had enough experience to be considered for an instructorship, police work has probably lost whatever thrill it once had, and he is ready to welcome a sojourn in the "ivory tower" where he is safe from trouble.¹³

Regardless of the motives, it is obvious that police officers with some field experience are offering their services and are in demand by training facilities. There appears to be a well recognized advantaged in having this type of recruit instructor. The ability to teach a given lesson and relate the subject to the real world is valuable.

Competence as a practitioner, however, does not necessarily mean competence as a teacher. The possession of the skills necessary to be a proficient police officer are not necessarily the same skills that will assure success as a police instructor.

¹²Charles Saunders, Upgrading the American Police (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1970), p. 128.

¹³Arthur Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1967), p. 46.

¹⁴Edwards, "Police Officer as Instructor," p. 60.

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It is not within the scope of this study to consider the process of training police officers to be instructors; however, the availability of instructor training courses was mentioned in the literature and will be discussed in the following section.

Instructor Training

In the Report on Police it is recommended that instructors complete a state-certified minimum eighty hour instructor training course.¹⁵ In a 1972 study, however, it was found that only 58 percent of the agencies that responded with information had such programs and the average length was fifty-seven hours.¹⁶ Another survey of state and municipal police officer instructors indicated that 61 percent were required to take instructional training of some kind.¹⁷

It is clear that some form of training related to teaching skills is desirable. It is also obvious from the literature that the most practical method of assuring such

¹⁵National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice, Report on Police, p. 409.

¹⁶Catlin, Law Enforcement Training in United States, p. 9.

¹⁷James Blashill and Tim Houghtaling, "A Survey to Determine the Current Qualifications of Full-time Sworn Recruit Training Instructors in Selected Training Facilities," Unpublished research paper, School of Criminal Justice, Michigan State University, 1974.

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training is to identify potential instructors, and train them rather than attempt to attract previously trained teachers within the police ranks. At the present time most police agencies do not seem to be overpopulated with teachers.

Instructor candidates should be limited to those who possess the ability to learn the desired skills. Gammage recommends a preliminary written test and an oral interview of the candidate as a screening device.¹⁸ One group of potential instructors would be the college educated officers.

College Education

Niederhoffer, in Behind the Shield, states that "the police instructor is usually an experienced superior officer with a college degree."¹⁹ Another study indicates that only 21 percent of state and municipal instructors had no college training.²⁰ Conversely, Saunders states that almost two-thirds of all police instructors have not had any post-high school education.²¹

¹⁸Gammage, Police Training in United States, p. 142.

¹⁹Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield, p. 45.

²⁰Blashill and Houghtaling, "Survey to Determine Current Qualifications of Recruit Training Instructors."

²¹Saunders, Upgrading the American Police, p. 128 (Based on an unpublished I.A.C.P. training survey of 1968).

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Report on

There are few professionals in law enforcement today who do not recognize the value of higher education for police officers. As one earlier study indicated: "The quality of police service will not significantly improve until higher educational requirements are established for its personnel."²²

The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals has also recognized the need for college training:

To insure the selection of personnel with the qualifications to perform police duties properly, every police agency should establish the following entry-level educational requirements. . . .

4. Every police agency should, no later than 1982, require as a condition of initial employment the completion of at least 4 years of education (120 semester units or a baccalaureate degree) at an accredited college or university.²³

A recent study which compared the behavioral styles of college graduate police officers and non-college-going police officers produced some interesting findings. The researchers concluded that there were advantages and disadvantages to having college educated police officers; however, the former outweighed the latter.

The disadvantages of having college educated police officers include:

²²The Police Task Force Report, p. 126.

²³National Advisory Committee on Criminal Justice, Report on Police, p. 369.

1. Suspicion, mistrust, and stereotyping of college graduates by their noncollege peers and the resultant conflict.
2. Dissatisfaction of college graduates with traditional police operations and questioning of organizational policies and procedures.
3. Career advancement is not opening as fast as some college graduates feel it should, creating problems of frustration, disenchantment, and resignation.
4. College graduates who have been trained almost exclusively in theory cannot always relate this theory to the practical requirements of the job. This problem is created largely by college curricula which are not relevant to practical police work.
5. Nonacceptance of college graduates in some police organizations can cause many interpersonal problems and strain in the department which can affect morale and the effective operation of the department.

The advantages, which the authors feel would overcome the disadvantages include:

1. Higher completion rates of basic training programs by college graduates as opposed to noncollege graduates.
2. Brighter, sensitive, and more intelligent police officers dealing with the public should serve to upgrade the image of law enforcement over a period of time.
3. Better service to the public by virtue of clearer thinking and better organized police officers.
4. More broad-minded and innovative thinking as opposed to the tradition-bound ways of performing various law enforcement tasks.
5. A better ability to work more effectively with certain segments of society, i.e., academicians and peers in the criminal justice system (social workers, judges, attorneys, etc.), which lesser

educated police officers have often not been able to deal effectively with in the past.²⁴

The authors also recommend that police departments attempt to make the transition from non-college to college educated officers as conflict-free as possible.

Certainly it is reasonable to assume that in order to teach college educated police recruits the instructor should at least possess the same academic credentials. If these trends become reality, recruit programs will become more sophisticated as the curricula respond to the college educated recruit and many of the "sacred cows" of traditional recruit training, such as "stress" training,²⁵ will be deemphasized or completely disregarded.

There was some reference to college training for police instructors in the literature. For example, David Cox has included three years of college as a minimum in his Systems Model,²⁶ and, Thomas and Bayes, in the Kentucky Study, found that a number of states recommended college

²⁴Robert C. Trojanowicz and Thomas G. Nicholson, "A Comparison of Behavioral Styles of College Graduate Police Officers v. Noncollege-Going Police Officers," The Police Chief, August 1976, pp. 56-59.

²⁵"How to Train Cops," Time, July 31, 1972, pp. 43-44.

²⁶David L. Cox, "A Systems Model for Selection of Peace Officer Instructors," The Police Chief, September 1975, p. 28.

training as a prerequisite for instructors.²⁷ Hopefully, we are beyond the once accepted concept that there is "more law in the end of a nightstick than in all the law books."²⁸

Instructor Certification

A number of states have recognized the need for control of the quality of recruit instructors and have implemented some form of instructor certification. An early study (1968) indicated that California, Illinois, New Jersey, and Ohio required instructors to be certified.²⁹ More recent information indicates that nineteen more states require certification.³⁰

As an example of the actual number of instructors certified, Oregon, for the fiscal year 1973-74, has certified 187 new instructors³¹ while Kentucky certified

²⁷Thomas and Bays, Certification Procedures for Police Instructors, Chapter III.

²⁸V. A. Leonard, Police Personnel Administration (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1970), p. 31.

²⁹Kuhn, Selection and Certification Practices of Instructors Teaching in Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Schools, Appendix H, pp. 250-51.

³⁰Thomas and Bays, Certification Procedures for Police Instructors, Chapter III.

³¹State of Oregon, Board on Police Standards and Training, Annual Report 1973-1974 (Board on Police Standards and Training, 1974), p. 10.

33 instructors during the initial round of organizational meetings.³²

Many of the qualifications for certification are similar although some states did utilize somewhat different criteria as the following excerpt from the Kentucky Study indicates:

Although most states require several years of police experience (usually 3 to 6), at least a high school education, and no criminal record, a number of states also require applicants to satisfy one or more of the following qualifications:

1. Good moral character established by background investigation (Iowa, Nebraska).
2. Oral interview conducted by certifying agency (Iowa, Nebraska).
3. Sincere interest and desire to instruct (Florida, Illinois, Texas, West Virginia).
4. Submission of a lesson plan on the subject (or subjects) to be taught (Florida, Michigan, Minnesota, Utah).
5. Satisfactory completion of an approved instructor's course, varying from 30 to 80 hours (Oklahoma, Texas, Utah, others).
6. Competence with audio visual aids (Connecticut).
7. A probationary period during which applicant's instruction is monitored (Vermont, West Virginia, recommended by Michigan).³³

There is little question that some form of quality control is necessary and the certification process appears to meet the need.

³²Thomas and Bays, Certification Procedures for Police Instructors, p. 6.

³³Ibid., pp. 27-28.

Most of the states surveyed in the Kentucky Study indicated that the certifying authority also had the power to revoke the certification.³⁴ This would be a necessary ingredient to insure that the standards of quality are maintained.

Other Aspects of the Selection Process

Throughout the literature there appeared several miscellaneous aspects of the selection process that deserve some comment. For example, it has been recommended that instructors be given a chance to demonstrate their teaching skills before qualifying.³⁵ This would amount to a practical test of one's abilities and it certainly deserves further study.

Gammage suggests that an instructor should possess a well-balanced personality in addition to knowledge and teaching ability.³⁶ He mentions four characteristics of personality:

1. Mechanical ability
2. Intellectual ability

³⁴Ibid., p. 27.

³⁵Thomas Frost, A Forward Look in Police Education (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1959), p. 21.

³⁶Gammage, Police Training in United States, p. 138.



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3. Social intelligence

4. Character

Clearly, a well-balanced personality would be almost essential. The problem would be in measurement, especially of the last characteristic.

Gammage also mentions the necessity of attracting those who are interested in teaching.³⁷ It will be an assumption of this study that only those who have a basic desire to teach should be considered. Recruits should not be exposed to the natural resentment of an instructor who is forced into the teaching role.

A Systems Model

David Cox, writing in The Police Chief, has devised a Systems Model for Selection of Peace Officer Instructors.³⁸ The Model can be found in Appendix A.

His purpose is to provide a specific set of steps to follow when selecting instructors and to avoid the usual "ad hoc" approach. The Model consists of four distinct phases of the selection process: selection, performance, evaluation, and retention.

The selection component is comprised of an interview with potential instructors in order to evaluate the

³⁷Ibid., p. 141.

³⁸Cox, "Systems Model for Selection of Peace Officer Instructors," pp. 26-28.

physical appearance, voice, delivery, and attitude toward the training of peace officers. If the instructor candidate passes the interview, he must then prepare certain instructional materials which are reviewed by staff members. If these materials are acceptable, his name is submitted for approval; and, if this occurs, he is required to complete an instructor training course.

The performance phase simply deals with the assignment of the new instructor to a class and monitoring his courses.

The evaluation component includes a critique of the instructor by his students, a review of these critiques by staff members, and an attempt to correct any deficiencies that are apparent.

The retention phase is concerned with correcting the problems which marginal instructors may have and, if this is not possible, the termination of the individual as an instructor.

The use of such a Model would assure that a standard approach is used and that candidates would be guaranteed "due process" in that they would know exactly where they stand in the system. The Model also possesses a recycle capability in that candidates may be returned to a former stage in the system if the need is apparent. This would give a second chance to some individuals with redeemable deficiencies.

It is obvious, however, that the Model would have to be modified somewhat to fit the structure of a particular state. It appears to be designed for use in a state with a Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) system.

Aside from this relative rigidity of the Model, it is suspected that the implementation of it would encounter difficulties. It is apparent that the Model demands much time and effort from the staff and this may be a source of some resistance. Staff members may not agree with the necessity of continuous attention to the potential instructor and their unwillingness to cooperate would certainly lessen the effectiveness of the Model. A modified version which reduces the input from the staff and which is structured for a particular agency or state may be more realistic.

Selection of the Subject

Selecting a subject for this study was somewhat difficult; however, the recruit training experience of the researcher was helpful. Several assumptions were made regarding the relative influence of the instructor on the recruit. The primary concern was to identify the person who would have the greatest influence on the recruit during the training phase; the full-time, sworn, police recruit instructor appears to be that person.

This would appear to be true even though there is some evidence to indicate that police recruits tend to disregard much of their academy training after graduation and an assignment to the field. McNamara alluded to this: "A cultural discontinuity existed between the police academy curriculum and the later requirements of the field assignment."³⁹

Even though some recruits may in fact consider their academy curricula as not relevant they may not feel the same about their instructors. For example, in Detroit, many newly assigned officers tend to contact their former instructors for advice on a wide range of subjects including questions relating to the performance of their duties. Often these new officers will just happen to "drop in" during lunch or some other convenient time to "shoot the breeze." In reality they most often have questions which they choose to ask their former instructors and not their peers in the field. Clearly, this indicates some trust and presumably some influence which the instructors exert. There is no reason to believe that this does not occur in other police departments.

³⁹ John H. McNamara, "Uncertainties in Police Work: The Relevance of Police Recruit's Background and Training," in David J. Bordua, ed., The Police: Six Sociological Essays (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967), p. 210. See also James F. Ahern, Police in Trouble (New York: Hawthorne Books, 1972), pp. 6-7.

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The premise, therefore, is that the recruit instructor who spends the most time with the recruit will influence him the most, at least during the training period when impressionable students are looking for guidance. As the recruit matures and learns the craft, this influence will presumably decline.

The subject for this study has been defined as a full-time, sworn, police recruit instructor who teaches two or more law enforcement related subjects. This narrow definition will eliminate certain types of instructors who specialize in only one subject such as firearms or physical training. The criteria for the selection of these types would certainly be different and the time spent with recruits would also be less than the subject of the study.

Selection of the Major Factors

Originally it was the intent of the researcher to concentrate on the following four major factors of the selection process: practical police experience, college education of potential instructors, instructor training, and instructor certification. An analysis of the literature, however, indicated that the latter two categories were considered after the instructors had been selected and were not substantially related to the selection process or to the purpose of this study. Therefore,

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instructor training and instructor certification will not be considered.

This study will focus on the experiential and educational factors and on the ethnic or racial background of potential instructors. It is felt that these areas are directly related to the process of selecting instructors and, therefore, the concentration on these factors will contribute to the goal of this study.

The experiential and educational factors were mentioned throughout the literature and there is little question that they are important. The racial or ethnic factor, although not raised in the literature, is thought to be important, at least in some academies.

There are, of course, other factors that may be considered when selecting a police recruit instructor. The factors that were chosen were done so because they appear to be common to the selection process and would be found throughout the population area or because they appear to be important and require some investigation. It is apparent that these are visible and important factors and they should be adequate for the purpose of this study.

Research Questions

This study is a descriptive survey of a selected population and the purpose is to determine what effect certain factors have on the selection process in selected

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test cities. This study should, therefore, answer the following questions:

1. To what degree is practical police field experience considered in the selection of full-time, sworn, police recruit instructors by the directors of police academies in selected cities in the United States?
2. To what degree is college education considered a factor?
3. Is the race or ethnic background of the instructor considered a factor?
4. Are there correlations between the factors and, if so, what are they?

Definition of Terms

The following is a list of terms which are important to this study and shall be used as defined unless otherwise indicated in the report.

Certification--The recognition of an instructor's qualifications by an agency charged with this responsibility. Certification may be general or may specify particular subject areas of the criminal justice field which the instructors are qualified to teach.

Instructional Methods Course--A structured course designed to teach accepted methods of teaching both skill and knowledge type subjects, public speaking, the use of audio visual aids, and other pertinent subject matter.

Local Academy--An agency-operated institution primarily maintained to train recruit police officers for the parent agency.

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Police Academy--See definition of Local Academy.

Police Instructor--A full-time, sworn, law enforcement officer who teaches two or more law enforcement related subjects at a police academy.

Sworn Officer--A person charged by a political subdivision with the duty and power to enforce laws and/or local ordinances and with the power of arrest.

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CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Manipulation of the Data

The data that was collected was manipulated in the most logical fashion in order to show if meaningful relationships exist. As a descriptive survey the purpose of the study is to show the "state of the art" as it now exists and the techniques utilized were chosen to accomplish this purpose.

The arithmetic mean ($\bar{X}$) and the standard deviation from the mean (SD) were chosen as the most logical statistical tools to be used for the interpretation of the data. These techniques were used in the report except in those instances where the sample was too small, where there was distortion of the sample due to extreme variances, or where it was otherwise considered inappropriate.

In addition, it was decided to use the above statistical tools because of the nature of the data. In most instances the researcher was interested in the frequency distribution and the central tendencies of the data, and the use of the mean and standard deviation

would clearly indicate this information. In addition, the standard deviation is considered to be a more stable measure of variability than other statistical tools.¹

Sampling Procedures

The primary data was collected through the use of a questionnaire which was sent to all of the police departments located in cities in the United States with populations over 250,000.² It was decided to limit the study to large urban police departments for the following reasons: these agencies would most likely have a police academy with large staffs and presumably more candidates for the study. Many smaller agencies depend on regional training facilities which are staffed by a variety of personnel both sworn and unsworn, and it was felt that the criteria for selection would be too diverse to measure.

In addition, this population was selected because the large cities which were surveyed represent approximately 21 percent of the entire population of the United States and, presumably, a like number of police instructors. It is also apparent that, although the police are experiencing personnel problems everywhere, it

¹Jimmy R. Amos, Foster Lloyd Brown, and Oscar G. Mink, Statistical Concepts (New York: Harper and Row, 1965), p. 47.

²Ann Golepaul, ed., 1975 Information Please Almanac, 29th ed. (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1975), pp. 650-60.

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is in the large cities that these problems are likely to have the most far-reaching effects.

There are fifty-six cities in the sample that was chosen. Table 3.1 depicts the cities in the test. Numerical size of the police departments was not specifically used. The size was gauged by the population of each city.

The test cities were broken down by certain geographic regions arbitrarily chosen in order to determine if there were regional differences in the selection process. The regional distribution of the polled cities is shown in Table 3.2. The number of cities in each geographic area range from six (Northeast and Middle Atlantic) to twelve (North Central and Mountain and Pacific). In several instances the data that was received was not usable. One city in the Northeast region only operated an in-service academy and another academy in the Mountain and Pacific region indicated that they had no full-time instructors.

Counting the agencies that did not respond with information and the two academies mentioned above, there were fourteen cities that are not included in the study. The forty-two cities which did respond include the following range: Northeast--4, Middle Atlantic--5, South--8, North Central--8, West Central--8, and Mountain and Pacific--9. It is felt that there are sufficient numbers in each category to produce meaningful results.

Table 3.1

*Akron
 *Atlanta
 Baltimore
 Birmingham
 Boston
 **Buffalo
 Chicago
 Cincinnati
 *Cleveland
 Columbus
 Dallas
 *Dayton
 Denver
 Detroit
 El Paso
 Fort Worth
 Honolulu
 *Houston
 Indianapolis
 Jacksonville
 Jersey City
 Kansas City
 Long Beach
 Los Angeles
 Louisville
 Memphis
 Miami
 *Milwaukee
 Minneapolis
 New York
 New Orleans

Table 3.1--Size and Area of Cities Polled.

City	Section ^a	Population (in 1,000's)
*Akron, Ohio	NC	290
*Atlanta, Georgia	SO	497
Baltimore, Maryland	MA	906
Birmingham, Alabama	SO	301
Boston, Massachusetts	NE	641
**Buffalo, New York	NE	463
Chicago, Illinois	NC	3,369
Cincinnati, Ohio	NC	452
*Cleveland, Ohio	NC	751
Columbus, Ohio	NC	540
Dallas, Texas	WC	844
*Dayton, Ohio	NC	262
Denver, Colorado	MP	515
Detroit, Michigan	NC	1,514
El Paso, Texas	WC	322
Fort Worth, Texas	WC	393
Honolulu, Hawaii	MP	325
*Houston, Texas	WC	1,233
Indianapolis, Indiana	NC	746
Jacksonville, Florida	SO	529
Jersey City, New Jersey	NE	276
Kansas City, Missouri	WC	507
Long Beach, California	MP	359
Los Angeles, California	MP	2,810
Louisville, Kentucky	SO	362
Memphis, Tennessee	SO	667
Miami, Florida	SO	335
*Milwaukee, Wisconsin	NC	717
Minneapolis, Minnesota	NC	434
Nashville, Tennessee	SO	448
New Orleans, Louisiana	SO	593

Table 3.1--Continued.

City	Section ^a	Population (in 1,000's)
New York, New York	NE	7,896
*Newark, New Jersey	NE	382
Norfolk, Virginia	MA	308
***Oakland, California	MP	362
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma	WC	369
Omaha, Nebraska	WC	347
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	MA	1,950
Phoenix, Arizona	MP	582
*Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	MA	520
*Portland, Oregon	MP	381
Richmond, Virginia	MA	250
Rochester, New York	NE	296
St. Louis, Missouri	WC	622
St. Paul, Minnesota	NC	310
San Antonio, Texas	WC	654
San Diego, California	MP	697
San Francisco, California	MP	716
San Jose, California	MP	446
*Seattle, Washington	MP	531
Tampa, Florida	SO	278
Toledo, Ohio	NC	384
*Tulsa, Oklahoma	WC	330
Tuscon, Arizona	MP	263
Washington, D.C.	MA	757
*Wichita, Kansas	WC	277

*Indicates no response.

**Indicates in-service academy only.

***Indicates no full-time instructors.

^aNE = Northeast, MA = Middle Atlantic, SO = South, NC = North Central, WC = West Central, MP = Mountain and Pacific.

Table 3.

Area

Northeast

Middle

South

North

Table 3.2.--Area Distribution of Polled Cities.

Area	City	Total
Northeast	Boston, Massachusetts	6
	**Buffalo, New York	
	Jersey City, New Jersey	
	*Newark, New Jersey	
	New York, New York	
	Rochester, New York	
Middle Atlantic	Baltimore, Maryland	6
	Norfolk, Virginia	
	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	
	*Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	
	Richmond, Virginia	
	Washington, D.C.	
South	*Atlanta, Georgia	9
	Birmingham, Alabama	
	Jacksonville, Florida	
	Louisville, Kentucky	
	Memphis, Tennessee	
	Miami, Florida	
	Nashville, Tennessee	
	New Orleans, Louisiana	
	Tampa, Florida	
North Central	*Akron, Ohio	12
	Chicago, Illinois	
	Cincinnati, Ohio	
	*Cleveland, Ohio	
	Columbus, Ohio	
	*Dayton, Ohio	
	Detroit, Michigan	
	Indianapolis, Indiana	
	*Milwaukee, Wisconsin	
	Minneapolis, Minnesota	
	St. Paul, Minnesota	
	Toledo, Ohio	

Table 3.2.--Continued.

Area	City	Total
West Central	Dallas, Texas	11
	El Paso, Texas	
	Fort Worth, Texas	
	*Houston, Texas	
	Kansas City, Missouri	
	Oklahoma City, Oklahoma	
	Omaha, Nebraska	
	St. Louis, Missouri	
	San Antonio, Texas	
	*Tulsa, Oklahoma	
	*Wichita, Kansas	
Mountain and Pacific	Denver, Colorado	12
	Honolulu, Hawaii	
	Long Beach, California	
	Los Angeles, California	
	***Oakland, California	
	Phoenix, Arizona	
	*Portland, Oregon	
	San Diego, California	
	San Francisco, California	
	San Jose, California	
	*Seattle, Washington	
	Tucson, Arizona	

*Indicates no response.

**Indicates in-service academy only.

***Indicates no full-time instructors.

As stated earlier, the geographic regions were chosen arbitrarily. The primary consideration in the selection of these regions was to assure that the cities were geographically related. In addition, the number of cities in each region was also a factor.

The Northeast region includes all of New England, New York and New Jersey which were added to insure an adequate number. The Middle Atlantic region includes those states on the Eastern seaboard but not considered part of the deep South. Pennsylvania and West Virginia were also considered part of this region. The states which were part of the deep South make up the Southern region. The North Central region includes all of the states in the industrial Midwest. The Great Plains states make up the West Central region including Texas. The Mountain and Pacific region includes all fifteen of the states west of Colorado although cities in California make up one-half of the population.

The test cities were also broken down by size. Table 3.3 depicts the population groupings of the polled cities.

The net result of usable data include the following population range: Over 1,000,000--five cities, 750,000 to 999,999--three cities, 500,000 to 749,999--thirteen cities, and 250,000 to 499,999--twenty-one cities. Although there are as many cities in the last category as

Table 3.

Popula

Over 1,0

750,000
999,999

500,000
749,999

Table 3.3.--Population Groupings of Polled Cities.

Population	City	Total
Over 1,000,000	Chicago, Illinois	6
	Detroit, Michigan	
	*Houston, Texas	
	Los Angeles, California	
	New York, New York	
	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	
750,000 to 999,999	Baltimore, Maryland	4
	*Cleveland, Ohio	
	Dallas, Texas	
	Washington, D.C.	
500,000 to 749,999	Boston, Massachusetts	16
	Columbus, Ohio	
	Denver, Colorado	
	Indianapolis, Indiana	
	Jacksonville, Florida	
	Kansas City, Missouri	
	Memphis, Tennessee	
	*Milwaukee, Wisconsin	
	New Orleans, Louisiana	
	Phoenix, Arizona	
	*Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	
	St. Louis, Missouri	
	San Antonio, Texas	
	San Diego, California	
	San Francisco, California	
	*Seattle, Washington	

Table 3.3.--Continued.

Population	City	Total
250,000 to 499,999	*Akron, Ohio	30
	*Atlanta, Georgia	
	Birmingham, Alabama	
	**Buffalo, New York	
	Cincinnati, Ohio	
	*Dayton, Ohio	
	El Paso, Texas	
	Fort Worth, Texas	
	Honolulu, Hawaii	
	Jersey City, New Jersey	
	Long Beach, California	
	Louisville, Kentucky	
	Miami, Florida	
	Minneapolis, Minnesota	
	Nashville, Tennessee	
	*Newark, New Jersey	
	Norfolk, Virginia	
	***Oakland, California	
	Oklahoma City, Oklahoma	
	Omaha, Nebraska	
	*Portland, Oregon	
	Richmond, Virginia	
	Rochester, New York	
	St. Paul, Minnesota	
	San Jose, California	
	Tampa, Florida	
	Toledo, Ohio	
	*Tulsa, Oklahoma	
	Tucson, Arizona	
	*Wichita, Kansas	

*Indicates no response.

**Indicates in-service academy only.

***Indicates no full-time instructors.

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in all of the others combined, some meaningful patterns may emerge.

The relative size of a police department may be a factor in the selection process; this is the reason for breaking down the population by size. It is reasonable to assume that a city such as New York or Los Angeles with millions of people may possibly use different criteria when selecting recruit instructors than a city such as Richmond, Virginia with a population of 250,000.

Methods of Gathering Data

A questionnaire was sent to the directors of each of the police academies included in the study. The questionnaire format was utilized due to the location of the population. The instrument is included in this report as Appendix B.

Of the fifty-six questionnaires sent, forty-four were returned with information. This represents a 78.6 percent return rate.

The directors were asked a series of questions regarding the criteria used when selecting police recruit instructors. The questions were generally concerned with the factors mentioned previously. A total of thirteen questions were asked and, although most follow a forced-choice format, there was room for comments throughout the questionnaire. It was recognized that not every respondent

would be able to answer each question without some qualification.

Although the instrument was three pages long, it should have been completed by the respondent in less than fifteen minutes. In addition, a self-addressed, stamped envelope and a cover letter (see Appendix C), explaining the purpose of the study, were included.

The questionnaire begins with a request for background information (name of agency, respondent, etc.) and the term "instructor" is clearly defined to include only full-time, sworn, police recruit instructors who teach two or more law enforcement related subjects. This was done in order to impress upon the respondent the need to narrow his answers to the defined subject of the study and to avoid confusion.

The first five questions deal with background data including the status of the academy (regional, local), if recruit training is mandatory in that state, the mandated length (if applicable), and the actual length of the recruit training program, the percentage of the curriculum that is not directly related to law enforcement and the number of instructors on the staff. This type of information was used to put the different academy programs into perspective.

Question six deals with the number of instructors who have volunteered their services and the methods used to recruit non-volunteers. Question seven considers the

certification of instructors by the state and question eight is concerned with the availability of instructional methods courses and the requirement to attend (if any). The ninth question deals with the experiential requirement of instructors and the next question considers the race or ethnic background of instructor candidates as a factor. Questions eleven and twelve are concerned with the formal educational achievements of potential instructors and the last section is designed to allow the respondent to make comments or suggestions regarding the study.

A pilot study was conducted by sending a questionnaire to one city in each of the regions prior to the general mailing. The results indicated that the instrument was adequate for this study.

Specific questions regarding the actual qualifications of instructors on the staff were not asked because it was felt that many respondents would not take the time to compute that type of information, and this would lead to a lower return rate or false information. More importantly, the purpose of the study is to find out what criteria is being used now to select police recruit instructors and information relating to the selection of instructors already on the staff may distort the true selection process as it is now practiced. This type of data would not be relevant to the study.

In summary, the questionnaire is believed to be non-threatening and completely adequate for the purpose of the study. The high return rate is an indication that it has served the purpose for which it was intended.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS

Before an analysis of the data and the relationship between the concepts can be attempted, it will be necessary to describe the nature of the recruit training programs that are being studied. This type of background information is important in order to put into perspective the structure of the academies and the environment in which they are operating.

Characteristics of the Test Academies

The concept of the "local" police academy was mentioned earlier as the basis for the study. It was found that a majority of the responding agencies indicated that they operated this type of training facility. This breakdown is shown by geographic area and size in Tables 4.1 and 4.2. The remaining academies were regional; however, the respondents indicated that the selection procedures were similar to the local academies and they will be considered as part of the study.

It is interesting to note that only 60 percent of the cities in the over 1,000,000 category indicated that

Table 4.1.--Local Academies by Geographic Area.

Area	Percent of Local Academies
Northeast	75
Middle Atlantic	100
South	75
North Central	50
West Central	75
Mountain & Pacific	77.7
$\bar{X} = 75.5$	

Table 4.2.--Local Academies by Size of City.

Size	Percent of Local Academies
Over 1,000,000	60
750,000 to 999,999	100
500,000 to 749,999	69.2
250,000 to 499,999	76.1
$\bar{X} = 76.3$	

they operated local academies. It was thought that the larger cities would most often operate local facilities due to their particular needs. If we consider all of the cities with populations over 750,000, however, 75 percent of these academies would be local.

There was an average of 11.4 instructors (as defined) per academy. This figure is probably somewhat misleading because several cities (New York, Chicago) had three or four times as many instructors as most other cities. In addition, one of the largest cities (Los Angeles) failed to supply this information. For these reasons, the breakdown by geographic area and size is not shown; however, the average of 11.4 does give a rough approximation of the number of full-time, sworn, police recruit instructors.

Almost all of the cities (95.1%) reported state-mandated training requirements. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 show the breakdown by geographic area and size.

The Southern and Mountain and Pacific regions were the only sections which did not indicate 100 percent mandatory training; however, the reason for this may be due to the fact that these two regions contain almost half of the states and, therefore, less likely to all have mandatory training.

It was felt that the number of hours devoted to training would also give some indication as to the nature of the academies. The mandated versus actual training

Table 4.3.--Cities with State-Mandated Training by Geographic Area.

Area	Percent with Mandated Training
Northeast	100
*Middle Atlantic	100
South	87.5
North Central	100
West Central	100
Mountain & Pacific	88.8
$\bar{X} = 96.1$	

*One city in these categories, Washington, D.C., was not counted because it does not fall under state guidelines.

Table 4.4.--Cities with State-Mandated Training by Size of City.

Size	Percent with Mandated Training
Over 1,000,000	100
*750,000 to 999,999	100
500,000 to 749,999	92.3
250,000 to 499,999	95.2
$\bar{X} = 96.9$	

*One city in these categories, Washington, D.C., was not counted because it does not fall under state guidelines.

hours for geographic area and size are shown in Tables 4.5 and 4.6. It is clear that the mandated hours are not a good indication of the actual training that occurs. There are approximately two and a half times more actual hours than mandated hours and this is true in all of the categories as evidenced by the slight standard deviation.

The range of the actual hours was rather surprising. The city with the lowest number of hours, San Jose, California, indicated 440 hours which is higher than the mandated hours in all but three states. This is an encouraging sign. The agencies involved in the study apparently recognize the need for more hours than the state minimum.

The city with the highest number of actual hours was Boston with 2080 hours. It is interesting to note that this number helped to inflate the number of hours for the Northeast region and provided it with the largest gain (2.8); however, the breakdown by size indicates that the 500,000 to 749,999 category, which Boston is part of, shows the lowest gain (2.2). One reason for this is that this category has the largest number of mandated hours (59.5 over the mean). Nevertheless, without the inclusion of Boston the gain would have been only 1.9.

The final characteristic which was explored was the approximate training time devoted to non-police related subjects. This characteristic is shown by geographic area and size in Tables 4.7 and 4.8.

Table 4.5.--Mandated and Actual Training Hours by Geographic Area.

Area	Mean Number of Mandated Hours	Mean Number of Actual Hours	Gain
Northeast	330	936	2.8
Middle Atlantic	272	654	2.4
South	297	624	2.1
North Central	295	745	2.5
West Central	333	658	1.8
Mountain & Pacific	228	673	2.6
Mean Total	292.5	715	2.4
Standard Deviation	35.7	105.5	.3

Table 4.6.--Mandated and Actual Training Hours by Size of City.

Size	Mean Number of Mandated Hours	Mean Number of Actual Hours	Gain
Over 1,000,000	296	724	2.4
750,000 to 999,999	240	643	2.7
500,000 to 749,999	345	767	2.2
250,000 to 499,999	261	651	2.5
Mean Total	285.5	696.3	2.4
Standard Deviation	39.8	51.6	.2

Table 4.7.--Percent of Training Time Devoted to Non-Police Related Subjects by Geographic Area.

Area	0-5%	10%	15%	20%	25%+
Northeast	1	1	1	0	1
Middle Atlantic	2	1	1	1	0
South	1	1	3	3	0
North Central	0	3	2	1	2
West Central	1	0	4	2	1
Mountain & Pacific	0	4	2	2	1
Total	5	10	13	9	5

Table 4.8.--Percent of Training Time Devoted to Non-Police Related Subjects by Size of City.

Size	0-5%	10%	15%	20%	25%+
Over 1,000,000	0	2	2	0	1
750,000 to 999,999	2	0	1	0	0
500,000 to 749,999	1	4	3	4	1
250,000 to 499,999	2	4	7	5	3
Total	5	10	13	9	5

The respondents were asked to give an approximate percentage of their recruit curriculum which is not directly related to the police task. The examples given in the questionnaire were sociology, speech, psychology, and human relations. The reason for this question was to identify those academies with training philosophies that were traditional (little time devoted to non-police subjects) and those that could be called progressive (25% or more of their curriculum devoted to non-police subjects).

The findings indicate a definite trend toward the middle area. In fact, the results would almost make a perfect bell curve.

Summary

The academies that make up this study can be characterized as primarily local, with minimum levels of mandatory training hours and actual hours approximately 2.4 times greater than the mandatory levels, with approximately 15 percent of the curriculum devoted to non-police related subjects, and with an average of 11.4 full-time, sworn, police recruit instructors.

The remainder of this chapter will be devoted to an analysis of certain criteria used by the directors of these academies to select their instructors.

Police Experience

As in the literature, the experiential requirement was found to be universal. All of the responding agencies considered the practical police experience of the instructor candidates during the selection process.

Minimum Years Experience

The respondents were asked whether there was a minimum number of years experience that they required. The results by geographic area and size can be found in Tables 4.9 and 4.10. The choices offered in the questionnaire were one, two, three, four, or five years or more and also if there was no minimum required.

No agency indicated a one year minimum while only 11.8 percent reported either two or four years as a minimum. The next popular choice (28.5%) was three years. This was not surprising since many states maintain this level as a minimum.

What was surprising was that the "no minimum" option was chosen by 42.8 percent of the academies. This possibly indicates that many agencies are somewhat flexible in the selection process and are willing to consider other qualifications of a potential instructor. The possible correlation between experience and other qualifications will be discussed later.

Table 4.9.--Minimum Number of Years Experience Required of Instructors by Geographic Area.

Area	2 yrs	3 yrs	4 yrs	5 yrs+	No Minimum
Northeast	0	0	1	0	4
Middle Atlantic	0	2	0	1	2
South	1	3	0	2	2
North Central	1	4	0	0	3
West Central	0	0	1	3	4
Mountain & Pacific	1	3	0	1	4
Total	3	12	2	7	18

Table 4.10.--Minimum Number of Years Experience Required of Instructors by Size of City.

Size	2 yrs	3 yrs	4 yrs	5 yrs+	No Minimum
Over 1,000,000	1	1	1	1	1
750,000 to 999,999	0	2	0	1	0
500,000 to 749,999	1	5	0	2	5
250,000 to 499,999	1	4	1	3	12
Total	3	12	2	7	18

It is felt that there are two extremes included in the experiential choices. As mentioned above, the "no minimum" choice indicates a certain amount of flexibility. Conversely, the "five years or more" choice may indicate the opposite.

Regionally, the Northeast cities were most often in favor of the "no minimum" choice (80%) while the West Central cities chose the "five years or more" choice more than the other regions. Nevertheless, only 37.5 percent of the West Central academies chose the less flexible response and, if we examine the total population, only 16.6 percent opted for the five years or more choice.

An examination by size shows that the cities under 500,000 tend to reflect the same percentage spread as the total population. In addition, the five cities in the "over 1,000,000" category were evenly divided between the five choices. Apparently there is no pattern among the largest cities regarding the minimum years of experience required.

It is apparent that most of the agencies either do not require a minimum number of years experience or require three years or less. Of the total population, 78.6 percent would fall into this category. The tendency, therefore, is away from the non-flexible approach to a minimum requirement.

Maximum Years Experience

It was felt that some academies might limit their selection of instructors to those with certain maximum levels of experience. The rationale for this may include attracting younger officers who would not be looking for an easy job off the street to finish their careers and perhaps the younger officers would be better able to relate to the recruits due to less of an age gap. It is not within the scope of this study to determine whether this rationale is correct. It is just a possibility and there could be other reasons for limiting the experience requirement.

The choices offered on the questionnaire were the maximum of ten, fifteen, and twenty years and a no maximum choice. The results by geographic area and size are shown in Tables 4.11 and 4.12.

Over 90 percent of the total population chose the "no maximum" option and this clearly indicates that the experience that an instructor candidate possesses will not automatically disqualify him for consideration by most of the academies. This does not necessarily mean that younger officers are not given preference. It simply indicates that the academies do not automatically disqualify officers with more experience.

Interestingly, all of the agencies that did indicate a maximum limit also reported that they had minimum

Table 4.11.--Maximum Number of Years Experience Required of Instructors by Geographic Area.

Area	Not Over 10 yrs	Not Over 15 yrs	Not Over 20 yrs	No Maximum
Northeast	0	1	0	3
Middle Atlantic	1	0	0	4
South	0	0	1	7
North Central	0	0	0	8
West Central	0	1	0	7
Mountain & Pacific	0	0	0	9
Total	1	2	1	38

Table 4.12.--Maximum Number of Years Experience Required of Instructors by Size of City.

Size	Not Over 10 yrs	Not Over 15 yrs	Not Over 20 yrs	No Maximum
Over 1,000,000	0	1	0	4
750,000 to 999,999	1	0	0	2
500,000 to 749,999	0	1	0	12
250,000 to 499,999	0	0	1	20
Total	1	2	1	38

requirements. New York City required a minimum of four years and a maximum of fifteen, Baltimore required a minimum of three and a maximum of ten years, Nashville required two years minimum and twenty years maximum while San Antonio limited their instructors to those with five to fifteen years experience.

There does not appear to be regional or size patterns, as the above cities are evenly divided among all of the categories. Perhaps the logical extension of placing limits on certain qualifications would be extended to other criteria within an agency or perhaps it is just coincidental. It should be remembered that these four agencies make up less than 10 percent of the total population.

Waiver of the Experiential Requirement

The relative rigidity of the experiential requirement was tested by asking the respondents in what instances, if any, would they waive these requirements. They were asked if the requirement would be waived if the candidate possessed one or more of the following: State teaching certificate, specialized training, other teaching experience, and the next category inquired whether there were any other reasons for a waiver. Space was provided on the questionnaire for this answer; however, only six agencies chose this option and all of their answers either

applied to one of the other categories or were not applicable. The final choice on the instrument was limited to those agencies which did not waive the requirement for any reason.

The results by geographic area and size are depicted in Table 4.13 and 4.14. It should be noted that the total response on these tables equals more than the total population because the academies could waive in more than one category. In addition, the tables were based on the total population because there was universal acceptance of experiential considerations even though some academies set definite limitations relating to specific years of experience while others did not.

Interestingly, sixteen agencies indicated that they did not waive the requirement. Of these, only three did not set a minimum or maximum requirement and this would tend to support the earlier findings regarding the rigidity of some agencies. In other words, there appears to be a number of "experience oriented" cities which are quite rigid regarding police experience.

Seventeen academies reported that they would waive if a candidate possessed specialized training. This category was purposely left somewhat vague so that the response was not limited to only certain types of training. The response to the specialized training option was not surprising since many training administrators recognize

Table 4.13--Waiver of Experiential Requirement for Instructors by Geographic Area.*

Area	Teach. Cert.	Special Training	Other Teach. Experience	Req. Not Waived
Northeast	1	2	2	1
**Middle Atlantic	0	0	0	2
South	0	2	1	3
North Central	1	5	1	3
West Central	1	3	1	4
Mountain & Pacific	2	5	3	3
Total	5	17	8	16

*The requirement may be waived if the candidate possesses any of the qualifications.

**Several academies did not provide this information.

Table 4.14.--Waiver of Experiential Requirement for Instructors by Size of City.*

Size	Teach. Cert.	Special Training	Other Teach. Experience	Req. Not Waived
Over 1,000,000	0	2	0	3
**750,000 to 999,999	0	1	0	1
500,000 to 749,999	1	3	2	6
**250,000 to 499,999	4	11	6	6
Total	5	17	8	16

*The requirement may be waived if the candidate possesses any of the qualifications.

**Several academies did not provide this information.

the importance of having an instructor who possesses this training in addition to general police experience.

What was surprising, however, was the response to the waiver for possession of a state teaching certificate and the other teaching experience category. Only thirteen academies reported that they would waive for these reasons and this indicates that many agencies do not place much faith in potential instructors with these teaching skills. At least they are not willing to trade off police experience for teaching credentials.

The breakdown by geographic area and size does not appear to have any special significance.

Summary

The experiential factor appears to be extremely important to the agencies in the study. In some instances the agencies tend to be more flexible (not requiring a minimum or maximum) and in others they take a more rigid stand (requiring a minimum, maximum, and no waiver). The majority of the responding academies appear to be more flexible regarding police experience except when the issue of teaching experience or teaching credentials is raised.

College education of potential instructors, the next major factor to be discussed, will also be examined to see if there is a relationship with the experience factor.

College Education

The value of a college education for potential instructors was realized by most of the responding academies. There were 92.9 percent that indicated they considered formal educational achievement beyond high school during the selection process. This data is shown by geographic area and size in Tables 4.15 and 4.16.

It is interesting to note that all of the cities with populations over 500,000 considered education as a factor while the regional breakdown indicates that only one city in each of the last three subdivisions did not consider it a factor. The difference, however, was slight in every category.

Mandatory College Requirements

A question on the questionnaire was directed toward those academies which had stated that they considered formal educational achievement beyond high school. As mentioned previously, thirty-nine of the forty-two agencies answered yes. The respondents were asked if they required certain levels of education for potential instructors and what level was required. The options were one, two, or three years of college or a bachelors degree. One other option dealt with any other training that was required; however, only five academies responded to this choice, and the answers were primarily concerned with

Table 4.15.--Cities Which Consider Formal Educational
Achievement of Instructors by Geographic Area.

Area	Percent of Cities
Northeast	100
Middle Atlantic	100
South	100
North Central	87.5
West Central	87.5
Mountain & Pacific	88.8
$\bar{X} = 94.0$	

Table 4.16.--Cities Which Consider Formal Educational
Achievement of Instructors by Size of City.

Size	Percent of Cities
Over 1,000,000	100
750,000 to 999,999	100
500,000 to 749,999	100
250,000 to 499,999	85.7
$\bar{X} = 96.4$	

continuing with a college program or some form of training that was related to a specialty. This last option was not significant and will not be considered.

The results of this question by geographic area and size are shown in Tables 4.17 and 4.18. Of the 92.9 percent who stated that college education was important, only 33.3 percent have set mandatory levels for instructor candidates. Possibly this indicates that either the commitment to college educated instructors is less than they purport or that the pool from which instructors are chosen does not contain adequate numbers of college educated officers. Regardless of the reasons, it is clear that some agencies are not demanding better educated instructor candidates.

Surprisingly, the breakdown by size shows that only one (20%) of the cities over 1,000,000 requires college from their potential instructors. It was thought that with the many colleges and universities with police science and criminal justice programs located in or near these large population centers that these cities would take the lead in this area.

The regional breakdown indicates that one-half of the cities in the Northeast area require college and this is the largest percentage. The Middle Atlantic cities have the lowest average with 20 percent. This is somewhat surprising because all of the cities in the Middle Atlantic

Table 4.17.--Cities Which Require a Minimum Level of
College Education for Instructors by
Geographic Area.

Area	1 yr	2 yrs	3 yrs	BS/BA
Northeast	0	0	0	2
Middle Atlantic	0	0	0	1
South	0	2	0	0
North Central	2	0	0	1
West Central	1	0	1	1
Mountain & Pacific	0	2	0	0
Total	3	4	1	5

Table 4.18.--Cities Which Require a Minimum Level of
College Education for Instructors by Size
of City.

Size	1 yr	2 yrs	3 yrs	BS/BA
Over 1,000,000	0	0	0	1
750,000 to 999,999	0	0	1	1
500,000 to 749,999	1	3	0	2
250,000 to 499,999	2	1	0	1
Total	3	4	1	5

region indicated that they considered college education in the selection process.

One encouraging sign is that five of the thirteen agencies requiring college have indicated that the bachelors degree is the minimum. While this is only 12 percent of all the agencies counted in this survey, it does indicate some progress.

Other College Factors

The next consideration deals with those academies which do not require a minimum college educational level for potential instructors. It was felt that although an academy did not mandate certain educational levels, they may still view college education as a positive factor in the selection process. The previous survey results, which indicated that over 90 percent of the population considered college, alludes to this; however, it was not known how much weight was attached to college education as a factor.

The population that we are dealing with are those agencies which considered college education but do not have mandatory minimum levels. This group was asked on the questionnaire if they generally accept candidates with some college education or a bachelors degree before non-college educated candidates. Of this population 75 percent answered yes to this question and this would indicate more

interest in education than the results concerning mandatory levels would indicate.

The breakdown by geographic area and size is depicted in Tables 4.19 and 4.20. As is shown, all of the largest cities indicate an interest in the potential instructor with a college background even though few of these cities have mandatory levels.

Regionally, it is clear that in every subdivision at least half of the cities show a preference for college trained instructors.

Summary

The academies seem to recognize the importance of college education for potential instructors even though only one-third have instituted mandatory minimum levels.

The issue of college education versus police experience will be considered next.

College Education and Police Experience

The last question on the test instrument was directed toward the entire population and asks which factor was considered more important in the selection process. The choices were college, experience, or whether both were equally important. These options were limited in order to determine where the priority was between these two factors.

No agency considered college education more important than experience in the selection process. This

Table 4.19.--Cities Which Accept College Educated Candidates before Non-College Candidates by Geographic Area.

Area	Percent of Cities
Northeast	50
Middle Atlantic	100
South	100
North Central	50
West Central	50
Mountain & Pacific	100
$\bar{X} = 75.0$	

Table 4.20.--Cities Which Accept College Educated Candidates before Non-College Candidates by Size of City.

Size	Percent of Cities
Over 1,000,000	100
750,000 to 999,999	100
500,000 to 749,999	71.4
250,000 to 499,999	76.9
$\bar{X} = 87.1$	

tends to support the earlier finding regarding the importance of police experience although it does not mean that education is not an important consideration. It only means that education is not the prime factor.

In fact, most of the agencies (73.8%) chose the third option which indicates that education and experience are of equal value in the selection process. The results by geographic area and size can be found in Tables 4.21 and 4.22. This finding is interesting because the respondents had two clear choices (college and experience) yet almost three-fourths decided that education was equal with experience.

The breakdown by size is somewhat interesting because only 40 percent of the largest cities considered both factors equally. All of these cities had previously indicated that they would accept college educated candidates before non-college candidates and they all consider college in the selection process. Interestingly, the one city in this group which requires a minimum level of college (bachelors degree) is New York City and they are one of the three cities which did not consider both factors equally.

Ten cities, or 23.8 percent of the total, considered experience more important than education in the selection process. An examination of these cities (Table 4.23) provides some interesting comparisons. For example, two cities (A and G) actually require a minimum

Table 4.21.--Cities Which Considered College and Experience of Instructors Equally by Geographic Area.

Area	Percent of Cities
Northeast	75
Middle Atlantic	80
South	100
North Central	62.5
West Central	75
Mountain & Pacific	62.5

 $\bar{X} = 75.8$

Table 4.22.--Cities Which Considered College and Experience of Instructors Equally by Size of City.

Size	Percent of Cities
Over 1,000,000	40
750,000 to 999,999	100
500,000 to 749,999	84.6
250,000 to 499,999	71.4

 $\bar{X} = 74.0$

Table 4.23.--Comparison of Experience-Oriented Cities with College and Experiential Factors.

City	College Considered	College Candidate Given Preference	Required Minimum or Maximum Hrs Experience	Experience Requirement Waived
***A	yes	yes	yes	no
B	yes	yes	no	**n.a.
C	yes	yes	yes	no
D	yes	no	yes	no
E	no	*n.a.	no	**n.a.
F	no	*n.a.	yes	no
***G	yes	yes	no	**n.a.
H	yes	yes	yes	yes
I	yes	yes	yes	no
J	yes	yes	yes	yes

*College education is not considered during the Selection process.

**No requirement for minimum or maximum levels of experience.

***These two cities also require minimum levels of college for potential instructors.

level of college for potential instructors in addition to the other requirements. Possibly, these academies enjoy a pool of well educated potential instructors.

Eight of the ten experience-oriented cities reported that they considered formal educational achievement and seven of the eight indicated that they accept college educated candidates before non-college candidates.

There are definite correlations between the ten cities and the experiential factors. Seventy percent have instituted a required minimum or maximum level of experience and 71.4 percent of this group will not waive these requirement levels. The rigidity of some agencies regarding the experience factor appears to be fairly constant.

Summary

It appears that experience is a well entrenched phenomenon especially in certain experience-oriented cities. College education is an important factor for 75 percent of the cities in the survey; however, it is never the most important factor.

Race or Ethnic Background

Although the issue of the race or ethnic background of instructors was not raised in the literature, it was felt that some academies may consider this during the selection process. When the establishment of minority

recruiting practices in many of the larger cities is considered, the possibility of race or ethnic background as a factor becomes more realistic.

On the questionnaire the respondents were asked whether they considered the race or ethnic background of instructor candidates in order to better relate to minority group members being trained. In addition to answering yes or no, the respondents could also indicate that the question did not apply as they did not have a significant number of minority group members being trained. Surprisingly, only one city chose this answer. The final choice was simply "other" with space provided to explain the answer. No agency chose to respond to this answer.

The response to these last two choices was interesting because it was felt that this particular question would perhaps be viewed with suspicion by some academies and it was expected that many agencies would choose one of the last two options instead of making a commitment and, in effect, admitting that such a policy exists. Perhaps this can be attributed to the process of maturation in which some public agencies seem to be involved.

Of the forty-one agencies left (excluding the one agency which chose the third option), 41.5 percent reported that they did consider the race or ethnic background of potential instructors. The results by geographic area and size are depicted in Tables 4.24 and 4.25.

Table 4.24.--Cities Which Consider Race or Ethnic Background of Instructors by Geographic Area.

Area	Percent of Cities
Northeast	40
Middle Atlantic	20
South	50
North Central	62.5
West Central	28.6
Mountain & Pacific	33.3

$\bar{X} = 39.1$

Table 4.25.--Cities Which Consider Race or Ethnic Background of Instructors by Size of City.

Size	Percent of Cities
Over 1,000,000	40
750,000 to 999,999	33.3
500,000 to 749,999	53.8
250,000 to 499,999	65

$\bar{X} = 48.0$

Of the cities in the industrial North Central region, 62.5 percent indicated that they consider this a factor. This is somewhat predictable because of the large numbers of minority group members living in these cities. What was surprising, however, was the disparity between the cities in the other regions. It is clear that no patterns have emerged.

The results by size are almost the opposite of what was expected by the researcher. The smaller cities were more inclined to consider the race or ethnic background while the larger cities were less inclined.

Race or Ethnic Background
and Other Factors

It is believed that a relationship may exist between those agencies which considered the race or ethnic background and those academies with a higher percentage of time devoted to non-police related subjects in their curricula. The rationale is that both of these types of agencies could be considered progressive because they are involved in non-traditional training methods and procedures.

An examination of the data, however, shows that the mean percentage of non-police related subjects for the entire population (14.9%) is similar to the mean percentage for cities which consider race or ethnic factors (16.6%), not a substantial increase.

When compared with cities which require a minimum level of college for potential instructors, this group registered a higher percentage than the total population. As was mentioned earlier, 33.3 percent of the total population required these minimum levels; however, 46.2 percent of the cities which consider race or ethnic background also require minimum college levels. There appears to be a small group of "progressive" academies in addition to the "experience-oriented" group mentioned previously. Numerically the latter group has more agencies (10) than the former (6) and this emphasis on experience has been seen throughout this survey.

Summary

It was found that over 40 percent of the total population considered race or ethnic factors and 97.6 percent of these academies were committed to a stand on the issue. The smaller cities were more likely to consider this factor as were the North Central and Southern cities.

In addition, there appears to be a small group of "progressive" cities which consider this factor. This group had a higher percentage which required minimum levels of college for instructor candidates than the total population.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The Research Question

The study centered around the identification of certain traits and characteristics which are considered by the directors of selected police academies in the United States during the selection of police recruit instructors. The search for this type of information was considered to be important in order to determine the extent to which these traits and characteristics are used and to lay the groundwork for future research in this area.

Methodology

As a descriptive survey the purpose of the study is to show the "state of the art" as it now exists. The data was manipulated using the arithmetic mean and the standard deviation from the mean in order to determine the frequency distribution and central tendencies of the data.

A questionnaire was utilized to collect the primary data. The instrument was sent to the directors of the police academies in all of the cities in the United States

with populations over 250,000. The questions on the questionnaire were generally concerned with the criteria being used now to select police recruit instructors and information relating to past criteria that was used was specifically omitted.

Findings and Conclusions

It is felt that some clear patterns have emerged as evidenced by the following:

1. The academies which make up this study can be characterized as primarily local, with minimum levels of mandatory training hours, with approximately 15 percent of the curriculum devoted to non-police related subjects, and with an average of 11.4 full-time, sworn, police recruit instructors.

2. The police experience of the instructor candidates appears to be extremely important to the academies in the study. It is the prime factor in the selection process although most agencies are somewhat flexible and willing to reduce the experience requirement if the candidate possesses other qualifications. The majority of the agencies are not willing to trade off police experience for teaching experience or teaching credentials.

3. The academies recognize the importance of college education for potential instructors although only one-third have mandated minimum levels of college.

4. No academy considered college education as a more important factor than experience; however, almost three-quarters considered both equally. The remaining agencies could be called "experience-oriented" academies and they tend to be more rigid in terms of experiential requirements. In the total population college education is never the most important factor.

5. Over 40 percent of the population considered the race or ethnic background of potential instructors. The smaller cities were more likely to consider this factor as were the North Central and Southern cities. There also emerged a small group of "progressive" academies which considered this factor and had a higher percentage which required minimum levels of college for instructor candidates than the total population.

Implications

It is assumed that the directors of the police academies select their instructors according to their perception of what should be emphasized in a recruit classroom. It is not unusual, therefore, that these administrators should emphasize the experiential factor. Traditionally, the universal belief in police circles was that nobody but a police officer could teach police subjects and, logically, an instructor with extensive experience was viewed as an asset regardless of other

deficiencies. It is felt that this attitude still prevails in many agencies.

Previously in the study, however, there were several references to the level of police education today and the outlook for the future. Clearly, the day is coming when the bachelors degree will be the minimum entrance requirement and this will mean a more sophisticated group of recruits who have had four years to observe teachers in higher education. This group will not be satisfied with anything less than adequate instruction in the academy classroom, and if the instructor does not possess at least the same level of education as the recruits there may be credibility problems.

It was also mentioned that police agencies will experience problems adjusting to this better educated group and one of the prime trouble spots may be at the academy level. Training administrators should, therefore, be aware of these impending changes and attempt to prepare for them.

One step that can be taken is to put more emphasis on teaching credentials, teaching experience, and college education during the selection process. In addition, a modification of the practical police experience requirement may be appropriate. This would be especially true for the "experience-oriented" academies which were identified, although all of the academies need to become more aware of these factors.

Limitations of Research

This study concentrated on three factors that were related to the process of selecting full-time, sworn, police recruit instructors. Certainly there are other factors which may be considered and these could be the subject for further research.

In addition, the survey focused on the criteria which the directors of the selected academies used for potential instructors, who are now being considered, and not on the criteria that was used previously for those instructors already on the staff. A future study could be conducted on the criteria which had been used to select present staff members.

The results of the study also indicate that more research may be necessary in order to expand on what is now known. For example, the results show that police experience is an important factor; however, it does not indicate what kind of experience (general patrol or specialized?) is preferred. Similarly, the results indicate that education is also an important factor; however, would a degree in criminal justice carry more weight than a degree in some other discipline?

In addition, the cities which were polled were all over 250,000 in population and, although there may be similarities, the situation in smaller agencies may also be a subject for study.

The final limiting factor, that will be mentioned, is related to selection of instructors based on other criteria. It is clear, to the researcher, that the criteria discussed may, in some cases, be completely ignored. In some agencies the criteria for selection may be related to particular cultural norms present in an agency, or they may be politically related. It is not unreasonable to assume that the directors of some police academies may be forced to accept certain instructors which they would not ordinarily choose. There may also be some who deliberately ignore the established criteria and select instructors for less conventional reasons.

Regardless of those possibilities, it is felt that these practices are not widespread. Most training administrators cannot afford to accept unqualified instructors given the possible consequences of this action. Perhaps this is one reason that the experiential factor is considered important. This is the traditional approach.

In general, the results of the study point out some interesting and important findings subject to the limitations mentioned. This study should be valuable to future researchers exploring this area.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

A SYSTEMS MODEL FOR SELECTION
OF PEACE OFFICER INSTRUCTORS

By David Cox

APPENDIX A

A SYSTEMS MODEL FOR SELECTION OF PEACE OFFICER INSTRUCTORS

By David Cox

1.0 Selection

1.1 Volunteer instructors may come forward and seek to instruct at the academy. Volunteers are generally drawn from the ranks of active police and sheriff's officers. In order to qualify, the individual should have a minimum of three years of college credit, or have specific individual competence in one of the required areas of instruction, and should qualify for an instructor's certificate issued by the state board.

1.2 Potential contract instructors when identified should be asked to come in for an interview with the training staff. Certain highly specialized courses must be taught by qualified professionals, such as lawyers and psychologists. These individuals may be contracted to instruct a given number of hours at a given hourly rate. The initial contract should be for no more than two training cycles in order that unsatisfactory performance can be terminated as soon as possible.

1.3 Potential instructors should then be interviewed by a staff team. The interview should primarily be to evaluate the candidate's appearance, voice, delivery, and attitude toward the training of peace officers. The candidate's individual qualifications are reviewed at this time to determine if he meets minimum qualifications for instructor certification by the state board and the academies' needs. If he is not qualified, or if difficulties in attitude or competence are identified, then he should be screened out of the system by the staff and no further action taken.

1.4 If the candidate appears to be qualified he should then be asked to develop behavioral objectives, a course outline, and an evaluation device (test) for the course or courses he wishes to teach. Reading Preparing Instructional Objectives, by Robert F. Mager, or other similar material, may assist him in developing these materials.

1.5 The instructional material prepared by the candidate must be reviewed by the staff for form and content, and the candidate interviewed and the material discussed. If the candidate's material is adequate, and if the candidate's knowledge of his material is sufficient, then he is to be presented to the approving authority for certification. If the material presented by the candidate is not in the form required, but it appears from the material and the interview that he is conversant with his material, then resubmission of the material may be necessary. The staff may assist him in redeveloping the material. If the material is clearly inadequate, and the candidate is unwilling to correct the deficiency, or is insufficiently conversant with the subject matter, he is screened out of the system.

1.6 The candidate's name is presented to the approving authority for consideration. The approving authority may accept the candidate or reject the candidate.

1.7 If the candidate is accepted by the board and is certified by the State Board on Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) System, then he is placed in the instructor pool. If the candidate is not certified by the state board or POST, then he must be screened out of the system.

1.8 The candidate attends an instructor training course and is helped to refine his instructional material and techniques.

1.9 If the candidate passes the course of instructor training, he is then placed in the instructor pool. If the candidate fails the instructor training course he is referred back to the approving authority (1.6) for action.

2.0 Performance

2.1 When the needs of the academy dictate, the candidate instructs the class for which he has prepared.

2.2 The first time the candidate instructs, and thereafter as necessary, his class should be monitored by a staff member.

3.0 Evaluation

3.1 At the end of the course of recruit training, the students are asked to evaluate the course and to include evaluations of the instructors. The students may be told they will have this opportunity on the day they report for training to allow them to keep notes on the instructors as they proceed through the course.

3.2 The staff members review the student reports and attempt to identify problems which the instructor may be having. The class monitoring report is also reviewed.

3.3 If problems are identified, then a conference with the instructor should be held. If no problems are identified, then the instructor is maintained in the instructor pool.

3.4 A conference with the instructor is held in which he is fully advised if any problems are identified.

4.0 Retention

4.1 At the staff conference, action to correct deficiencies is identified.

4.2 If the quality and completeness of the instruction material is the problem identified, the candidate is given the opportunity to work with a staff member to correct material deficiencies.

4.3 If technique or personal mannerisms are identified as the source of the difficulty, then the candidate is given an opportunity to work with a staff member to correct the difficulty.

4.4 If the difficulty is one of a lack of subject competence, or one of failure to perform as directed, or one of instructing material which is in opposition to law or good police practice, then the candidate may be referred to the approving authority for action.

4.4.1 The approving authority may determine to terminate the individual as an academy instructor or may recycle the individual to any point within the system.

4.5 The candidate's revised materials (4.2) or improved techniques (4.3) are reviewed by the staff. If the difficulty appears to have been satisfactorily corrected then the individual is replaced in the instructor pool (2.1). If the problem does not appear to the staff to have been corrected, the individual is referred to the approving authority for action (4.4).

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE ON RECRUIT
INSTRUCTORS

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE ON RECRUIT INSTRUCTORS

Instructions: Please check appropriate box or print in requested information.

Name of agency: _____

Address: _____

Name and title of respondent: _____

FOR THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY THE TERM "INSTRUCTOR" WILL BE DEFINED AS A FULL-TIME, SWORN POLICE RECRUIT INSTRUCTOR WHO TEACHES TWO OR MORE LAW ENFORCEMENT RELATED SUBJECTS. (THIS WOULD NOT INCLUDE PHYSICAL TRAINING OR FIREARMS SPECIALISTS FOR EXAMPLE)

1. Is your training facility:

- ☐ A State supported regional academy? (Recruits drawn from more than one agency)
- ☐ A regional academy but not supported by the State?
- ☐ An academy that primarily serves your agency?
- ☐ Other? (Please explain) _____

2. Is recruit training mandatory in your State?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, what is the minimum number of hours required?

3. What is the actual length of your recruit training program? _____ Hrs.

4. What percentage of your recruit curriculum is devoted to subjects that are not directly related to the police task? (Examples: Sociology, speech, psychology, human relations, etc.)

☐ 0-5% ☐ 10% ☐ 15% ☐ 20% ☐ 25% or more

5. Number of instructors (see definition above) on your staff. _____

6. Have all of your instructors volunteered their services without some recruitment effort? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If no, are the non-volunteers:

- ☐ Recruited and then asked to volunteer?
☐ Arbitrarily assigned to the training staff?

Are the non-volunteers who are asked to volunteer identified and recruited by:

- ☐ Instructors on the staff?
☐ Other staff members?
☐ Other members of the police department?
☐ Combination of above?
☐ Other? (Please explain) _____

7. Are your instructors required to be certified by a State agency charged with this responsibility?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, is the certification?

- ☐ General? ☐ Limited to specific subject areas?

Is the certification based on:

- ☐ Practical police experience?
☐ Educational achievement?
☐ Combination of above?

Is periodic recertification required? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, how long is the certification period? _____

8. Is there an instructional methods course available?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, are your instructors:

☐ Required to successfully complete the course before they are allowed to instruct?

☐ Required to successfully complete the course, however, they may instruct prior to completing it?

☐ Not required to complete the course?

☐ Required by the State to successfully complete the course?

How long is the course? _____ hours.

9. When selecting instructors, do you consider the practical police experience of the candidate?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, what is the minimum number of years experience that you require:

☐ 1 year? ☐ 2 years? ☐ 3 years? ☐ 4 years?

☐ 5 years or more? ☐ No minimum?

What is the maximum number of years experience of a candidate that you will accept:

☐ Not over 10 years? ☐ Not over 15 years?

☐ Not over 20 years? ☐ No maximum?

Do you waive the experience requirement if the candidate possesses special qualifications such as:

☐ State teaching certificate? ☐ Other teaching experience?

☐ Specialized training?

☐ Other? (Please explain)

☐ Experience requirement not waived?

10. Do you consider the race or ethnic background of the instructor candidates in order for them to better relate to minority group members being trained at your academy?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ We do not have a significant number of minority group members being trained.

☐ Other. (Please explain) _____

11. When selecting instructors, do you consider their formal educational achievement beyond high school?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, do you require as a minimum educational level:

☐ 1 year college? ☐ 2 years college?

☐ 3 years college? ☐ Bachelors degree

☐ Other training? (Please explain) _____

If there is not a required educational minimum beyond high school, do you generally accept candidates with some college education or a bachelors degree before non-college trained candidates? ☐ Yes ☐ No

12. Which factor do you consider as more important in the selection process:

☐ College? ☐ Experience? ☐ Both equally important?

13. Please use the space below to make comments, suggestions, etc. regarding the selection of police recruit instructors.

APPENDIX C

LETTER OF EXPLANATION SENT
TO POLICE ACADEMIES

LAKE SUPERIOR STATE COLLEGE

SAULT STE. MARIE, MICHIGAN 49783

Dear Sir:

I am conducting a survey of various police departments in the United States as part of my graduate program at Michigan State University. The subject of the study is the process of selecting police recruit instructors and I am requesting that you assist me by completing the enclosed questionnaire and returning it as soon as possible. It is anticipated that this survey can be completed in approximately fifteen minutes and there is a self addressed, stamped envelope provided.

I became interested in recruit training as a member of the Detroit Police Department. During my nine years with this agency I was assigned to recruit training for some time and it became apparent that there were few guidelines available for the selection of instructors. It will be the purpose of this survey to determine the existing procedures and hopefully suggest some needed guidelines.

Presently I am an instructor in the criminal justice program at Lake Superior State College, Sault Ste. Marie, Michigan.

It is hoped that you will be able to complete the survey as soon as possible. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

James R. Blashill
960 College Drive
Sault Ste. Marie, Michigan 49783

Enclosure

MICHIGAN STATE UNIV. LIBRARIES



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