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The Paramilitary Police Academy and Conflict Resolution

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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Walden University
2020

Abstract

The Paramilitary Police Academy and Conflict Resolution

by

James S. Charles

MS, Saint Leo University, 2012

BA, Saint Leo University, 2010

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Criminal Justice Studies

Walden University

September 2020

Abstract

A police officer's ability to use conflict resolution is a skill that starts with the training environment of the police academy. The ability to communicate under stress is important as it affected the relationships between communities' law enforcement agencies. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to investigate whether the paramilitary police academy training environment affected the students' ability to use verbal conflict resolution skills in place of aggressive physical control methods. This study used the crossing streams theory to capture the student perception of the basic law enforcement academy paramilitary training environment and how that environment affects the students. In the study interviews were conducted with 16 students, records reviewed, and group discussions. NVivo software was used to discover an emerging theme. The theme captured from the participants suggested that the training environment does not promote force and aggression as a control tactic during policing operations. The current study's findings illustrate that the paramilitary training environment does not promote aggressive tactics. It is recommended that practitioners in both law enforcement practice and law enforcement training facilities cooperate to provide effective training to police recruits especially with regards to issues concerning reasonable use of force. This research reflects that more research on police training culture and environments needs to be conducted to help bridge community and agency relations through communication using hard data. This implications from continued research will benefit all involved and lead to positive social change.

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to my loving wife Angela, family and friends, those who are still with us, and those who have passed on.

Acknowledgments

First, I would like to thank wife Angela for her support throughout this wearisome journey. If it were not for her several years ago, I might not have even had the courage to take the first steps in this journey; and though our children were young and didn't fully understand, I thank them too. Your love and support mean more to me than you will ever know.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The success of the law enforcement agency's efforts works in conjunction with the communities in which they service. Sir Robert Peel (1829) has suggested that there are several principles of ineffective policing. In his second principle, he suggests that law enforcement is only effective in the execution of their duties if the citizenry approves of the actions and behaviors of the police, which governs them. By maintaining this approval, the policing agency can maintain public trust. This might be true in the past, but today it would appear that the public trust in law enforcement has been greatly damaged by news media outlets and the actions of a handful of law enforcement officers. However, this mistrust is also followed by the growing need for security in the United States, where government and media outlets discuss terrorist attacks. The days of traditional policing are all but gone with the changes of growing diversity in the community.

The discussion of warrior versus guardian will often come up with elected officials and some citizenry. According to an article by officer.com (2015), the view of the guardian officer is too politically correct to the point that officers put themselves at risk rather than employ sound tactical practices when addressing a hostile public; furthermore, the warrior is too militaristic in its day to day function in dealing with citizens. Others would argue that it is the only way to combat the growing threats in a changing community, and that guardians are too reactive to get in front of a problem before it happens. According to Hill & Berger (2009), the discussion of the paramilitary police juggernaut was brought to light by the changes in security protocols where officers adopted military ideas into policing in response to new threats.

The more domestic police officers adopted the ideas and mindsets of their military counterparts. Scobell and Hammitt (1998) have suggested that there are three components that resemble the military model adopted by law enforcement agencies. A militarized police force would be much like the military when they deploy as a unit, seek training from military personnel, use sophisticated weapons, employ military tactics, wear the same uniform of military personnel, and adopt a system of rank that replicates the military structure. This will likely have an impact on how the community perceives their officers. This type of equipment outfitting also works on the minds of officers in the community. This model of training and ideology has been introduced into the basic law enforcement academies.

Background

According to Marino, Delaney, Atwater, & Smith (2015), the new training models that are being used by law enforcement agencies are mass causality rapid responses to threats. This is then coupled with the military-style tactics to end threats as quickly as possible before any further harm can be inflicted to other citizens.

Many police academies across a southern state use active police officers to teach in southern state basic law enforcement curriculum and often draw from their own experiences to teach the lessons. The lived experiences and agency training experiences of these instructors/law enforcement officers do play a part in basic recruit officer training environments. Instructors in the basic law enforcement academies are often called upon to use their own experiences from the industry and relate that experience into the topic being discussed with the recruited students. The experiences could range from

active shooter training to interview tactics that the instructor was required to take and use with their agency and compare how that has changed with modern policing tactics. The instructor may also draw from his or her own academy experience with academy issues such conduct and decorum, which for the instructor may have been a much more rigid academy standard.

The unintended consequence could be that students will not question orders, and then, when faced with a threat, they could seek to end a conflict quickly because the student thinks that is what the instructor wants to see. This mentality could carry over to an employment agency and then manifest itself with the public. If this type of training atmosphere is used in an academy, then the curriculum over a period of several months will have programmed the student to react and not to think their way through certain issues. The recruited student may then look at their role the way that they view themselves as subordinates within the academy/agency and will expect that what they say to the public in all matters is final and should be complied with without question.

In 1927, Pavlov conducted an experiment on conditioning reflexes where he initially was seeking to measure the amount of saliva a dog would generate when presented with food. This food presentation was set with a timer and a bell. The bell would ring, which provided a stimulus to the dog. Pavlov found that it was not the food that made the dog generate saliva, but it was the sound of the bell that would trigger the response. This bell was triggered over an extended period so that the dogs' body would respond to the sound stimulus even when no food was presented (Pavlov, 1927). This is a conditioned behavior learned over an extended period. This type of conditioning can be

applied to many different situations. According to Sidman (2011), Pavlov provided a foundation of understanding for what is now called negative or positive, warm or cold, and the difference between emotions and feelings. This would support the idea that if exposed to something long enough it will generate a specific response.

Every agency in a southern state is required to have their officer's complete mandatory training every four years. The southern state Department of Law Enforcement (FDLE) has stated that all full-time, part-time, and auxiliary officers must take 40 hours of coursework every 4 years (FDLE, 2017). Furthermore, if this training is not completed officer certifications were suspended until such time as that officer has completed the mandatory training under section Rule 11B-27.00212(6), a southern state Administrative Code (F.A.C.; DLE, 2017). The result of this mandatory training leaves very little time for training in other areas while meeting the enforcement needs of the communities in which they serve. This leaves very little time for specific training, and as such, many agencies will focus those efforts on mass casualty response type training or active shooter training.

New officers were subject to the training conditions and ideas of their new agencies after they left the police academy. This is a continued type of conduct that is reinforced by the agencies with their internal agency training models and is where the recruit was exposed to the culture and opinions of the people they work with in the industry. Part of the military culture is an aspect of humiliation or initiation into the group or team often referred to as hazing. According to Mason (2010), officers promoting a paramilitary form of humiliation and psychological sadomasochism encourages a sense

of over-entitlement. Officers will then seek out powerful relationships with spouses, children and the general public. This will in turn increase levels of stress, anger, cynicism, mental health and physical health issues.

Bronstein (2015) suggests that current police practices use a paramilitary construct in their training and command structure in order to maintain control of agency members. To look at the police academies, students of today conduct training in an environment that will mimic the agencies and have adopted a peer leadership command structure for recruits to follow. Many of these academies have their own uniform standards such as boots and tactical pants. After reviewing much of the aforementioned information, it is possible that current policies are steering training models towards a police state which was problematic in a constitutionally free society.

According to Bonnier (2015), officers, when they do not have the probable cause to affect an arrest to get an issue resolved, will use the threat of arrest in order to gain compliance from citizens. This type of aggressive approach does not embody the spirit of community policing. This type of aggression is meant for the rapid neutralization of a confrontation though it is not using force per day to gain control; the threat of force is implied. Community policing is where law enforcement officers work with communities to identify problems and address community concerns. According to Chappell (2007), there is a distinct difference in what police academy students are taught and what they learn in an agency field training program (FTP). Basic law enforcement academies introduce the basics of law enforcement to recruit students, and the employing agency

will instruct the recruit officer in the agency's idea of how to employ community policing for that agency and train the student in agency standards and cultural norms.

In a southern state Basic Law Enforcement Academy, there are 18 courses which total 770 hours of course training, but to highlight the training focus we will focus on two courses that are centered around conflict which are Firearms and Defensive Tactics (CJSTC). The firearms training course is 80 hours long, and the defensive tactics training course is 80 hours long. In these two courses alone, there is focus on conflict which center on firearms use and gaining compliance and self-defense for a total of 160 hours. There are no courses currently designated in the researched southern state basic recruit training academies for de-escalation training. In July of 2018, mandatory communication exercises were added to the curriculum without an increase to course length of time (Appendix C). The issue here is that not everyone will have the opportunity to practice these communications exercises and they are not required to be tracked so other than providing one example of the communication exercise who is to say that the merits of the exercise will have an impact on the students. The topic of de-escalation training is briefly touched on by instructors in different courses of the academy, but there are no required scenarios in which students can exercise discretion. There appears to be a heavy focus on conflict control and officer safety.

Statement of the Problem

Police violence against the citizen population in general has become an increasing problem (Clark, 2005). Bronstein (2015) suggests that current police practices use a paramilitary construct in their training and command structure. According to Hill &

Beger (2009), the militarization of police was amplified due to national security threats being discernable in the 1970s. The “War on Drugs” amended the 1878 Posse Comitatus Act, which clearly defined the roles of law and enforcement and military roles. The change allowed the transfer of military training and equipment to be used by federal, state and local police agencies in order to combat the drug trade taking place in the early 1980s. This type of access was made available by the 1981 Cooperation Act. These changes started to blur the line between military and police. Police were needing to compete with large scale aggressive responses that the average officer was not trained to handle or be properly equipped to handle, which began the deviation in practices and training. This construct is goal oriented without questions permitted by the subordinate ranks to their superior officers (Brostein, 2015).

This rapid response model has given rise to the idea of ending conflict quickly. One example of this type of manifestation on the public can be observed in an article by Davey & Smith (2015) on the Laquan McDonald shooting death in Chicago Illinois on October 20, 2014. A video shows Officer Jason Van Dyke responding to the location of McDonald. In-car police video shows McDonald raising his hand. Officer Van Dyke then shoots McDonald several times, and once McDonald is laying on the ground, Van Dyke shoots him again for a total of 16 times. (Davey and Smith, 2015). The issue is that Officer Van Dyke still engaged McDonald once the threat had passed. This regrettably is not an isolated incident on the national stage for law enforcement across the United States.

Marino, Delaney, Atwater, and Smith (2015) suggest there has been an ever-changing shift in police policy and practitioner theorem due to past events such as the 1999 Columbine shootings and the events of September 11, 2001. Agency training is now more focused on large scale events that are best served by a military planning model (Marino et al., 2015). The question is whether the paramilitary training environment is teaching officers to be more aggressive.

Current Approaches to Basic Law Enforcement Training

In the state of A southern state, the basic law enforcement curriculum is broken up into 18 different courses and is also restricted access. Restricted access means that only qualified persons may be entered into the academy. These standards require that the future recruit officer be 19 years of age when they complete the basic law enforcement academy and be a U. S. citizen, and not have been convicted of any felony or misdemeanor involving perjury, false statement and domestic violence. The recruit has a general equivalency diploma or a high school diploma, must have been dishonorably discharged from military service and must have successfully passed the criminal basic aptitude test (JCBAT; FLDE, 2017). Furthermore, academies may set other standards for entry such as a physical fitness test to ensure that recruited students are able to handle the physical rigors of the academy.

The standards for each block of instruction in the academy environments are designed to train the recruit students on the very basic requirements and provide the tools needed to become an officer in the state of A southern state. This training is focused on skill building, laws, and best practices. To successfully train these students in these areas

many scenario-based platforms have been introduced to the training environment where the recruit student can apply their lecture-based instruction into real world problems. However, this is not always effective when developing skills in recruiting students.

The ability of the student to process information and then apply skills is directly linked to the students' cognitive processes (Bennell, Jones, & Corey, 2007). If those processes become overloaded, then the student becomes overwhelmed and they will not be able to apply skills they are being taught. The difficulty comes when the students are trying to think their way through a technique while under stress. For example, Recruit Smith has two days of training on handcuffing a suspect in her defensive tactics course without any outside stimuli. After a few hours of training, recruit Smith is placed into a training scenario where she must apply the recently taught handcuffing technique under stressful conditions with outside stimuli. During the practical exercise recruit Smith's cognitive processes are now overwhelmed because of the addition of the outside stimulus that was absent during the training phase with handcuffing. This would suggest that recruits will shut down or overreact under stress due to cognitive overload. This doesn't just apply to physical encounters where recruit students are required to put their hands on another person. This could also apply to the verbal skills in recruit officers.

The next training platform for pedagogy used in academies is the transactional approach which focuses on the individual decision-making via experiential learning scenarios. This is suggested to be the best approach for the four high liability course being first aid, firearms, vehicle operations, and defensive tactics (Glenn, Panitch,, Barnes-Proby, Williams, Lewis, Gerwehr, et al., 2003). This approach would best prepare

the recruit students for when it is legal, lawful, and appropriate to employ certain techniques or when they are justified in using a certain degree of force, if that were in fact the focus of the training.

Drawing from experience, much of the time spent in these high liability courses are centered on the recruit student's ability to apply the technique and not on knowing when to do so. Since these courses are critical to the success or failure of the recruit, getting the students qualified will generally take precedence over learning when to employ tactics or techniques. The instructors will tell them how to be successful and not focus on the why, adding further to the "do as I say not as I do" instructional design of a paramilitary culture.

The final instructional approach is that of the transformation which is centered on common themes, skills and problems to be solved. This transformational approach involves developing the decision-making skills and applied skills of the student (Glenn et al., 2003). Typically, there is one course in the curriculum that is used as a capstone for the basic law enforcement academy. The Fundamentals of Patrol course is where students take everything that they have learned throughout the academy and apply it to scenario-based situations. The recruit student must then apply decision making skills to work their way through the presented problem. The recruited students will draw from their own experiences and training. If the training centered on control, officer presence, and officer safety, the student could end up in a use of force type of situation and not focus on de-escalation or conflict resolutions skills.

Conceptual Underpinning of the Study

The police academy is a large part of the formal education and life experience of officers. This is how basic law enforcement academy students will build the rest of their professional careers as law enforcement practitioners. The basic law enforcement academy, not only in the southern states but throughout the country, should reflect practices that the basic recruit officer will encounter when they complete their training in the academy, and carry out the unique missions from differing enforcement agencies (Glenn et al., 2003 & Johnson, 2006). Professionals must develop an aptitude for learning fast, effectively, without direction and immediately apply it to real work incidents in order to provide the best service possible to the citizen population. The paramilitary approach to teaching basic law enforcement allows for recruit officers to maintain a degree of self-discipline. This platform also opens the door for more reactive programming in stressful situations, such as responding to a stimulus in a predetermined manner every time they see a situation unfold. Many of the academy courses are lecture-based with exception of the previously mentioned high liability courses such as defensive tactics. These courses by design are meant for the basic law enforcement recruit officer to learn and apply techniques through experiential learning activities, also known as problem-based learning (PBL). PBL promotes collaboration, teamwork, aides in developing leadership skills through the work-group experiences (Glenn et al., 2003). According to Daniels, Cole, & Wertsch (2007), PBL provides an environment for adult students to not only make use of their fellow students' experiences but also to help each other as more knowledgeable peers.

Vygotsky's theory of proximal development differs from that of his peers in how individuals learn, specifically the link between learning and development which he believed were significantly intertwined (Daniels et al., 2007). Wink & Putney (2002) have said that Vygotsky's theory teaches us that after a student receives instructional support from someone with more experience in a certain area, that student will internalize the new information and is more capable of performing in the next similar situation. The military platform is not only being reinforced by the instructors, but all the fellow students within the basic law enforcement academy class, such as when an instructor yells at a student as means of corrective action. The student, being a civilian, sees this from an instructor and is more inclined to repeat this action later. This can also be reinforced by Pavlov's discovery of a physical response to a stimulus.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative, case research study is to investigate whether the paramilitary police academy training environment affects the students' ability to use verbal conflict resolution skills in place of aggressive physical control methods. According to Bonner (2015), officers will make an arrest based on the right conditions and as a matter of probable cause. According to a legal dictionary, probable cause is defined as an apparent fact discovered through logical inquiry that would lead a reasonably intelligent and prudent person to believe that an accused person has committed a crime (West's Encyclopedia of American Law, 2008). Under the working rule theory, if those conditions are not met, officers will use the threat of arrest to gain compliance (Bonner, 2015). I also sought to determine if the instructors teaching in the

academy influenced a recruit officer's ability to use discretion in training scenarios. The questions to be researched include.

RQ1: What are the key components of a paramilitary training environment, and which of those components promote aggression as a means of control within a police academy?

RQ2: Does the paramilitary training environment foster aggression in police academy students in order to control situations?

RQ3: Do the lived experiences of the instructional staff in the police academy diminish the academy students' ability to use non-physical conflict resolution skills?

RQ4: How much time is dedicated to de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics?

Research Design and Method

Qualitative Inquiry

This study used a qualitative approach which means that the researcher is directly involved in gathering the data in the field (Creswell, 2009). This allows the researcher to observe more of the reasons why things happen to answer questions being researched. This study used selective sampling data collected from surveys at the end of a police academy. These academies were approximately 6 to 9 months in length. However, data were also collected from basic recruit students who have conflict resolution or defiance issues via conduct observation reports throughout the basic police academy program. This information was collected via records review and interviews with the staff. There were approximately 16 participants. None of the participants had law enforcement experience, with the exception of the law enforcement academy staff.

Case Study Approach

A case study approach was employed for this study. The multiple stream framework explained by Sabatier and Weible (2014) identifies different streams that work independently of each other but will often cross paths when an issue arises. A stream is identified as an independent function from other streams. For example, the road department office has data which indicates that a well-known intersection is having a lot of traffic accidents (stream one). City Council wants the accidents reduced and notifies law enforcement to step up traffic enforcement efforts in the area of the troublesome intersection (stream two). Law enforcement responds to the intersection and begins traffic enforcement to reduce accidents (stream three). Even if the issue is never solved, the crossing of these streams brought an issue to light. I use this framework to understand if there is a problem with law enforcement academy students' communication and aggression within the training environment. This framework addressed significant factors in the criminal justice system notably that of law enforcement agencies and will seek to identify trends, training practices, cultural norms, and political obstacles that have contributed to the diminished capacity by law enforcement academy students to address issues without conflict. Hence, the research identified the contributing factors of each individual stream and how that stream contributes to the research problem (Sabatier and Weible, 2014).

Sampling

I used the recommendations of the basic law enforcement academy staff and director at State College with the following guidelines. Most academies run anywhere

from 6 to 9 months long depending on the time of year and schedule. The participants had no prior law enforcement experience. The participants were of varying demographics. Several of the participants were from different academies, and participants were within 3 months of completion of the academy or had completed the academy and had not yet been hired by an agency. Merriam (1998) has stated that a purposeful sampling assumes that the researcher wants to discover, understand, and gain some sort of insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be obtained. The request was to have 10 to 14 participants, two of which were instructors.

Data Collection

To answer the question regarding the effect of the paramilitary police academy on basic law enforcement academies students' ability to communicate in stressful situations, there were four means of data collection. Conducting interviews with students who are in or have recently finished the academy, records review was completed on each of the participants, a group discussion with instructors/staff, and observations of students engaged in the curriculum. Yin (2003) has stated that several sources of information can strengthen research findings. This provided a sound platform from which the information gathered can be entered into an NVIVO software and capture the perception of the students' view of their police academy experience based on the participant's information. The interview protocols (Appendix A & B) were used to prompt responses from basic law enforcement academy students and instructors. The protocols are the same regardless of the participant being an instructor or a student. The instructors who were interviewed were not the same instructors who picked/recommended the students to participate in this

research. This was to protect against the possible input of instructor bias through participant selection/recommendation.

The interviews that were conducted with each student and instructor allowed each participant to speak in their own words regarding the research questions. Once this information was collected, I placed the information inside an NVIVO software program to identify common terms and phrasing which identify a theme on how students or instructors feel in regard to the basic law enforcement academy. During the group discussion common phrases and responses from the group were captured and used in the data analysis with NVIVO software as well.

The documents review of the participants was used to identify students' disciplinary records while in the academy. This was to ensure that there were no participants with a preconceived bias against the academy training facility of its instructional staff for disciplinary referrals. In the event that there were conduct issues identified in the file, that candidate was no longer considered for the research. Gall et al. (2003) has said that archival documents can be useful when other data has been interpreted, and for this reason the documents regarding each of the participants were analyzed for their potential insight into patterns/trends which were obtained from the interviews and group discussion.

During the observation phase, I looked for paramilitary traditions and parallels such as but not limited to uniform wear and appearance, use of rank structure within the class, regular formations, saluting, and common military terms. This also allowed me to view how relationships between instructors and students are applied during training and

when they are not in a training. This offered a great deal of insight to the paramilitary training culture/platform of the basic law enforcement academy.

Database Management and Data Analysis

The data that were collected was secured in my private office. Once the data were collected, they were kept on an electronic file and used to capture an emerging theme once the NVIVO software data report was completed. The data collected were electronically recorded creating a higher degree of accuracy in the data and made the data easier for review. I reviewed all the data repeatedly to ensure accuracy of findings and that the outcome sought to capture the discovery of an emerging theme (Gall et al., 2003).

Significance and Need for the Study

The main point of the basic law enforcement academy is to introduce the student to the basic functions, ideas, and practices of police work. This is dependent on several variables, which include the training platform such as military basic training, repetition of training techniques such as “do as say not as I do,” and what students see from those they are learning from and are what they are instructed to do. These variables mold the future officer and affect their ability to recall the knowledge and skills they are taught. Almost all police academies use a traditional lecture and recall method for delivering and retaining training of basic recruit officers. The conclusions of this study may provide information needed to determine if the current training platforms are affecting basic recruit officer’s ability to use commutation tools over threat or physical control methods to gain compliance during stressful situations. This training can be changed if needed and

promotes more communication exercises within the basic law enforcement academy environment.

Positive Social Change

This study could fill several gaps in research concerning the areas of law enforcement training. Law enforcement practitioners are required to communicate effectively within the community that they serve. This research looked at this most important function at its most basic level to see if this critical function has changed. Should communication be part of basic recruit training issues, then this can be changed in the training curriculum. Having community trust is an essential function in law enforcement agency practices, but recently many communities do not trust these public servants. This research can help bring that trust back through effective communication and have a positive social change. The extended value of this study reaches beyond the fields of police training and education. Formalized police training is still a new practice, only being developed in the 1960s (Charles, 2000; Edwards, 1993; Flink, 2000). Since the beginning of formal police training, there have been multiple changes in training theory with some training theorems leaning to more progressive ideas and others leaning to new ideas that lead to making better police officers (Glenn et al., 2003). This study will provide more knowledge into the basic police academy and how that training environment impacts future officers and their responses to the community in which they serve.

Limitations

This study's limitations include time and place and are subject to the fact the academies are constantly changing to meet the needs of agencies that would hire them. It is a qualitative case study that captured the perceptions and experiences of the recruit officers as they near the end of their training and nearly after finishing their training in a southern state Basic Law Enforcement Academy (Criminal Justice Training and Standards Commission) who oversees the training of students during a specific period of time in locations such as State College. The case study method allowed me to retain meaningful information of real life or in this case training events that take place in the basic law enforcement academy (Yin, 2003). Because of the focus being applied in this case study, a fuller and descriptive picture of the phenomenon can be reached. The description can be presented from my ability to gather the many small details of the training environment in this case study. By design, case studies are holistic, grounded, and exploratory. which works well for this research (Merriam, 1998).

The students from this study may differ from other case studies, simply because of the individual training approach that each basic law enforcement academy offers, meaning that some training locations are much more demanding of command and control than others. Other factors included agency run training academies which are under the direction of a law enforcement academy where many of the law enforcement training facilities in the state fall under the control of the state college system whose students' practices might be in line with its industry partners. The individuals in this case study

were varied in their life experiences, ethnicity, financial and educational backgrounds, and experiences with the law enforcement industry.

Inside this case study, data were collected from interviews, observations, and documents, each with their own set of limitations. The participants introduced personal observations due to either the researcher or their own frame of reference (Creswell, 2003). Articulation issues with some of the participants occurred, meaning language bearers with limited ability to provide more accurate information made it difficult to understand their responses. There were possible limitations to internal validity of the study due to my biases, hence I distanced myself as much as possible and ensured objectivity by making the responses anonymous. The limits of analyzing the documents of this study were a possible bias in selection of files that were offered up for review, a lack of review regarding the documents and there may have been a bias of the authors' perceptions on the documents.

Definitions, Key Terms, and Abbreviations

For the purposes of this study I assumed the following definitions:

Basic Law Enforcement Academy is a term commonly used in the Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission (CJSTC) to identify the type of program under the CJSTC supervision for which a person may be in an attempt to meet the southern state industry certification for Law Enforcement (FDLE, 2017).

Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission (CJSTC) is the name of the governing body in a southern state Department of Law Enforcement that oversees all

training standards and certifications for a southern state Law Enforcement Officers, Corrections Officers, and Probation Officers in the state (FDLE, 2017).

Problem Based Learning (PBL) is a teaching method in which learning is the result of working toward the understanding of resolving an issue/problem. When the problem is first encountered, the learning process is used to focus or even used as a stimulus in the application of problem solving or the use of reasoning skills. The problem is not presented as an example of the importance of prior learning or used for applying information already known. A problem in this circumstance refers to an unsettled, puzzling, unresolved issue that needs to be resolved (Barrows & Tamblyn, 1980).

Teaching Method refers to pedagogy, which includes the principles and processes of the instruction that impart knowledge or skill.

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) refers to “The distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through the process of problem solving under adult guidance or collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p.86).

Recruit Officer is a term loosely used in the law enforcement industry to identify those officers who are new hires and not off their probation periods yet. The distinct difference between Recruit Officer and Recruit Student is that the recruit student is still in training while the recruit officer has completed the basic law enforcement academy training and is actively working as an industry practitioner for a law enforcement agency. This information is drawn from the researchers’ experience as a Law Enforcement Field Training Officer with several years of experience.

Recruit Student and *Student* are terms used interchangeably to identify the target population of participants in the research study. This information is drawn from my experience as a program manager in basic Law Enforcement Academy programs with several years of experience.

Chapter Summary

This chapter included background information for this study, the problem statement, conceptual underpinning, purpose of this study, research design, methodology, the need for the study, limitations, and several key terms.

Chapter 2 will review related literature which is broken down into several sections. The first section will start with a chapter overview and open with the use of streams to capture the student perception of the basic law enforcement paramilitary training environment. The second section will discuss the current curriculum used in a southern state Basic Law Enforcement Academy. The third section will discuss the military training model and expound on the law enforcement parallels. The fourth section will discuss the militarization of police and clearly define militarization in section five. Section six will discuss Police Agency Training Culture. Section six will also discuss the current breakdown in communication within the community and the law enforcement agencies that serve them. Section seven will discuss the changes in policy that has aided in the militarization of local policing agencies using homeland security funding. The final section will discuss the basic law enforcement training used in current academies.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter Overview

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to investigate whether the paramilitary police academy training environment affects the students' ability to use verbal conflict resolution skills in place of aggressive physical control methods. This study used the crossing streams theory by Sabatier and Weible (2014) to capture the student perception of the basic law enforcement academy paramilitary training environment and how that environment affects the students' ability to communicate in stressful training situations. I investigate whether the basic law enforcement academy training environment contributes to the students' ability to use discretion in training scenarios and encourage more aggressive responses to control a training scenario.

Theoretical Foundation

The crossing streams theoretical design was used to capture basic law enforcement academy data by observing different streams of data and how they connect to create an emergent theme. Sabatier and Weible (2014) identify different streams that work independently of each other but will often cross paths when an issue arises. A stream is identified as an independent function from other streams such law enforcement functions, road department functions and city council functions, which all operate independent of each other but will come together to solve an issue combining the multiple streams. Even if the issue is never solved, the crossing of these streams brought an issue to light. Using this framework, I seek to understand the problem of law enforcement academy students' aggression within the training environment. This

framework addressed significant factors in the criminal justice system notably that of law enforcement training and will seek to identify trends, training practices, cultural norms, and political obstacles that have contributed to the diminished capacity by law enforcement academy students to address issues without conflict. Hence the research identified the contributing factors of each individual stream and how that stream contributes to the research problem (Sabatier and Weible, 2014).

Key terms were entered into the Walden University Library online search engine to assist in the literature review. The same approach to the theoretical design was used in the gathering of literature to be reviewed. In order to better understand the topic of training in law enforcement, I looked at the influencing factors that sculpt the training curriculum a basic academy student will receive. The first stream of review is a training stream where I looked at curriculum and how much time was dedicated to a particular subject in the past and how that training has increased in some topics or has shifted over the years to the current date. The next stream of review was that of the training stream which reviewed the environment and how many of the practices used today were adopted from older military basic training practices. The next stream was the cultural stream which reviewed police, military culture and training. The next stream for review involved that of the communication stream where I reviewed information regarding barriers and breakdowns in communication.

This chapter was a comprehensive review of the past and current training trends in a southern state basic law enforcement academy and describes how current training does not address the recruit students' ability to practice communication in stressful

situations. This chapter will continue to look at the training environment and its effect on recruit students. Furthermore, this chapter will discuss how law enforcement administrators often promote high self-generated arrests numbers in their place of officers exercising discretion to reflect activity in areas that provide federal funding to support enforcement efforts. This chapter will also discuss the influence of police culture and how poor administrative leadership can lead to bad influences on recruit officers entering the law enforcement field. This chapter will also discuss how one academy overseas is implementing training that requires recruit officers to verbally engage with the public on calls that would require services beyond that of the need to make arrests. This next section will discuss the influence that instructors have on students while in training and how these affect the recruit officers' perceptions of what is acceptable and what is not and how recruits will assimilate into the agency culture.

This chapter will discuss the change in training trends as a result of the Columbine High Shooting and how officer training had shifted from reactive to proactive or threat elimination and how this change in training has continued to shift away from communicating with the public as a result of continuous changes in societal threats such as the events of September 11th 2001, the 2016 Pulse Nightclub attack, and the Dallas Texas Police Black Lives Matter Protest in 2016.

Southern State Curriculum for Police Academy Training

For the purposes of this section and the research of each curriculum change will focus on the number of hours of curriculum, the introduction of communications courses and the high liability courses of firearms and defensive tactics as means for comparison

and focus of training for new officers. The effective training of police officers in a southern state has been one of transformation where in the early and mid-1960s, officers obtained training via on the job training with experienced officer compared to the now required 770 hours of basic recruit training required by the Criminal Justice Standards & Training Commission (CJSTC) and a southern state Department of Law Enforcement (FDLE). It was not until June 9, 1968 that the first curriculum was introduced by the CJSTC with a 200-hour requirement (FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018).

Upon closer review of the first curriculum for a southern state law enforcement academy, there was clearly a difference in what was considered important. For example, the topic of criminal investigations had the most required hours of training with 54 hours when compared to today's current curriculum for the same course which is now only 50 hours (FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018; *see Appendix C*). There is also another point of interest when comparing the curriculum in the high liability courses where today firearms and defensive tactics are both 80-hour courses. It is clear that, compared to the 1968 curriculum, the focus was not in these areas, since the firearms course only required 26 hours and defensive tactics only required 16 hours. These two courses today make up 0.233% of the curriculum, almost one quarter. In the 1968 curriculum, there is no mention of a communications course to develop community relations. This first training curriculum stayed in place until 1971 (FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018).

Between 1971 and 1974, the curriculum went through its first curriculum update. The academy hours increased from 200 hours to 280 hours. Most notable was the addition of the Police and Community Relations Course, which was an 18 hour block of

instruction; however there were other notable changes made to the curriculum such as the criminal investigations course increasing from 54 hour to 82, firearms increasing from 26 hours to 36, and defensive tactics increasing from 14 hours to 16 (*See Appendix C*; FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018).

Curriculum then changed again on July 1, 1974, and would not change again until 1988 (FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018). Notable changes are where they took the proficiency-based courses first aid, firearms, and defensive tactics and placed them under one course called proficiency skills for a total number of hours equaling 81, a 19 hour increase from the previous curriculum. Criminal investigation hours were reduced to 70, but the overall hours for the curriculum increased to 320 hours for the academy and did not change for several years following. There was also a change in the police and community relations course where the name of the course changed to human skill which increased the hours from 18 in the old curriculum to 24 hours in the new curriculum. So, what this is reflective of to this point is the communications with the public was not a priority in the training that new officers were receiving. The amount of time spent in criminal investigations and proficiency skills were the clear focus of training. The time spent in these two sections alone would make up .471 % of the total curriculum (FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018). It would appear firearms, defensive tactics and criminal investigations were the priority in training.

It is important to note that the criminal investigations course also focused on interviews and interrogation techniques. Could this be where the “us versus them” mindset of law enforcement started to take shape? In 1988, there was a suggestion that

curriculum changes as indicated above however there is nothing to support this break in curriculum as the next reflected change does not take place until 1991 (FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018). The changes that took effect in 1991, when the most notable of the curriculum changes involved increasing academy hours to 520. The most notable changes besides the titles of several courses was the absence of firearms and defensive tactics. It would appear these courses would fall under the new umbrella of weapons, which was a 56-hour block of instruction, and a notable increase in first aid/medical course with an increase of hours to 42. The community relations course was replaced with a communications course that was now a 41-hour block of instruction, and the addition of the interpersonal skills course was created and added to the curriculum with 25 hours of time dedicated to instruction.

This reflects a clear shift in training pedagogy. The focus according to this curriculum implies that communication and caregiving is now the priority in training (*See Appendix C*; DLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018). Please note that the effective date is not the accurate effective date for the change in curriculum. The effective date reflects the through dates until 1988; this is a recording error (FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018).

With this change in curriculum in 1991, one must consider what was taking place in the law enforcement community that would bring about such a drastic change in curriculum. One event that comes to mind is the events of the L.A. Police department beating of Rodney King on March 3, 1991 and the following riots. Not only did this event bring about the first instance of officers being recorded doing wrong, it reflected a judicial bias to treat people in lower income areas poorly.

In 1993, the curriculum again changed, though the basic law enforcement academy hours remained the same at 520 hours. A new course called defensive tactics was added with a focus on personal defense and apprehension of suspects. The new defensive tactics course was given 66 hours of training, the weapons course remained at 56 hours, and the interpersonal skills course increased from 25 hours to 31 (*See Appendix C*; FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018). One notable event that took place on February 26, 1993 was the first attempted attack by al Qaeda on the World Trade Center (FBI, 2008). There is no way to be sure that this is linked to the change in basic law enforcement curriculum, but it was a notable event in the criminal justice history of the United States. The next change in curriculum did not take place until November 1, 1998, when the basic law enforcement academy increased from 520 total hours to 672 hours (FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018). The defensive tactics course increased from 66 hours to 106 hours, the weapons course increased from 56 to 64 hours, and the interpersonal communications course increased from 31 to 66 hours. In 1997, the North Hollywood Bank of America Shootout with LAPD took place, leaving 11 police officers wounded and two suspects dead (Coffin, 2007; Smith & Mather, 2017). The review of this case identified several training and equipment needs for law enforcement, which could have led to the increase of curriculum training for the basic law enforcement academies.

Despite other events, such as the Columbine high school massacre in 1999 and the events of the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, the next change in curriculum did not take place until 2005, when the basic law enforcement academy increased hours again from 672 to 760. The most notable change was the removal of the interpersonal skills

course and appears that the areas of interpersonal communications were placed into the Introduction course under unit numbers 5 communications and interpersonal skills which required 8 hours of training and 6 human interaction which required 16 hours of training for a total of 24 hours. When compared to the previous curriculum of 66 hours of interpersonal communication this appears as a drastic cut. The training time dedicated to defensive tactics was reduced from 106 hours to 80 hours, and the weapons course was renamed firearms and the hours increased from 64 to 80 (See Appendix E; FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018).

The final increase of hours to the basic law enforcement academy would take place in 2007 with the addition of a dart firing stun-gun course which was 6 hours long and an increase to the investigating offenses course of 4 hours. This would bring the total academy training to 770 hours which is still the standard today however the division of time spent in training on certain topics has varied the three focal courses for this research remain with 80 hours in defensive tactics, 80 hours in firearms, and communications portion of training is now discussed in the 40 hour interactions in a diverse community course (See Appendix F; FDLE, 2017; CJSTC, 2018). This reflects that in the academy the skills of communication that were once taught has all but dimensioned from the curriculum. Attachment 7 and 8 reflect current basic law enforcement curriculum.

As mentioned previously these academies were very militaristic in their day to day operations. Some of the traditions of the past academy environments are still being used today such as rank and command structure, uniform wear and appearance, and verbiage of military training cultures such as the U.S. Marine Corps starting and ending

every response with sir. For example, “Sir! Yes Sir!” or “Sir! No Sir!”. These training models require compliance without question or a do as your told attitude. Historically many agencies of old would use military experience as a predetermining factor for being hired into the agency (Dwyer, 2015). Older training models praised officer presence or command presence and control over every situation were often at the top of this list in earlier training regiments. In other words, recruits need to know and make sure that no matter the situation they were in charge and no one was to challenge that authority. This approach to situational control has been implemented for years and is no doubt still embedded in the minds of administrators and experienced officers from this area of training and is currently teaching basic academy curriculum.

The Military Training Model

Within the last two decades, some academics and scholars have criticized the militarization of law enforcement agencies in the United States stating that the militarization models are not compatible with current ideas of policing in a constitutionally free society. The military experience was not an indicator of increased performance while in police basic training.

According to Dwyer (2015), there has been an abundance of studies conducted on military training programs, and law enforcement training professionals will often borrow ideas and techniques from the military. With this idea in mind soldiers and units will fight as well as they have trained and as such training is important to the military (Simpson & Oscar, 2003). General characteristics of military-style training paint a picture for program evaluation and provide new opportunities to design evaluations for new issues that are

brought to light. For example, the military will often employ joint task force approaches to training to improve upon current training techniques. This has often been a concern for law enforcement administrators when using large scale training and worries if they will have enough resources to cover the cost (Tsang, 2000). However, task force training can be expensive and to change this many law enforcement agencies use large scale training scenarios to disperse the expense and identify training issues (Dwyer, 2015). Dwyer further explains that many of the skills are perishable and require regular retraining for their staff such as firearms which has the greatest potential for officers to find themselves in danger and therefore must be able to respond (Morrison, 2006).

According to Dr. Brian Reaves (2016), about 48% of all basic law enforcement academies in the country used a stress training model where they used more stress than non-stress. This training model is based on current military models. Reaves continues states that 18 % of basic law enforcement academies used little to mostly no stress training models. The non-stress academies focus on physical training and academic achievement. The final representation is a balanced academy which is 34% of basic law enforcement training academies and provides stress and none stress combination. The information collected was gathered from the 2013 year (Reaves, 2016). The most stunning aspect of this report was the hours dedicated to certain types of training. On average per recruit officer, 213 hours were dedicated to operations; firearms, self-defensive and use of force had 168 hours of training; self-improvement 89 hours and legal education 86 hours were dedicated. An average of 40 hours was dedicated to community policing. Almost all the basic law enforcement academies addressed social

issues such as domestic violence with an average of 13 hours and mental illness for 10 hours. Furthermore, 96% of these basic law enforcement academies use a class structure for basic training which means a group of people being trained together at the same time (Reaves, 2016; Dwyer, 2015). This is a military standard for training basic recruit soldiers as it maximizes the span of training to reach a volume of students.

When looking at the training hours and how they are dedicated from these statistics the use of physical control, firearms engagement, and use of force far exceed students' understanding of community issues. Communications with the public concerning community issues or practical exercises in de-escalation training are not the focus of law enforcement training or at least they were not until July 1, 2018. The new curriculum for basic law enforcement academies now requires communication exercises, whoever please note that there was no increase in length of classes and no requirement to track the participation of these communication exercises (DLE, 2018; CJSTC, 2018). Currently there is still no research answering the questions being asked in this case study that could reflect whether these communication exercises are needed at all in the basic law enforcement academy. The officer's ability to identify routine issues with members of the public during service-connected calls is greatly diminished because they lack the training and practice in nonviolent situations which is a bulk of officer citizen contacts. This research seeks to connect this disparity in basic law enforcement training.

Militarization of Police

There are truly only two armed forces in the United States: the law enforcement industry and the military. These groups are authorized to use force to enforce laws and

policies. However, the military would need an executive order in which to do so domestically. The law enforcement industry doesn't need any such order. What can be expected is that the law enforcement use of force was very different from that of the military use of force. This can be best described in training prospective for each group. The U.S. Army infantry manual starts off stating that the mission of the infantry is being close to the enemy through means of fire and movement in order to terminate or capture him (Department of the Army, 2007). In comparison the New York City Police Department being one of the largest law enforcement agencies states in its patrol guide that "respect for human life requires that in all cases firearms be used as a last resort, and only to protect human life. Uniformed members of the service use only the minimal amount of force necessary to protect human life (New York City Police Department, 2013)."

When you compare the two roles on the use of force it is very clear that their missions are very different. These two differences in prospective present a clear division between law enforcement and military. This research will show that police training academies are adopting the same training tactics, cultural looks and technologies as the U.S. Military (Bieler, 2016; Reaves, 2016). This research will reflect that even at the basic recruit training levels the impact of the paramilitary culture will affect recruit officer's ability to use discretion in conflict training situations. This is a disturbing claim about the character of law enforcement, and this is due to the industry's unique access to the use of force as a tool for domestic policy. This is vital in understanding the

communication breakdown between law enforcement and the community and if basic recruits are being affected by this militarization in the basic law enforcement academy.

In his book *Rise of the warrior cop: the militarization of America's police forces* Radley Blanco (2013) paints a clear picture of law enforcement initial intent during the roman era to modern day policing. He makes the argument that over the past 40 years officers have become more militarized by the response of threat to the public and officers which brings about a change in protocol/ policy and theorem. Jonathan Blanks (2014) review of Blanco's book highlights some pivotal information into this subject noting that in the 1960's at the height of American upheaval people were scared and it was at this time that the former Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) chief Darryl Gates created the first American SWAT team who today are indistinguishable from military members of today's armed forces (Blanco, 2013; Blanks, 2014). Contrary to this review of Blanco's books is Steven Sarao (2014) open with his review of how Blanco glosses over when and where SWAT is needed outside of drug operations and how SWAT is used in critical lifesaving operations and does acknowledge a standoff between the LAPD and the Symbionese Liberation Army (SLA) where the SLA started fire and kept firefighters away with gunfire so that they could not fight the blaze. Sarao continues with the observation that Blanco's writing appears to SWAT for all of the militarization of law enforcement (Blanco, 2013; Sarao, 2014).

Defining Militarization

In spite of regular discussion on the limits of militarization there is no widely accepted definition for the term militarization among scholars and this will only add to

the confusion. To further complicate the issue when discussing the military and law enforcement in the same conversational frame terms become intermixed for very different activities (Bieler, 2016; Wood, 2015). While there are no accepted terms for militarization there are several characteristics that a law enforcement agency can have that would identify as more or less militarized. According to Bieler (2015) there are four characteristic where police might be militarized first being the material (e.g. the presence of military equipment), culture (e.g. use of military jargon and values), operation (e.g. use of Special Weapons and Tactics in no knock raids, no tolerance policing tactics, and command and control structure). Each law enforcement agency is a little different and will emphasize these four characteristics to a lesser or greater degree and may even exclude these characteristics out right (Bieler, 2015).

However, these four characteristics provide a solid framework for exploring the varied militarization definitions and elements and reviewing their limits and challenges. Hardware type definitions of militarization use the existence of different parts of equipment for indicators of militarization levels for law enforcement agencies. Bieler adds that the presence of military style equipment and the level of commitment to adopt and advanced military technology is the formula used to identify militarization. Definitions that focus on military style equipment such as assault rifles and mine-resistant ambush protected vehicles (MRAP) which are received through military surplus are common and reported with a great of popularity through the media's description of militarization (e.g. McMorris-Santoro, 2014). This is supported by academic literature where weapons used are indicators of militarization. For example, rifles have been cited

as increased militarization and dress uniform namely that of the battle dress uniform which is common for military use also known as BDU's and now being adopted by law enforcement which further add to the militarization discussion (Phillips, 2016; Bickel, 2012).

When looking at equipment being used as the facet for militarization and assessing how the equipment is being used in programs by law enforcement agencies will offer further insight to the paramilitary environment. The department of defense (DOD) has the 1033 program that provides designated funding and the acquisition of new resources the 1033 program specifically permits law enforcement agencies to acquire military equipment at low costs (Execute Office of the President (EOP), 2014). According to the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), 2014) Funding is also provided through other sources such as the Department of Justice (DOJ), Byrne Justice Assistance Grant (JAG) program and the Department of Homeland Security (DHS). Each of the associate groups provide funding to law enforcement agencies for the purpose of equipment, which is often military grade (ACLU, 2014). This is not to say that all the equipment that is acquired is military weapons. It would include cold weather gear and office furniture and in fact only about 4% of the military grade equipment acquired are labelled as controlled such as night vision and small arms weapons; however even in the small amount of 4% it equates to over 78,000 pieces of equipment spread out to law enforcement across the country (Phillips, 2016; EOP, 2014; Bickel, 2012).

While some definitions of militarization focus on the equipment being used by law enforcement this may have its advantages for the appearance of militarization, yet it

has very little value on the understanding of militarization. The few pieces of equipment would be easy for a quantitative study using static numbers from readily available sources which make it easy to measure. What if the equipment factor was removed it would be much harder to determine what agencies are militarized minus the equipment and its impact on community policing and agency policies? The difference in experience for an agency who receive a Bear-Cat military grade vehicle and 200 assault rifles may be very different from community to community. Using equipment to measure militarization does little identify agency practices and enhance the culture of the paramilitary environment.

Some studies have used the operational characteristics of the department such as the use of Special Weapons and Tactics (SWAT) or other paramilitary departments. According to Bieler (2016) research has defined SWAT teams as paramilitary or militarized because of the equipment they carry and the nature of their operational function. These SWAT teams carry much of the same equipment as military combat units, speak in the same terms, and dress in the same clothing. These teams operate under strict command structure and discipline and like a military force they deploy in force (Bieler, 2016; Dwyer, 2015; Wood, 2015). Like the equipment theory measure used to determine militarization the use of operational function has its advantages and drawbacks as well. Since the primary function of a SAT team is to deploy, now what calls for service they are being deployed for and how often would provide further insight into culture and organization of the law enforcement agency. Another issue that might be problematic would be the fact that smaller towns have members of the SAT team that

serve in both areas of patrol function and SWAT which could influence data. According to Balko (2013) like equipment, SWAT activity can be easily measured by looking up the call type in which the unit is activated, or members of its team called in for their training expertise.

There is some debate among scholars and researchers as to what degree a SWAT team represents militarization. Some argue that the increased practice of militarization makes law enforcement look more professional (den Heyer, 2013). The practice reflects the efficiency of operational function. Others argue that to cite SWAT teams as examples of militarization provides that the distinction between militarization and professionalism are misplaced. According to Kappler and Krasha (2015) militarization can be a form of professionalism and for one to exist doesn't deny the other. They note that if the adoption of a SWAT team is designed to make law enforcement more operational efficient, and that these units' operational function is specifically related to the use of force. Then supporting the idea of militarization to improve the use of force as its primary problem-solving tool and as such the debate can be applied to SWAT teams where their focus is the use of force. In other works, gaining compliance or control using force. Dwyer (2015) goes on to further explain that these training scenarios are like part of the law enforcement Field Training Program (FTP) for new officers. The field training program is where new police officers ride with experienced officers to learn about the law enforcement job in the field/ community and have the new officer evaluated by that field training officer over a period of several months.

Agency Training and Culture

Depending on your view arguments can be made for both sides of the militarization discussion just as Blanco (2013); Blanks (2014); and Sarao (2014) made arguments both for and against and as society moves forward however many agencies make sure that certain traditions remain intact. Tradition is one of the cornerstones of law enforcement history much like the military. There are generations of service men and women who place a great deal of value in those traditions and as such are reluctant to change what many believe is a softening of standards. Though tenets of de-escalation or communication are piece milled into the other courses and possibly discussed by instructors does not mean that those lessons are being absorbed and understood by the recruited students. No matter what instructional approach is used to convey the course information the recruit students will respond in a manner they are trained to respond without question. This means that if they only ever receive training without question in order to pass a skill or the only scenarios requiring an aggressive response the students will likely respond in that manner once they enter the law enforcement industry. This is due to the training that recruits receive and having not been trained to think their way through the processes or more importantly why.

Training from these periods were still very much reactive prior to the Columbine High School Shooting. A crime would take place, officers would respond after the fact, and conduct investigations in order to solve the crime. The only proactive approaches were those offenses that took place in the presence of the officer and were often traffic offenses.

According to Marino, Delaney, Atwater, and Smith (2015) suggest there has been an ever-changing shift in police policy and practitioner theorem due to past events such as the Columbine shootings in Colorado April 20, 1999. Marino et al. (2015) suggests that prior to the Columbine Shooting officers were still in a reactive mode of training and many of the lessons learned from this tragic event where that they can waiting for a special weapons and tactics team to get organized while active shooter situations are taking place and that in fact a small group of officer that arrive on scene should be the first to act in taking out or eliminating the threat, not rendering aid to injured and only seeking to find the threat and end it.

Training for officers since the Columbine shooting was and to this day is not centered on communication with the public but focused on the active shooter and mass casualty events since there is very little time dedicated to training. The law enforcement agency administrator must prioritize the types of training officers will receive beside the state mandatory retraining officer must take to maintain their certifications. The events of September 11, 2001 take place two years after the Columbine Shooting and several natural disaster events set yet another training shift to support mass casualty responses and set the stage to reinforce and focus training on these areas and not communication with the public. This is where the researcher suggests that communication breakdown starts between law enforcement and the public.

In 2008 a change in federal government took place with the election of a new president and the second worst economic crash in American history known as the great recession which brought about the housing market crash. Many law enforcement agencies

were forced to conduct hiring freezes since their budgets were cut considerably, which also meant a cut in training budgets for many law enforcement agencies. With these cuts many agencies came to rely on aid from the federal government in order to fill their ranks with the officers needed to perform the basic law enforcement function. However much of this funding was performance based. With a strained economy crime increased for many agencies. As such the agencies needing the federal support dollars would have to show that enforcement funding was still needed based on criminal activity. According to Bronstein (2015) administrators would implement unofficial quotas and praise officers for their high activity. The high activity in targeted areas would continue even after the main community issues were resolved in those reportedly troublesome areas. For example the west side of a city has a drug problem, once the drug problem was no longer an issue enforcement efforts in the areas would still continue but no longer producing drug arrests but much lesser crimes such as disorderly conduct so that it would reflect a continuing need for federal aid. Keep in mind that basic recruit training models and law enforcement agencies throughout this period still did not focus training on communication with the public sector.

The instructors who teach in the academy environment much of what they learned can follow the training needs as a result of notable events. The first special weapons and tactics team (SWAT) was created by the LAPD in 1966 (Blanks, 2014; Warwick, 2015). This new unit was created after the University of Texas tower incident where Charles Whitman randomly shot and killed multiple persons (Lopez, 2013). The University of Texas tower incident is regarded as the first active shooter incident in America. The

lessons that law enforcement learned as a result of incidents like the Columbine shooting, and Bank of American shootout was that patrol officers could not rely on and wait for SWAT teams to arrive and address the incident as lives were being lost and so yet another shift in training took place.

According to Warwick (2015) officers were now going to be trained in rapid response tactics in order to address these active in progress incidents. This also gave rise to the reality-based training (RBT) models being used today by law enforcement agencies. The RBT is designed to place officers under a great deal of stress in a multitude of conditions. This is for the familiarization of the effects of stress on the body and mind. The effects of stress on the officer's psychological and physical states can better prepare officers for the active shooter incidents and mass casualty incidents that come with natural disasters. The experiences of these types of RBT stressors on instructors teaching the basic law enforcement academies can influence how curriculum is being presented to recruit officers. Not every instructor is professionally at the same level in their careers so there are a multitude of lived realities that instructors have been exposed to through their own agency training and tenure on the job.

In a paramilitary training environment, there is a uniform standard, code of conduct, chain of command with ranking rules and how to report issues via that chain of command. Issues such as circumventing the chain of command will have disciplinary implications for violating that rule. Uniform wear and appearance violations observed by peers or instructors are always looming. This is a constant weight in the cognitive processes of the recruit student. This weight creates a mindset of obedience to command

and instruction over an extended period in conjunction with no courses dedicated to de-escalation or communication.

It has been widely accepted in law enforcement circles that prior military service members make good candidates for the policing functions because of the nature of military work and the organizational structure of law enforcement agencies (Fagan, 2013; Dwyer, 2015). These similarities are the primary reasons why law enforcement agencies gravitate towards the recruitment of military service members. The idea assumed that military experience enhanced the officer's ability to perform in the law enforcement setting and perform police duties. Law enforcement agencies have a paramilitary organizational structure that many veterans are drawn to and makes adapting to the industry easier. The disciplinary structure of the military has in many ways prepared the future officer for basic law enforcement training. For example, military veterans as a result of their basic training have been exposed to proper handling and employment of handling weapons, exercising self-discipline with leadership and peers, following the chain of command, and a structured training routine. In a research study conducted by Fagan (2013) found that law enforcement officers who had prior military service felt that they were more prepared for the law enforcement industry and had a clear advantage over their peers who did not have military experience. Though there is a long standing tradition of law enforcement agencies hiring military veterans, studies have yet to prove that prior military experience makes someone a better officer, prepares them better for the job, or that they fit in better to the folds of an agency.

Looking at the first year that many law enforcement officers are hired from basic law enforcement academies and brought into the fold of their law enforcement agencies should offer some insight as to what agencies are wanting to see and is being produced. According to a southern state Statute 110.227 no law enforcement officer can be fired without cause after serving one year in their current position (a southern state Statute, 2016). Many law enforcement agencies have a probationary period of one year in a southern state where the recruit officer can be let go for any reason without cause if it is prior to the recruit officers' one-year anniversary. These places put a tremendous amount of pressure on these recruits to not make their training officers, sergeants, watch commanders, and anyone mad at them so they don't get fired. The recruit officer's need for acceptance by other officers in the agency increases the stress factors they are already under to an even higher degree. The recruit officer then becomes more dependent on their training.

The motivation of an agency's training needs will vary and as such so will the culture and needs. For example, a rural county sheriff with a population of 10,000 people and a staff of four has very different needs and expectations of the agency when compared to that of the Los Angeles police department. So, the training programs will often fit the needs of the agencies in which the recruit officer will enter into. This has its drawbacks as well if a local law enforcement agency is receiving federal funding for certain enforcement efforts such as drug enforcement in low income areas the motivation for training officers in drug enforcement efforts is high and actions in the targeted areas

will continue even if there are no more drugs in that area. This is commonly referred to as the quota.

The reality is that the face of law enforcement is an ever changing one since we have entered the era of terrorism and many law enforcement administrators are having to rethink their practices, policies, and training practices. The tone that the Administration and middle management set for the experienced officers will affect what the recruit officer absorbs in their training. According to Tepe (2008) in order for an agency to be successful the administration of law enforcement agencies must have good leadership qualities to address crisis head on and lead the agencies, be forward thinking not reactive, they above all else must be honest, and charismatic; furthermore, the leadership must be ambitious, broadminded, caring, cooperative, and competent were the leadership traits most admired by the other officers in the agency. There are also the bureaucratic organization operations of the law enforcement industry which promotes a transactional style of leadership that maintains structural boundaries between managers and workers and increases feelings of alienation. This separation can lead to a total disconnect between administrator, middle management, and line officers.

According to Bass (1990) there are as many definitions of leadership as those who are trying to discuss the concept. Despite the inconsistency of what defines the exact meaning of leadership. Bass identifies several common ideals that bring together the most accepted definition which concerns how groups can be influenced or introduced into compliance through the personality, power, persuasion and behavior of key individuals. This has a direct impact on the new officers entering the law enforcement agency. The

following reflects how administrative police misconduct can set the tone for the agency. According to ABC news (2016) former Marion County Sheriff in a southern state Christopher Blair steps down after taking a plea deal for perjury regarding a use of force case. In this case the former Sheriff was video recorded having witnessed his deputies excessively handling an arrested suspect (Dustin Healtherman) at the Marion County Jail and then lying about it under oath. In the neighboring municipality the Ocala a southern state Police Chief Greg Graham is accused of several sexual harassment complaints, though Chief Graham was not found guilty of any wrong doing the trust of officers and deputies of both agencies will likely feel the impact from the community because of the actions and alleged actions of both administrations. This type of administrative conduct does have an impact on recruit officers as to what is acceptable and what is not within the law enforcement agency.

According to the National Institute of Justice (2012) one of the biggest issues is public trust in police integrity (p.4). The need to study integrity increases with the desire to reduce corruption among law enforcement personnel. However, in spite of public official's, oversight committees, and police official's verbal commitment to end the problem of corruption the problems are still ever present in some cases almost daily that there are still police officers making corrupt decisions (Blumberg, Giromini, & Jacobson, 2016). The question then becomes is ethics something that can be trained since it is such a high priority for law enforcement agencies. Blumberg et al. (2016) conducted a study on integrity for basic law enforcement academy students and measured if there was a change between beginning of the academy and the end. The research revealed that there

was no significant impact on the student's integrity. The recommendations are that agencies should focus on maintaining high levels of ethical decision making. However, if the agency administrator is at the center of corruption it sends a clear message to their subordinates about what is acceptable and what is not as it pertains to officer conduct.

The type of backlash that middle management and line officers take from the public as a result of toxic leadership like the examples can lead to the perception of a double standard within the agency. Officers who work and teach in police academy environments or field training officer programs can poison the new officer's perception of management and the industry as a result of poor leadership. New police officers in a law enforcement agency spend a great deal of time watching those they work with in order to see and absorb what is socially acceptable within the ranks of the agency and often take their cues from their training officers and senior patrol men and women. When an officer is assigned to the field training program the recruit officer will go through several phases with several different field training officers (FTO). This is to provide the recruit officer with the opportunity to learn from different experienced officers while being assessed through a progress training and trial period. Some agencies tell their recruit officers to forget what they learned in the academy, which sets the stage for the recruit officer to see firsthand what works in the field and what doesn't work. In other cases, the FTO may not say anything like that at all.

What needs to be impressed upon is that these recruit officers are watching everything being said and acted out in front of them. Since the effect of these impressions on the recruit officers is unpredictable some law enforcement agencies have

started using mentoring programs to provide prospective candidates with a positive role model before entering the FTO program with their law enforcement agency (Sheldon, 1999).

Communications Breakdown

The historical problem with basic law enforcement can be traced back to its first notable origins in Sir Robert Peel English Prime Minister who is considered to be the founding father of policing principles and philosophy for the criminal justice system. During his time the English metropolitan police or "Bobbies" were formed to protect the social elites from poor urban working classes who had the potential to be rebellious, revolutionary and mob like (Grabiner, 2016). Much of early American processes for governing and law enforcement were adopted from the English even after the war for independence the newly formed United States maintained many of the traditional practices of the former monarchical rule. Slavery and rural working classes in the United States still resembled that of the English and there was still a clear separation in class of citizens.

The law enforcement systems that were founded in America before the Civil War were established to control a slave population and protect slave owners. When looking back at slave patrols one could look at modern policing efforts in high crime low income communities and see maybe where the forerunner for American policing comes from in the minds of those who live in the poorest of areas (Turner, Giacomassi & Vandiver 2006). The Jim Crow laws created after the Civil War were enacted by lawmakers who were bitter about losing the war to the union forces. These new statutes separated races in

all aspects of social function and life in general. The result ended with laws that favored whites and created barriers for blacks. It was not until the 1950's and 1960's that the Jim Crow laws were finally abolished during the civil rights movement led by Reverend Martin Luther King (West's Encyclopedia of American Law, 2008). However, the years of segregation and fight for equality had left a stain of the criminal justice system. During the civil rights movement law enforcement who were mostly white males were viewed on national television beating African American men and women during peaceful protests and a country divided watched with indifference. For many years and are even today law enforcement is viewed as enforcers for the wealthy. The breakdown in communication between law enforcement and the citizen population most notably that of low income African American communities is still present today and is at an all-time low.

In a study completed by M. Gomez (2016) police violence and community fragmentation supports previous qualitative studies reflecting an ongoing distrust between low income predominantly minority communities and law enforcement. This view is brought on by the high drug use, drug market in the community and associated crimes that go with it. This study seems to support the hypothesis that policing results in community fragmentation. To be more specific about the content of Gomez's research the function of aggressive policing would be a more appropriate term in the context of community fragmentation. Current training models do not address exercising communication training scenarios in basic law enforcement curriculum to the extent that defensive tactics and firearms do.

The low-income communities in the United States are part of a racial divide. In order to address this divide, it was largely speculated that having more minority officers represented in a law enforcement agency would help in the reduction of violence against officers. In 2013 approximately 27% of police officers in America were members of minority groups whether it be race or ethnicity. This number was an apparent increase from 1987 (Reaves, 2013). However, the overwhelming number of police officers in 2013 were 73% white (Ozkan, Worrall, & Piquero, 2016). Considering most of the population that law enforcement deals with is the low income citizenry there is almost $\frac{3}{4}$ chance that the officer who responded to a call for service in those areas was white, who not only does not understand the culture but also brings in their own biases and stereotypes into that community. The theory of racial diversity in police practices was designed to promote police legitimacy in the community among minority residents and change the attitudes how the police department is perceived. The improvement of the relationship between law enforcement agencies and communities would reduce the likelihood of death or injury to community members and officers (Ozkan et al., 2016).

Wilson and Zhao (2008) argued that the percentage of minority police officers did not influence whether or not police became victims of violent type crimes by its citizens. This research would also suggest that the percentage of women in the law enforcement agency also did not play a role in reducing violent crimes against police officers. So, in spite of what many current media outlets are reporting, current research does not support the idea that police officers are racial motivated and overly violent because of the officer's racial bias. There has been research conducted that provides new insight as to

contrary. Barrick et al. (2014) conducted a study of 434 large police departments and found that the large populations suggested large numbers of assaults against police officers. These initial findings might be expected in very large cities with very diverse cultures. The research however could not find a link between the minority representation and police victimization in these large cities.

The study further found that the increased representation of minority officers within the department increased the number of assaults on police. This is significant because it outlines that the factor race is not the central reason for the breakdown in community relations between law enforcement and low-income communities. Barrick et al. (2014) explains that an agency which has a history of problems in the community might focus officer recruiting efforts on those troubled communities over time, however representation and over representation did not fully resolve the problems in the community. What this research is saying is that these minority officers were adding to the problem of discrimination, profiling and increased violence. The research did not offer or suggest these minority officers felt more compelled to stop other citizens based on their race or because they were not black and that they were racially motivated. Other research has been conducted to offer another perspective as to why minority officers add to increased violence against others in the agencies in which they work.

Wilkins and Williams (2008) investigated conditions where minority police officials don't provide active representation in their minority communities. The dependent variable was the difference between the percentage of traffic stops involving Black drivers and the percentage of black driving-age for a specific district every month

for one year in 2000. The findings reflected that the presence of black officers was associated with racial profiling. This meant that the increased minority representation within the law enforcement agency rank and file officers resulted in greater incidents of racial profiling. This further supports that increased minority representation is not the reason for community relations break down in low income minority areas. The reason for this may be that the minority officer is trying to fit into the organizations and is therefore trying harder to not come across as racially biased with their peers (Wilkins & Williams, 2008).

This would also support the idea of police culture influencing the officers' conduct within the agency by promoting and praising certain types of conduct over others regards of the race of officer and where they are working in the community. If the agency is only ever focused on high arrest numbers and volume of citizen contact and reinforcing this conduct through all levels of the law enforcement agency, then the citizens being serviced by that agency can likely expect a certain type of conduct from those officers. For example, if a law enforcement agency promotes officers writing traffic tickets in place of verbal warnings the agency will develop a reputation over time as being tough on traffic control or even corrupt. In a southern state the Waldo police department was disbanded for illegal traffic procedures. CBS News (2015) reported that the small town of Waldo police department was shut down by a southern state Department of Law Enforcement for violation of evidence practices and that over 12,000 traffic tickets were issued to the tune of \$400,000 in revenue for the city which was 1/3 of the city's budget.

The views and lived realities of officers in law enforcement agencies will likely bring their experiences and biases into a basic law enforcement training environment.

Policy Changes Influencing Officer Communication

There is little argument that the events of September 11, 2001 had a profound impact on many areas of finance and policy. What were some of the effects of those policy changes in the areas of communication and policing policies for law enforcement and how did those changes impact the law enforcement officer's ability to communicate with the public. To answer this the researcher must simply follow the money. Funding for many law enforcement agencies after the 2008 great recession was a big concern for many law enforcement agencies and finding funds through federal programs became common practice. According to Yeager (2014) one such program was implemented after the events of September 11, 2001 called Fusion Centers. These fusion centers would share information with rural and local law enforcement agencies in collaboration with the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) efforts. This intelligence gathering and observer-able information gathering by local law enforcement agencies have created avenues to ensure that the DHS mission of threat assessment, control and containment for emergency preparedness are being implemented at all levels of government (Yeager, 2014). The financial incentive for agencies to fully comply with DHS counter-terrorism efforts would provide many law enforcement agencies with the funding relief that many would need order to insure they could continue to meet and provide local services to the citizens in which they serve. This form of assisted funding from the government would now allow agencies to expand their scope of operations which also benefited DHS. With

this increase of scope so to have the methods of information gathering some of these methods include but are not limited to increased surveillance, covert intelligence gathering, replacing community policing with a more para-militaristic law enforcement model of policing, illegal immigration reform and increased covert investigations (Yeager, 2014).

The increase in advancing the DHS priorities represents a shift that is being made in law enforcement priorities in large part to funding and shared information gathering systems in place. Prior to the events of September 11, 2001 and shortly after law enforcement agencies were still using a community policing model when it came to policy and practice in the communities. Post September 11, 2001 a large interest in security and information gathering became the cornerstone of law enforcement efforts in order to prevent another attack. Yeager (2014) expounds on how policing philosophies have changed from the Packer's (1964) model where there was a clear distinction between crime control and due process approaches to law enforcement. Yeager further explains the shift from community policing as a result of DHS funding and policy influence to the now emerging citizen control philosophy (Table 1).

The following table will reflect the changing approach to law enforcement philosophy since the first model of crime control. The areas of focus, speed/pace, and measurement of success, and method used for each of the four philosophies will reflect changes as they occur with each approach. What this table will show is that with each philosophy there is a conflict in value systems such as the crime control model which is a fast arrest, investigation and conviction process and the due process model which is much

more lengthy a process to protect the constitutional rights of the accused. In values alone these systems contradict each other but nonetheless have an impact on the community but these ideas change policy and practice for those working in the criminal justice field. The most notable change with this table is the DHS impact of the federal, state and local law enforcement as a result of funding.

Table 1

Law Enforcement Philosophies

Philosophies	Crime control	Due process	Community policing	Citizen control
Focus	Repression of criminal conduct/ criminal arrests	Equality/ protection of citizen's rights	Crime prevention/ building community partnerships	Crime control/ surveillance/ security/counter-terrorism
Speed/ Pace	Fast investigative and conviction processes	Procedural safeguards to protect potential innocent or guilty individuals	Less need to resort to criminal process through police success in communities	Swift neutralization of potential threats or suspicious persons/quick response to terrorist or natural disaster incidents
Measurement of Success	High rates of apprehension and conviction	Equality/protecting citizens from abuses in power	Preventing motivated offenders/police and community interaction/fear reduction	Criminal and terrorist profiling/ intelligence gathering/ neutralizing suspicious persons/ potential terrorists/ preventing terrorism
Methods	Presumption of guilt/broad investigative powers	Presumption of innocence/possibility of error in fact finding process	Increasing relations between police and the community/use of informal social controls/discretion	Increased emphasis on federal and state communication and collaboration/ threat assessment/ risk analysis

The model of crime control (CC) has a distinct characteristic as it focuses on the repression of criminal conduct and was viewed as the most important part of the criminal justice process. When public discourse would take place under this crime control model there would be discard of legal process, security and liberty and in order to crack down on crime this model would strengthen the process in which people would enter the criminal justice system. In order this to be effective on crime police would be required to make a high volume of arrests. Reviewing the due process (DP) model was much more complex since at its core the focus was on ensuring that the rights of accused were not violated Yeager (2014) explains that people are poor observers of events that cause stress or are viewed as disturbing. This point of itself leads to poor recall of events. Because of this view much less priority is given to the fast volume arrest practices of the CC model. The due process model places a large degree of importance on equality under the law. This is due in large part to targeted low income groups struggling to obtain resources and become the focal point of police action. The combined views of loss of liberty and stigma resulted in the criminal process and are considered by many as the harshest deprivation that the government can impose on a citizen. After reviewing these philosophies law enforcement implemented a more responsive approach to not just crime, the fear of crime and community issues.

Community Oriented Policing rose as the idea stressing the importance of community relations in order to solve community problems. The idea was that with increasing community relations and collaboration police could better perform their duties while improving relationships with the citizen population. The Department of Justice

(2014) defines Community Policing as a philosophy that promotes strategies, which support the systematic use of partnerships and problem solving techniques to proactively address the immediate conditions that give rise to public safety issues such as crime, social disorder and fear of crime.

Since the events of September 11th, 2001 another philosophy of policing has made its way into the law enforcement industry. This new approach both contains and excludes certain features in the previous three models of policing at the same time featuring its own individual ideologies. The Citizen-Control Philosophy (C-CP) increases the power of law enforcement to further control the public and or potential suspects, this is also represented in the crime control model. One of the only aspects of the DP model in the C-CP is that everyone is a potential suspect and was treated the same as a result. The Cop model requires that officers be engaged in the community and as such under the C-CP more control and information gathering of potential threats can be obtained at the local level of law enforcement. By combining the CC and COP and largely excluding the DP model with the get tough on crime mindset set of officers has allowed more law enforcement agencies to become embedded in the communities in which they serve. Now less time and resources are being focused on working with the citizens to solve community macro issues and more is being focused on control of the citizen population and threat identification.

According to Yeager (2014) the homeland security approach to policing is characterized by more militaristic tactics, aggressive intelligence gathering and surveillance oriented. The focus being on that of citizen control which has played a part

in the breakdown of community relations yet again with law enforcement agencies and the communities in which they serve. Increased funds through DHS grants and programs are geared towards citizen control. Officers trained under agencies who use this approach also bring the effects of the approaches into the police academy training environment.

Training Academies

There is a lot of evidence supporting agency culture and influence of its personnel and how that same influence can be brought into the basic law enforcement academy environment. In the state of A southern state, the basic law enforcement academies have directors who administer training that is governed by the Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission (CJSTC) which is a branch of a southern state Department of Law Enforcement (DLE). Part of what an academy director is required to do is attend conferences. At these conferences there are a multitude of workshops where all the academy directors or designees for the state law enforcement academies meet to discuss curriculum and rules. The CJSTC takes the suggestions brought forth by the directors and will consider making recommended changes if deemed necessary.

In a southern state many of the basic law enforcement academy training facilities are run by community colleges with only a couple of them being run by law enforcement agencies. According to some practitioner's community's colleges are not equipped to handle the growing and ever-changing needs of the law enforcement industries' new threats. According to Flores (2012) there is little information on the impact that community colleges have had on law enforcement training regarding homeland security. As previously noted, many law enforcement agencies, since the Columbine High School

Massacre are adjusting to a proactive style of policing as opposed to the reactive standard of old. Due to the events of 9/11 many of the older responsibilities that were once held to be strictly a military function were now falling into the areas of local law enforcement. Law enforcement agencies and communities across the country had a hard time comprehending the idea of homeland security and the need for local law enforcement response to the new and ever-changing threats. According to Flores the department of homeland security set in motion new directives after the events of September 11, 2001 which outline new training models for federal, state, and local law enforcement agencies and that the impact of these directives had blurred the lines between what is military and what is law enforcement responsibilities. This was due in large part that both groups would be operating in the same missions to protect the homeland (Flores, 2012).

Summary

Chapter 2, Review of Literature, was separated by several sections. The first section illustrated in a southern state Basic Law Enforcement curriculum and the significant societal events that impacted the need for changes to that curriculum over time. The second section discussed the military training environment, defining militarization and how that environment was adopted by policing agencies. The third section discussed policing agency training and the culture of that training. Section four discusses the breakdown in communication between policing agencies and communities and discusses further the policy changes influencing officer communication with said communities. Section five discusses DLE, the training center director and factors that influence curriculum within the studied southern state law enforcement academies.

Chapter 3 will take a closer investigative look into the training environment of today's Basic Law Enforcement Academy, the training environment. In order to connect the gap in literature with current training standards chapter 3 will discuss in detail the use of the cross-streams theory to capture emerging themes.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Method

Chapter Overview

The purpose of this qualitative, case study research study is to investigate whether the paramilitary police academy training environment affects the students' ability to use verbal conflict resolution skills in place of aggressive physical control methods. This study will use the Sabatier and Weible (2014) multiple streams conceptual framework to investigate significant factors in basic law enforcement academies notably in the areas training practices, cultural norms and instructor lived experiences. This study seeks the qualitative perception of basic law enforcement academy students' training environment that might promote control through aggression as a first option during times of stress.

Chapter 3 Research Design and Methodology will comprise five sections. Section one will discuss the type of approach used, with the subsection, Case Study, presenting the research questions being asked. Section two will discuss the role of the researcher in this study. Section three will include the research context, research participants, and how the population sample was selected for this research study. Section four will describe the methods used for data collection: interviews, records review, group discussion, and use of NVivo software to identify correlations in terms used by students. Furthermore, section four will describe the analysis and management of the data collected. Section five will close with a summary of the sections.

Research Type and Research Approach

Qualitative Research Type

To achieve the intended purpose of this study, a qualitative case study approach was used. Qualitative research case study allows for the gathering of information from participants' perceptions about their own reality of a place and or experience (Creswell, 2013; Gall et al., 2003; Merriam, 1998; Taylor & Bogdan, 1998). In this case, the information or data collected was used to see the perception of the basic law enforcement academy training environment and whether it promotes control over stressful situations through the use of force during training scenarios.

Making sense of a situation and communicating the research findings involves having some knowledge of the “art of storytelling” (Hastings & Domegan, 2014, p.117). According to Patton (2015) some basic contributions of qualitative inquiry include identifying and comprehending a variety of perceptions, assessing and analyzing behavior in context, identifying patterns in what people do and examining the implications of those patterns. Gall et al. (2003) discussed the role of the researcher on a personal level with the participants as one of the differences between quantitative and qualitative research. The relationship developed throughout the research provides a more in-depth look of casual relationships among the social phenomena and will also provide an opportunity for the research to witness firsthand what would be the bare bones of quantitative statistics. In the case of what students will obtain as a proper response to controlling a stressful situation, this first-hand interaction with the basic law enforcement

academy samples provided a deeper understanding about the training environment and its effects on its students.

Case Study

The case study design was used to study this research question. According to Creswell (2013), case study is a methodology or type of research design that may be the object of study, a methodology, or research strategy. Case study research involves the study of a case in a real-life contemporary context or setting (Yin, 2009). Others such as Stake (2004) might argue that the case study research is not a methodology but a choice of what is to be studied within a bound system such as time and place. This case study is an exploration with the intent of looking for a correlation within the students' response to controlling a stressful situation and the training environment. Furthermore, I sought to find out if the instructors' lived realities play a role in the basic law enforcement academies students' choice to use aggressive control options in stressful situations and if the curriculum design promotes aggressive control measures.

This study examined the use of a bound system that includes interviewing of basic law enforcement academy students who are near or completed the basic law enforcement academy at a CJSTC approved training facility. The interviews consisted of several students. These students engaged in a group discussion and will have a comprehensive review of the students' performance records. The State College basic law enforcement academy was selected because it is a southern state Department of Law Enforcement and CJSTC approved training facility. This facility works closely with two very large agencies who conduct regular recruiting and sponsorships from this location. It should be

noted that law enforcement agencies are considered paramilitary and basic training academies that work to replicate that environment in early basic law enforcement academy training platforms.

Piantanda and Garman (1999) indicated that qualitative dissertation targets to bring out insights and knowledge from sophisticated education phenomena as they exist in a specific context. When studying a relatively new area, such as the police academy training environments, the researcher must look at the same basic descriptive questions for all research. How do people get into the program, what is the program setting like, what are the primary activities of that program, what happens to the people in that program, and what are the effects of that program on the participants (Patton, 2015)? The program studied is that of the training environment of basic police academy students and the effects of that environment on the students' ability to use force or to not use force to control tense training situations. In this subject of inquiry, the cross streams approach was used at a time in the participants training cycle, a particular institution.

In general, I looked at the training process, the use of instructor lived experiences, and curriculum of the basic recruits training environment and how those areas affected the participants of that basic law enforcement training environment. Case studies are appropriate when examining a program process (Merriam, 1998). Several sources were used to gather the information on the training environment. First was interviews and group discussions with academy students and records review of each of the students participating. Second was cover interviews with academy staff and instructors who provide current course materials and discipline standards. Third was to review the

academy rules and regulations regarding student conduct. Fourth was an on-site observation on the part of the researcher.

To examine the perceived value on the recruits training environment as it pertains to the use of force in stressful situations within a southern state basic law enforcement recruit academies, the following research questions were addressed through the case study approach:

Research Questions

RQ1: What are the key components of a paramilitary training environment, and which of those components promote aggression as a means of control within a police academy?

RQ2: Does the paramilitary training environment foster aggression in police academy students in order to control situations?

RQ3: Does the lived experiences of the instructional staff in the police academy diminish the academy students' ability to use non-physical conflict resolution skills?

RQ4: How much time is dedicated to de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics?

The qualitative research or genre used to capture this information fell in line with the case study tradition. This type of research methodology is an intense descriptive analysis of a bound social phenomenon. This is best used in a social unit, system like a program, institution, event, process, or concept (Creswell, 2013; Merriam, 1998, 2009; Yin, 2014). The researcher explores the bound systems over time through in-depth data collection which normally involves multiple sources of data, and this in the case of this research, gathering data from multiple streams for analysis. What is common in case

studies is the detailed description of a setting and the participants. This is followed by the analysis of data from themes that emerge, patterns, and issues (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016).

A southern state CJSTC standards requires 18 courses in order to complete the basic recruit academy. During 2018, several academy classes began each at different times and in some cases were either a part-time academy or daytime academies. The part-time academies typically started in the evenings and were sought out by students who were working during the daytime hours. The day academies were sought out by students who were not working full time jobs but were more committed to the full-time basic academy schedules. Interviews were conducted with students who were nearly at the end of their academy and assigned to different program day or night and different academy classes (E.G. classes 23, 27, 32).

A southern state basic law enforcement academies are made up of varying sizes in student populations. For example, the fall night law enforcement academy may have 25 students in that academy class. The fall day academy may have 40 students in the class and students from the same spring academies may differ still; furthermore the students in a nighttime part time academy setting are in the academy for a longer period because they are putting less time in each day. The day academy students however are at the academy for longer periods each day. However, both are receiving the 770 hours of mandatory training set forth by CJSTC. The training that they receive is from the same curriculum even if there are different instructors assigned to teach those blocks for day and night classes. A sample from several academy classes with varying students provided a

healthier sample and less contamination than sampling students from one class or just day or night academy classes or even a longer program versus a shorter program. The student sample was selected at random and was not less than 8 and 2 instructors or program coordinators were also interviewed resulting in a total number of 10 participants (n=10). The unit of analysis (Yin, 2003). For this study was the CJSTC.

Researcher's Role in the Study

Merriam (1998) has described the role of the qualitative researcher as someone that must have enormous tolerance for ambiguity. Merriam goes on to speak of researchers as comparable to detectives. Much like a law enforcement investigator, every facet is important, and everyone is suspect. Investigations take time and patience to search for clues, follow-up on new information, and putting it all together (Merriam, 1998). I have real life applied experience as a trained investigator for 16 years in law enforcement in roles as a field training officer, basic law enforcement academy coordinator, basic law enforcement academy program manager, and criminal justice professor, and found this method to be the most appropriate fit for the case study.

For this case study, I received permission from the dean of the center for public safety to conduct the study at the State College Campus, which is a DLE and CJSTC approved basic law enforcement academy training facility. At the time of the case study, I was employed as a program manager of a neighboring basic law enforcement academy which was also a DLE and CJSTC approved basic law enforcement academy training facility. I have over 6 years of active military service, 12 years of law enforcement experience as a police officer as well as field training officer, and am currently employed

as program manager of a southern state basic law enforcement academy with over 7 years of experience.

According to Maxwell (2013) the deciding participants and location of one's research is a necessary step in the research method. My credentials enhance the prospect for access to records of basic law enforcement academy student samples and allow for the direct gathering of data. The familiarity with which I can relate to either the sample students or those various individuals involved in teaching the basic law enforcement academy students at this DFLE and CJSTC approved training facility. Merriam (1998) has said that empathy is the foundation of rapport. I am better able to have a conversation with purpose and create an atmosphere of trust. The issue of trust cannot be understated as being essential and has a profound impact on the amount of information a person will share during the interview process. I needed to be wary of this and take care that the trust given was not lost.

Research Context

The State College Facilities are in a southern state within the southeast region of the United States. Early on in this southern state law enforcement academy students were hired by agencies before attending the basic academy and agencies were paying for these students training upfront. Agencies would also lose the money they were paying for students that they hired and failed out of the academy. So, this was cost prohibited as agencies started losing money and new hires. Today the basic law enforcement academy is a 770 hour long vocational program that qualifies for student assistance such as financial aid. In some cases, agencies still hire and sponsor students through the academy

but only after an agency physical and aptitude testing. The basic law enforcement academy trains approximately 300 recruits every year. The length of the basic law enforcement academy varied in the number of months from 6 months to 8 months.

According to Creswell (2013) and Merriam (1998), the case study researcher needs to be able to select the participants, documents as well as make observations which help the researcher to understand the subject being investigated. The researcher had chosen to select names at random for data collection, however the researcher was likely to consult with the staff and with their assistance select the students to interview for this case study. The researcher requested that the students to be interviewed must be from different academy classes in order to reduce too much intrusion on the student's rigorous schedule. Each participant who agreed to the interview was asked to sign a consent form.

After the consent forms from each student is signed and received by the researcher, the volunteers are interviewed during a period of time that is convenient for them. The researcher also made appointments to observe the training onsite during the time the interviews are taking place. All the interviews took place onsite at the State College training facility. The idea for interviewing at the training location is that it should make the students participating in the interviews more comfortable being in familiar surroundings. This is also referred to as snowballing or informant driven sampling (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998). To further expound on the instructor's recommendations, I also asked the participants who else might offer some insight to this case study through their own experiences in the academy.

Data Collection Methods and Procedures

To determine the value of the training environment's impact on students in the police academy. I interviewed basic law enforcement academy students from different academies during the time of this study. Interviews was one method in which the researcher's study results reach data saturation. Bernard (2012) has stated that the number of interviews needed to reach qualitative data saturation is a number that he could not quantify, but the researcher takes what they can get. The sample size for this research consists of 8 students from a southern state basic law enforcement academy and two CJSTC certified instructors who teach in the same academy. By having a smaller population sample, it was less intrusive on the students training program and allow for more control over the research.

The students will have recently completed or are near completion of their academy training and come from different academy classes. The students were asked questions not only on the training environment but also the interview protocols (see Appendices A&B.) The questions listed in the appendix A & B, were reviewed by the following experts Mrs. Sandra Dillard who currently holds a M.S. in Criminal Justice and is a Program Manager for the Criminal Justice Associates of Science Degree Program at a State College of a southern state. Mr. Terrell Hendrix Ret. Lt. Altamonte Springs Police Department in a southern state, M.S. Public Policy and Administration, Adjunct Instructor for the State College Police Academy. Mr. Jim Lee Retired southern state Highway Patrol, Current Dean of the Center for Public Safety at State College, Director of Police Academy State College, M.S. in Criminal Justice. The aforementioned experts

never participated in the research or were part of the data collection process for this case study. This added further credibility of the questions and protocols being implemented during the research.

The use of dimensions of learning experience which were highlighted in Savin-Baden's (2000) are used in the protocols during the interview process focusing on the use of stance and domains (Figure 1, p.50). The stance used gave the student participants structure in regard to their experiences/perceptions as to why they responded in a certain manner to stressful training scenarios they were exposed to and also how that response has changed since the beginning of their academy experience.

Based on a study by Gall et al. (2003) interviews were semi structured since this format allowed the researcher to inquire about the protocols used and allow the researcher to dive deeper and gather more information. This approach allowed for more questions to be asked in an open-ended format. The participants were asked questions from the same instrument to answer the core questions. The one-on-one interviews were done privately in a designated location free of distraction and obstruction. The interview was audio recorded for further analysis. These interviews lasted 30 minutes to 1 hour. The reason for the variation in time was on the participants needing to go in as much depth as they choose to which may or may not take as much time. The recordings were later transcribed. To protect the identities of the participants I used assumed names as identifiers as well as numbers "A" alpha to identify students and numbers for which student such as A1, A2, and so on up to 8 student/participants. The instructors were identified the same with assumed names and identified as B1 and B2, this brings the total

to 10 (n=10) transcription to use for analysis. The research instrument was reviewed by three subject matter experts to increase content validity.

Documentation, Observation, and Archival Data

Yin (2003) has stated that there are several sources of evidence that can be used in a case study: documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation and physical artifacts. Yin encourages the use of multiple sources of information/evidence to strengthen the research findings. Records review of student performance, interviews with the students and instructors and then open forum group discussion with the instructors and students should provide the data needed for this case study. Once all the data is collected common terms and phrases are entered in the NVivo Software to identify trends which will provide a more accurate description of the students/ participants perceptions of the academy training environment.

Documents that were used in this study include student applications to gain entry into the academy, student performance evaluations on high liability courses such as firearms and defensive tactics. I made a visit to the training facility prior to conducting interviews and records reviews in order to make a direct observation of the academy training environment during educational proceedings. This visit allowed me to witness the interactions between facilitators and students and identify more environmental factors. I was also able to inspect possible interview sites/room locations to ensure the space was suitable for information gathering. Additionally, the researcher was able to observe the group dynamics and interactions of students with each other in the training environment. I wore the same or similar uniform as the other staff during this first

observation period. It is the hope of the researcher after a short time period that the researcher will look as though he belongs in the environment, this is to not upset the balance of the environment of the students being observed.

I was cautious as Yin (2003) pointed out regarding at least in this case study a lack of bias, and truthfulness of documents, direct observations, and interviews. By doing this it will aid the researcher in keeping information gleaned from other potential data sources in the context of this case study. The test constructs that were used in this case study were validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability. By using multiple sources of evidence enhances the reliability of the researchers established construct. This will in turn ensure that the case study approach and research findings was less likely vulnerable to design criticisms.

Yin (2003) points out that internal validity is primary for explanation and or the casual case study when the relationships lead to another relationship between phenomena. In this explanatory case study data analysis determined if patterns will arise between the phenomena being researched. In order to establish validity and credibility of the data the researcher will use a triangulation process. According to Patton (2015) there are four types of *Triangulation of qualitative sources*: which checks for the consistency of different data sources within the same method (Consistency across interviews), *Mixed qualitative-quantitative methods triangulation*: checks out the consistency of findings generated by different data collection methods, *Analyst triangulation*: uses multiple analysts to review findings, and *Theory/perspective triangulation*: uses multiple perspectives or theories to interpret data. Patton further explains that by using a

triangulation method with multiple data sources can make substantial strides in overcoming skepticism that is common in single source methods (p.661). Patton (2015) further explains that the use of triangulation allows the researcher to compare observations against interviews, compares what people say in public versus what they say in private, and checking for consistency over and over again from what people say to name a few.

According to Maxwell (2013) one the beliefs that impedes triangulation is the common assumption that observations are only useful for describing behaviors or events and conversely that interviewing is useful for obtaining the perspective of people. While interviewing is an effective and valid way to understand someone's views, observations can aid the researcher in drawing inferences about those views/perspectives that could not otherwise be obtained from just conducting an interview. "Triangulation of observations and interviews can provide a more complete and accurate account than either could alone" (Maxwell, 2013) (pp.106-107).

By using protocols for both the records review, interviews and group discussion there was more reliability with the data collection in this case study. Each of the participants was asked the same board questions. In order to stay consistent follow-up questions were based on the responses by the participants but was reworded in manor that captures the same information regardless of response to previous questions. This process allowed for both consistency in topic being discussed and provided me with the ability to further investigate new revelations that may come up as a result of this case's studies inquiry. If at any time during the data collection process a participant withdraws from the

study. The student information gathered to the point of their departure was still used but annotated about the departure. If the participants withdrew before the data collection process, then I could have worked with staff to find a suitable replacement.

The document analysis protocols were consistent in how they are handled and reviewed, as well as safeguarding the information gathered from them. If information out of the norm is found clarifying that information with the staff was noted, this was not any different than the interview protocol, such as follow up questions. Yin (2003) points out that the use of protocols allows for researchers in the future who may want to replicate the study arrived with the same findings and conclusions. The exit protocols for each participant were the same allowing each of the participants to offer their feedback on their participation in this case study. This offered the participants the chance to discuss the pros and cons about the research which added further reliability.

Database Management

Piantanida and Garman (1999) identified five important issues of managing data that has been collected. They are the cataloging of information, managing multiple forms of data, data analysis, transformation of data into a stable record and then moving that stable data to portrait. They further explain that there are four types of portrayals being that of phenomenon, context under study, features of the phenomenon, implications or lessons learned, and then the inquiry itself. The first portrayal according to Piantanida and Garman (1999) is creating a picture that allows the experience of the phenomenon and context to be understood by others and therefore be aware of the complicity of both (p.131). The second portrait is the recognition of outstanding features of the study

reflecting a move from the situational to the conceptual as the researcher connects these features of the core portrait and provides a general/abstract issue with relevant discourse (Piantanida & Garman, 1999, p.135). I was able to move into the interpretation of data analysis in the light of applied theory and concepts. The third portrait was that of the lessons learned as a result of the current study which may recommend further research studies that might not otherwise have been found. The final portrait is that of the entire inquiry which creates a frame to view all the portraits much in the same way as a story of the study (p.136). All data collected was stored in the researchers secured private office with back-up external hard and computer.

The line of questions was scripted to the training environment and the students' choice to use or not use discretion during a stressful training simulation. The same will protocol was used for interviewing the instructors. Once the interviews were collected, I used the NVivo software program to search for a correlation of words used by the students and instructors, such as "I felt compelled to respond aggressively though I was in no immediate danger." The word compelled, forced, bound, and obligated could be used as a means of describing a strong feeling to react a certain way. The instructors' use of terms to answer questions were also used in the same NVivo program to identify correlations as seen by instructors who are actively observing the students in the training environment. This provided a total picture of the research information.

Data Analysis

When looking at an environment that is attributed to a certain outcome there are standard questions that were asked such as, has the program caused the outcome? To

what extent has the program caused the outcome? And how much of the outcome is caused by the program? Contribution questions take it a step further asking has the program made a difference. Has the program influenced the observed result? How much of a difference has the program made or contributed? (Patton, 2015). According to Patton (2015) *Contribution analysis* (Mayne, 2007, 2011, 2012; Patton 2012b) was developed as an approach in program evaluation to examine the hypothesis against logic and evidence to examine what factors could explain the findings.

According to Patton (2015) Contribution analysis will place the primary focus on likely influences, when on their own are not necessary or enough and represent the contribution role that interventions play. Contribution analysis is very similar to that of detective work which connect different pieces of information because of what was done and provide the result. This means that several variables and factors will overlap, providing alternative explanations and new hypotheses so that when the investigation is all said and done the researcher can reach an independent, reasonable judgement based on the total evidence (p.597). In this process of using this logic the research will obtain validity in the findings.

A transcriber was used to document the recorded information from the individual interviews and group interviews into a word document. These documents will then be stored on a thumb drive and file folder with the researcher's personal computer. A file of the researcher's notes and participants files was kept with the thumb drive as a means of added security. A tab within those files and word document files will have the alpha

numeric numbers/letters assigned to them in order to prevent cross contamination of data from each other interviews.

The second activity was coding using a NVivo software which was focused on developing and refining interpretations of the data that is collected. Taylor and Bogdan (1998) considered that it is important to create a story to use as an analytical thread that unites and integrates the theme of the research. The absences of a story running through data analysis will prevent the researcher from being able to ensure the cohesiveness of what Piantanida and Garmen (1999) refer to as a portrait of the phenomenon. During the coding the researcher will list themes, typologies, conceptions and suggestions. Some of these themes will likely overlap with others and some themes may lack immediate placement into the data but could be intuitive and appropriate for the storyline. The storyline for this process will not just focus on pieces in order to develop a well-produced study.

During the coding process I had to read and re-read the printed interviews several times. After the review I was able to find trends in statements, tones of voice and emotional observation documented through the interview process that would correlate with the participants. I colored code terms and phrases that were used by multiple participants in order to identify commonalities; *does the training environment of a basic law enforcement academy encourage aggressive control measures in training scenarios?* A red colored pen was used to identify the *participants' personal stance* according to Savin-Baden (2000) (p.50) or in this case perception of the training environment. A green colored pen was used to identify the interactional stance of the scenarios they were in and

how it made them feel. I also used a yellow color pen highlighting useful terms regarding emerging themes. This is also known as discounting data (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998).

Data that is not going to be used was discounted. Although this process comes across as a negative, it provided the opportunity to consider different contexts in which different kinds of data have been collected and took into account the variations of those contexts and how they might impact the collected data. An example cited by Taylor and Bogdan (1998) discusses the need to determine if a comment made and gathered was unsolicited or solicited and whether it was said in the presence of another person or in private with the researcher. It is very important to understand the context in which a statement is made in order to understand if the comments are genuine. The context of this data could be important to how the data might impact the storyline of the study.

Issues of Trustworthiness

According to some, many qualitative researchers have neglected to provide adequate information regarding their research reports, assumptions and methods; this is most notably in the area of data collection. This in turn can lead to criticisms of bias in the research (Gunawan, 2015). Trustworthiness according to Sandelowski (1993) is a matter of persuasion where the researcher makes their practices visible and auditable. She further holds a point of contention that the validity in the researcher should not be tied to truth or value since those are a positivist's concept. A study was deemed trustworthy if and only if the reader/critic judges it to be trustworthy (Sandelowski, 1993).

Trustworthiness has further divided into credibility which falls in line the positivists' concept of internal validity; dependability, which related to reliability; transferability,

which is external validity; and lastly confirmability, which was largely the presentation of the research in order to replicate the initial findings (Gunawan, 2015).

Credibility

In order to provide credibility and/or internal validity, I managed any biases by conducting the research at a neutral location where the researcher has never worked. The researcher has not taught at the State College location. The researcher provides creditable and professional standing and the necessary credentialing for police culture which would be acceptable to staff, instructors, and basic academy students for in this case study. This allowed me to use common terms which are universally shared between academies but there is no power relationships to account for since this location is a neutral venue where none of the parties involved have had prior contacts with each other and is not in a managerial role over each other. There was no prolonged contact between the research and those involved with the research. It should be noted that there is a chance after the research is completed the members of the administrative staff and researcher may see each other at sanctioned CJSTC/DLE annual meetings, but those would be far and few between and not related to the research mentioned here.

Using the positivist concept of member checking provided an opportunity to understand and assess what the participant intended to do through their actions; gave the participants the opportunity to correct errors and challenge what is perceived as wrong interpretations; provides participants the opportunity to volunteer additional information through playing back the process via recall; gets participants on the record; provides the chance to summarize preliminary findings; give the participants the opportunity to assess

adequacy of data, preliminary results, and provide confirmation of data (Creswell, 1998). Some of the draw back from this are member checking relies on the assumption that there is a fixed truth of reality that can be accounted for by the researcher and confirmed by the participants; respondents may disagree with researcher interpretations; member and stakeholders having different agendas to promote which can result in different interpretation of findings; member struggle with the abstract synthesis; member having different have a view of what is a fair account (Morse, 1994); Sandelowski, 1993; Angen, 2000).

This is a new area of research for the basic law enforcement academy so using a small sample allowed for research replication and address the issue of saturation. Saturation is not achieved by the volume of information but by the depth of the information collected (Burmeister & Aitken, 2012; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). Saturation is not achieved simply because the researcher runs out of resources or because a small number of participants (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). Guest et al. has noted that saturation can be achieved by as little as six interviews depending on the sample size of the participants. The relationship between interviewer and interviewee has to carefully be considered because of the asymmetrical nature of the relationship. This reflection allows the researcher to carefully consider how their role could impact the interviewee during data collection. The fact is that in order to achieve depth of information the qualitative researcher must get close to the participants account (Morse, 1994; Sandelowski, 1993). In order to protect against this form of bias the researcher must maintain a reflexive journal which documented how the researcher may

have influenced the results of each interview and was considered part of the research design the journal notes was added to the end of the information collected from each interview for transparency but also to offer a possible an unexpected finding in the research or secondary emerging theme.

Reliability/ Dependability

Dependability which is the qualitative counterpart to reliability in this study used multiple sources of data in this case study, such as interviews with students and faculty, document review, observing the training atmosphere, and group's discussion. This provides me with a broader pallet of information in which to draw a conclusion that provides reliability to the research findings (Gall et al., 2003; Yin, 2003; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). Yin has stated that any finding or conclusion is a case study is likely to be much more convincing and accurate if it is based on several different sources of information. Gall et al. (2003) has stated "triangulation helps to eliminate biases that might result from relying exclusively on any one data-collection method, source, analyst, or theory" (p. 464). In order to achieve data collection saturation to answer each question. This case study used more than one data source to gather information such as group conversations, individual interviews, and records review. This is a form of triangulation which checks for the consistency of different data sources within the same method (Patton, 2015; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). This gave more quality to the data collection instruments and the data collected. The use of coding during data collection is a reliable means of gathering information but has sometimes during coding had some inferences that could not be explained in the data. In order to further provide reliability in the data

collected the use of an audit trail was used in conjunction with the researcher's interview journal (Merriam, 1998; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016).

Transferability

The researcher and reviewing audience may want to look at the data in terms of rich and thick (Dibley, 2011; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). Rich data having quality and thick having quantity (Burmeister & Aitken, 2012; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). Had this been a large sample the risk of not reaching saturation would be a serious threat to the research and would have to be postponed until saturation could be met. The issue with delaying research runs the risk of losing willing participants. As previously stated, to answer the research questions this research was looking for rich depth of information from multiple sources which ensured saturation and not the volume of participants. The richness of the description in the study gives the discussion an element of shared experiences; the description is the vessel for communicating the reader a holistic and realistic picture. It was also crucial to gather as much detailed information regarding context which also offered an element of shared experiences (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). Depth, richness and detailed description was provided the basis for this qualitative account. This approach could also be used if a researcher wanted to focus on the students' perception of their instructors in the basic law enforcement academy environment.

Confirmability

The concept of this case study tried to correspond to the notion of objectivity in this qualitative approach. Where the implication of findings is the result of the research and not researcher biases and or subjectivity (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). In order to

achieve this the researcher has shown that the public and law enforcement have a clear breakdown in communication, which was recently reinforced by the FLDE and CJSTC decision to include new communication training into the current basic law enforcement curriculum. This confirms the basic law enforcement academy in a southern state believes there is some connection to this issue. The researcher provided the participants a copy of the transcribed information to ensure that the researcher is capturing an accurate representation of the participants' interpretation of information. As such the use of an audit trail previously mentioned used to demonstrate dependability is further reinforced by including for review for the reader a copy of journaling, field notes, and transcripts to assess the findings of this study (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). Again, the goal is to rely on the research findings and provide enough protocols to insure no researcher bias or subjectivity.

Summary

The Chapter 3 Research Design and Methodology was divided into five different sections. The first section discussed the uses of a case study approach in this research. The second section focused on the role of the researcher during the case study. The third section discusses the participants, research context, and location of where the data was collected. Section four described how the data was collected, managed, and analyzed. Chapter 4 upon approval presented the findings of the research study.

Chapter 4: Results

Overview of Chapter

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to investigate whether the paramilitary police academy training environment affects the students' ability to use verbal conflict resolution skills in place of aggressive physical control methods. This study used the crossing streams theory by Sabatier and Weible (2014) to capture the student perception of the basic law enforcement academy paramilitary training environment and how that environment affects the students' ability to communicate in stressful training situations. This study was conducted to investigate whether the basic law enforcement academy training environment contributes to the students' ability to use discretion in training scenarios and encourage more aggressive responses to control a training scenario. The following four research questions were used to guide this study:

RQ1: What are the key components of a paramilitary training environment, and which of those components promote aggression as a means of control within a police academy?

RQ2: Does the paramilitary training environment foster aggression in police academy students in order to control situations?

RQ3: Do the lived experiences of the instructional staff in the police academy diminish the academy students' ability to use non-physical conflict resolution skills?

RQ4: How much time is dedicated to de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics?

Chapter 4 comprises seven sections. The first section is a description of the setting of data collection. The second section is a description of the relevant demographic

characteristics of the study participants. In the third section, the implementation of the data collection procedure is reported, and in the fourth section, the implementation of the data analysis procedure is discussed. The fifth section indicates the procedures used in this study to strengthen the trustworthiness of the findings, and the sixth section is a presentation of the results. In the seventh section, this chapter is concluded with a summary.

Research Context

The collection of data was captured in the basic law enforcement academy in November 2019. This school is in a southern state and serves as one of 40 basic law enforcement academies in the State of A southern state. The training received is a required certificate program for all officers looking to be hired by agencies in the state such as city municipal police, county sheriff's, airport authority, university police and specialized departments such as highway patrol and fish and wildlife. This training facility also provides periodic training for already certified sworn officers which is referred to as advanced and specialized training with a concentration on industry updates, knowledge and skills in specialized areas such as DUI detection, middle management, and interview techniques to name a few. The training facility is divided into three areas: training coordination, administration, and support.

The training facility is a state-of-the-art building situated on several acres of land with. The building includes exercise rooms, defensive tactics rooms with required safety equipment, and smart classrooms with access to the internet and the latest training media. The large exercise rooms are also used for training scenario activities. This training

facility does not require students to live on site unlike state fish and wildlife and state highway patrol training facilities.

Sample Selection

At the time of the study there were two basic law enforcement academies in session: academy class A which was at the very end of their training, and academy class B which was one third of the way through their training. There were no nighttime academy classes that were taking place. This did however provide me with the opportunity to capture data from a class that was just ending and a class that was approximately midway through their training. Each of these academy classes had a coordinator assigned to them who supervised their training. These coordinators were employed by law enforcement agencies with the full-time responsibility of overseeing training for academy classes. Each academy class held elections for peer leadership positions, and the students voted on who they thought would be best for those positions; however the final approval was made by the academy coordinators. Peer leadership consisted of a class leader, squad leaders, and records keeper. The class leader reported directly to the coordinator for any class issues and class communications. Squad leaders were assigned peers and responsible for those peers regarding uniform or rules violations. The records keeper held attendance and other class paperwork relevant to the program.

The faculty for these basic law enforcement academy classes came from different law enforcement agencies with varying levels of experience and industry expertise. Some faculty were retired, and some would be currently assigned to specialized divisions within their own agencies. For many of the lecture-based classes there would be only one

or two faculty assigned. However, for any hands-on type of training firearms, vehicle operations, defensive tactics, and first aid there would be an assigned lead faculty instructor who would oversee several other faculty instructors while training the students in each topic and lesson.

The sample selections began with me giving an oral recruitment invitation to students who wanted to volunteer for the study. The academy class coordinator permitted me time to present and reach out to those who might be interested. Each academy class records keeper compiled a list of interested students. The coordinators then provided this list from each class. Originally, there was only going to be a small sample of students. I, along with one of the academy coordinators, conducted a file review of each of the participants. There were no disciplinary issues or criminal background issues for any of the academy students in either class. One of the main criteria for selection was made clear when I asked for volunteers without current or retired family members with law enforcement experience. The results of those who volunteered exceeded the original projected sample size. There were initially nine students from class A and eight students from class B. In addition, there were two instructors, giving a total number of 19 participants (n=19). Due to a scheduling conflict, two students from class B missed their interview times (-2) as did one from class A (-1), which still provided a larger than expected sample size of 16 (n=16).

Demographics

The participants were volunteers from two different basic law enforcement academies. Each basic academy class consisted of approximately 30 students. Of the 16

participants, two were women, and 14 were men; 10 were white, three were Hispanic, and three were African American. Two instructors volunteered to participate in the interviews and research study. One instructor was a white man, and the other was an African American man. There were 16 research participants in total ($N=16$). Tables 2, 3, and 4 are summaries of the sample profiles for gender, race/ethnicity, and age, respectively.

Table 2

CJSTC Basic Academy Research Participants, 11/20/2019 (N=16)

Gender	<i>f</i>	Percent
Male	14	87
Female	2	13
Total	16	100

Table 3

CJSTC Basic Academy Research Participants, 11/20/2019 (N=16)

Race/ethnicity	<i>f</i>	Percent
White	10	62
African American	3	19
Hispanic	3	19
Other	0	0
Total	16	100

Table 4

CJSTC Basic Academy Research Participants, 11/20/2019 (N=16)

Age range (years)	<i>f</i>	Percent
21 – 25	7	44
26 – 30	6	38
31 – 35	2	13
>45	1	6
Total	16	100

All 14 student participants were in one of two basic law enforcement academies (BLE 19-05 and BLE 19-04) that were running at the time. Every student who participated in this research study was assigned an alphanumeric identifier beginning with the letter “A” (i.e., A1, A2, etc.) to maintain confidentiality. The instructors were assigned alphanumeric identifiers beginning with the letter “B.” Table 4 indicates the alphanumeric identifiers assigned to participants to ensure confidentiality. The sample size of 16 was determined when data saturation was reached with this number of participants, as discussed in the Data Analysis section of this chapter. Because of the nature of the questions being asked with participants, many of whom were in differing stages of training, the basic academy class number designation was not utilized.

Table 5

CJSTC Basic Academy Research Participants, 11/20/2019 (N=16)

		Alpha Numeric ID
Participant	16	
Academy		
Status	Active	
Student	14	A1,A2,A3,A4,A5,A6,A7,A8,A9,A10,A11,A12,A13,A14
Faculty	2	B1,B2
Total	16	

Data Collection

The inclusion criteria for participation in this research study required that participants have no family in the law enforcement industry and no disciplinary issues. On October 30, 2019, I met with class coordinators for the two law enforcement academies. A records review of each student that participated in the study allowed me to verify that none of the participants had any disciplinary issues during the academy or prior to entering the basic law enforcement academy at the time they were interviewed. Prior to each interview, participants were asked again if they have family in law enforcement, and participants confirmed that they did not.

Sixteen interviews were conducted over the course of several days between October 31, 2019 and November 5, 2019. This included the file review and researcher observation of instructor and student interactions in the training environment. Fourteen of the 16 interviews were conducted with basic recruit students. Eight of these students were nearing the end of the training at the time of interview, while six were at their midway point in training. The remaining two interviews were conducted with faculty instructors.

The first instructor focused on classroom lecture, and the other was the defensive tactics lead instructor. I observed both instructors interacting with basic academy students.

The protocols for the interview questions were understood by all participants, as indicated by participants' giving relevant responses to the questions and not asking for clarification. The questions asked were evenly divided into direct and indirect questions in order to paint a clearer picture. The direct questions asked provoked very short responses and, in some cases, answers of yes or no with little elaboration. The indirect questions were aimed at provoking more distinct information regarding police academy experience. All the interviews took place at the Center for Public Safety training facility in a vacant classroom without visual or auditory distractions. The interviews were conducted during the lunch hour and evenings. However, the evening times became problematic with students' schedules, and changed to lunch times only. The time spent with each participant did impact the lunch of those students. The duration of the interviews ranged from 30 to 60 minutes, and the interviews were audio recorded with a handheld, digital recording device. There were no deviations from the data collection procedure described in Chapter 3, and no unusual circumstances were encountered.

Analysis of Data

In preparing the interview data for analysis, the researcher transcribed the audio recorded interviews verbatim and uploaded the transcripts into NVivo 12 software. Data were analyzed using an inductive, thematic procedure of the kind described by researchers such as Creswell (2003) and Patton (2002). The analysis procedure began with reading and rereading the data in full to gain familiarity with them and identify

points of potential analytical interest. Next, the data were coded. Coding the data involved grouping together statements from the transcripts that expressed similar themes or ideas. In NVivo, coding the data involved placing each group of similar data excerpts into a separate node, which was labeled with a word or phrase to indicate the meaning of its contents expressed. Table 5 is a list of the codes identified during this step of the analysis.

Table 6

Data Analysis Codes

Code	<i>n</i> of participants contributing to code (<i>N</i> =16)	% of participants contributing to code
Students nominate peer leaders	16	100%
Nomination of peer leaders by vote	9	56%
Students' peer leader nominations subject to coordinator approval	5	31%
Military background is an asset to aspiring peer leaders	4	25%
Military background is not a requirement for peer leadership	9	56%
Discipline standards are high but not military	5	31%
Military discipline is not applied	7	44%
No military background, but perceive discipline as military	4	25%
Formations with uniform inspection are not conducted routinely	16	100%
Instructors cite infractions and peer leaders oversee compliance with punishments	4	25%
Instructors cite infractions and assign punishments	7	44%
Physical training is a common punishment	10	62%

(table continues)

Code	<i>n</i> of participants contributing to code (<i>N</i> =16)	% of participants contributing to code
Writing memoranda is a common punishment	3	19%
Obedience is expected but questions are allowed	16	100%
Physical force is taught for use as a last resort only	16	100%
Promoting reliance on the least aggressive solution for a given scenario	16	100%
Instructors draw from their experiences to teach the class lessons	16	100%
Instructors emphasize adaptability from an officer safety standpoint	10	62%
Instructors emphasize officer safety	6	38%
Instructors frequently draw on their personal experiences to discuss effective communication	16	100%
Instructional time is balanced between aggressive and non-aggressive tactics	8	50%
Instructional time allocations favor non-aggressive tactics	8	50%

The third step of data analysis involved searching the data for themes. Themes were identified by grouping similar codes into a smaller number of categories that represented larger patterns of meaning in participants' responses. In NVivo, theming the data involved grouping nodes representing similar codes under a single parent node, which was given a preliminary label to indicate the meaning of its contents. Data saturation was also assessed during this step of the analysis. When the analysis of the transcripts from two consecutive interviews (i.e., the 15th and 16th) resulted in the creation of no new codes or themes, the researcher determined that data saturation was reached. This procedure was consistent with the definition of data saturation as the point when additional collection and analysis of data yield no new themes or insights (see Guest et al., 2006; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). Table 6 indicates how the codes listed in Table 5 were grouped to form the major themes.

Table 7

Grouping of Codes into Themes

Theme	Codes grouped to form theme
Theme 1. Students Nominate Peer Leaders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students nominate peer leaders • Nomination of peer leaders by vote • Students' peer leader nominations subject to coordinator approval • Military background is an asset to aspiring peer leaders • Military background is not a requirement for peer leadership
Theme 2. The Environment Is Disciplined, but Military Discipline Is Not Applied	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discipline standards are high but not military • Military discipline is not applied • No military background, but perceive discipline as military • Formations with uniform inspection are not conducted routinely • Instructors cite infractions and peer leaders oversee compliance with punishments • Instructors cite infractions and assign punishments • Physical training is a common punishment • Writing memoranda is a common punishment • Obedience is expected but questions are allowed
Theme 3. Students are taught to use the least aggressive solution a situation allows	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physical force is taught for use as a last resort only • Promoting reliance on the least aggressive solution for a given scenario
Theme 4. Instructors describe lived experiences to encourage situational adaptability, including the use of non-physical conflict resolution skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instructors draw from their experiences to teach the class lessons • Instructors emphasize adaptability from an officer safety standpoint • Instructors emphasize officer safety • Instructors frequently draw on their personal experiences to discuss effective communication
Theme 5. Allocation of instructional time is equal or favors de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instructional time is balanced between aggressive and non-aggressive tactics • Instructional time allocations favor non-aggressive tactics

Note. Table 7 indicates the number of coded data excerpts included in each theme.

Table 8

Data Analysis: Number of Data Excerpts Included in Themes

Theme	Number of data excerpts included in theme
Theme 1. Students Nominate Peer Leaders	61
Theme 2. The Environment Is Disciplined, but Military Discipline Is Not Applied	88
Theme 3. Students are taught to use the least aggressive solution a situation allows	32
Theme 4. Instructors describe lived experiences to encourage situational adaptability, including the use of non-physical conflict resolution skills	48
Theme 5. Allocation of instructional time is equal or favors de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics	16

Note. All 16 participants (100%) supported all five themes.

Next, the themes were reviewed and refined. In this step, the interview transcripts were reread in full to ensure the themes and codes accurately represented participants' responses. The verified themes were then named and defined. The themes were named to indicate their significance as answers to the research questions. Member-checking was conducted at this stage by emailing the names and a brief description of the emergent themes to the participants with a request that they either confirm that the themes were consistent with their experiences or recommend corrections. No participants recommended corrections. The final step of the analysis involved creating the presentation of results in this chapter. Table 8 indicates how the themes were used to answer the research questions.

Table 9

Themes Used to Answer Research Questions

Research question answered by theme(s)	Theme
RQ1. What are the key components of a paramilitary training environment and which of those components promote aggression as a means of control within a police academy?	Theme 1. Students Nominate Peer Leaders Theme 2. The Environment Is Disciplined, but Military Discipline Is Not Applied
RQ2. Does the paramilitary training environment foster aggression in police academy students in order to control situations?	Theme 3. Students are taught to use the least aggressive solution a situation allows
RQ3. Do the lived experiences of the instructional staff in the police academy diminish the academy students' ability to use non-physical conflict resolution skills?	Theme 4. Instructors describe lived experiences to encourage situational adaptability, including the use of non-physical conflict resolution skills
RQ4. How much time is dedicated to de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics?	Theme 5. Allocation of instructional time is equal or favors de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics

Evidence of Trustworthiness

The trustworthiness of qualitative findings is enhanced through procedures that strengthen the four components of trustworthiness identified by Lincoln and Guba (1985). The four components of trustworthiness are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability, which correspond to the quantitative constructs of internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity, respectively. The following

subsections indicate the procedures used to strengthen each component of trustworthiness in this study.

Credibility

Findings are credible when they accurately describe the reality they are intended to describe (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Credibility was strengthened in this study by ensuring that the researcher had no power relationships with participants and that the confidentiality of participants' identities would be maintained. These procedures were used to minimize any fear of negative consequences that might influence participants to provide inaccurate responses. The member-checking procedure also strengthened credibility by allowing participants to verify that the findings accurately represented their experiences. Lastly, audio recording the interviews and transcribing the recordings verbatim minimized the possibility that participants' responses were inaccurately documented.

Transferability

Findings are transferable if they hold true of samples and populations other than those in the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To assist future researchers in assessing whether the findings in this study are transferable to their research contexts, detailed descriptions of the study setting, sample, and data are provided.

Dependability

Findings are dependable when they can be reproduced in the same research context at a different time (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Detailed descriptions of the study procedures have been provided to allow future researchers to replicate this study if

necessary. The member-checking procedure also contributed to strengthening the dependability of the findings, as did the achievement of data saturation, which indicated that the data were a comprehensive representation of the phenomena of interest as seen from the perspectives of 16 participants.

Confirmability

Findings are confirmable when they represent the participants' views rather than the researcher's (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Member-checking contributed to the confirmability of the findings in this study. Additionally, in the Results section of this chapter, evidence for all findings is provided in the form of direct quotations from the data. This evidence allowed the reader to assess confirmability independently.

Presentation of Data

This presentation of the results of the data analysis is organized by research questions. Within the discussion of the answers to each research question, results are organized by theme. The presentation of each theme includes evidence in the form of direct quotations from the data.

RQ1. What Are the Key Components of a Paramilitary Training Environment, and Which of Those Components Promote Aggression as a Means of Control Within a Police Academy?

Two major themes emerged during data analysis to answer this research question. Theme 1 was: Students elect peer leaders. Theme 2 was: The environment is disciplined, but military discipline is not applied. The following subsections are discussions of these themes.

Theme 1. Students Nominate Peer Leaders

All 16 participants indicated that a key component of the paramilitary training environment is that students nominate peer leaders for appointment by the class coordinator. One peer leader was nominated for the class (“class president” or “class leader”), and one peer leader was nominated for each squad (“squad leader”).

Participants indicated that during the second week of training, students interested in volunteering to serve as peer leaders submit a memo and prepare a campaign speech. A13 stated of the volunteering process: “Students volunteer and sell themselves on how well they can do the position.” Campaign speeches are delivered to peers during class, and the class votes for class coordinator by show of hands. A4 explained, “Fellow students, they stood, did a little speech and it would be voted that way.” A8 also reported that peers nominated peers, stating, “The students voted on peer leadership through an election.” A2 discussed the process of volunteering, campaigning, and voting:

Those who wanted to go out for the [peer-leadership] roles sent in a memo, and they would prepare a little campaign speech and present it to the class. The class unanimously voted, and the coordinator [B1/B2] tallied up the votes and presented it to the class. (A2)

Participants indicated that class coordinators had veto power over students’ peer-leader choices, such that the peer votes were nominations rather than elections. A11 stated, “I suspect that [the class coordinator] had a hand in [the student election] for the final decision.” Similarly, A10 stated, “In our class, [peer leaders] were selected by us, and the coordinator would make his determination.” B2 confirmed that students were

correct in understanding that class coordinators had the final say in appointments to peer leadership positions: “[Students] take a vote within their class, [but] that doesn’t always work. We will select someone if the person elected is not a good fit.”

When participants described the qualities that contributed to some students’ being nominated by their peers, they referred to the successful candidates as having strong leadership skills, and they indicated that a military background was an asset to a candidate, though not a prerequisite for nomination. A6 said of nominated peer leaders that they “have really good leadership skills,” but added that having a military background “definitely helps” in winning the peer vote. A3 stated that fellow students tended to prefer candidates who had military experience:

Four of the five [peer leaders] do have military backgrounds, I do think it helps. It basically comes down to, for those of us who don't have military experience, those people with military experience have the edge, and for those without military experience, they tend to push toward those who do have that military experience. (A3)

A5 stated of the nominated peer leaders: “I’d say half were chosen because of military background and the others had some civilian leadership qualities, like in business.” However, A10 suggested that a military background was not necessary, provided that the candidate campaigned well and related well with peers: “A lot of [campaign success] was based on their speeches and they interacted with others in the class.” A7 agreed, stating that, while military experience was not necessary for a nomination to peer leadership, such experience was an asset during the campaign: “Some

leadership positions are filled with people who have no military background, but I feel like it helps, for sure.”

Theme 2. The Environment Is Disciplined, but Military Discipline Is Not Applied

All 16 participants indicated that a key component of the paramilitary training environment is that a high standard of discipline and accountability is maintained, but that military disciplinary standards and methods are not applied. A2, in disagreement with other participants, perceived military discipline being applied during physical training (PT), but admitted having no first-hand military experience:

During PT they do [apply military discipline] in order to push us, I wasn't in the military, so I don't know to what extent drill sergeants act, but they do push us and hold us accountable and integrity is their number one thing. If you cheat yourself on pushups, they will call you out for cheating yourself on pushups. (A2)

A4 described disciplinary standards as comparable to military ones but indicated that class coordinators in the paramilitary training environment were “less intense” than military trainers: “I wouldn't say like a drill sergeant, because [class coordinators] are not that intense, but I would say they have expectations similar to a drill sergeant.” A13 described a training environment with high standards but with a collegial culture: “I think the discipline is there, but [class coordinators] are not like condescending or anything like that, they are encouraging.” A5 compared first-hand military experience to the paramilitary training environment and agreed with other participants that the environment was more collegial and less intense:

I wouldn't say [that military discipline is applied]. I am in the Army, and I would say it is a lot more relaxed, not as much yelling, more coach-based here, less in your face than a drill sergeant would be in the Army. You can talk to [class coordinators here]. (A5)

A second way in which participants perceived the paramilitary training environment as differing from their experiences or perceptions of military discipline was that formations with uniform inspections were not routinely conducted. Although some participants stated that such formations were conducted ($n=6$), and other participants said they were not ($n=10$), all participants agreed stating that they had only conducted a formation with a uniform inspection once at time of study. A2 provided a representative response in stating:

No we have not [had formations with uniform inspections], we did at the beginning because uniforms were new with our squad leaders and they would just check it in the morning and then after that it kind of faded off cause everybody was meeting the uniform requirements. So, I would say it was temporary at the beginning. (A2)

A7 explained that uniform standards were maintained in class by peer leaders: "No, we do not [hold formations with uniform inspections]. We are held to a standard, and it is held up by the squad leaders in class." B1 and B2, when asked, "Do you conduct formations with a uniform inspection?" both replied, "Yes." Their response was consistent with students' responses that one such inspection had been conducted, and B1 and B2 did not indicate whether such inspections were conducted routinely. Students

were unanimous in stating that only one such inspection had been held. A10, who answered that “Yes,” formations with uniform inspections were conducted, provided a response consistent with those of participants who reported only one inspection to date in stating, “We’ve done that once already and there will probably be more in the future.” Thus, A10’s perception of recurring inspections was based on a prediction of future instances, but A10’s experience at time of study was consistent with those of other participants in not including routine formations with uniform inspections of the kind conducted in the military.

Class coordinators identify uniform violations and determine punishments, and squad-leaders are tasked with ensuring compliance. A14 said of this process of delegation that punishment is “directed by staff, and it’s up to peer leadership to ensure that the staff orders are carried out.” Similarly, A8 stated that punishments are “given by the staff and watched by the student leadership to make sure that you are doing the corrective training.”

Common punitive measures for uniform violations include verbal warnings, writing memos to leadership about policies, and PT. A3 described disciplinary measures as comprising, “More pushups, more calisthenics workout, saying hey this is kind of what is expected of you.” A11 said of punishments, “So far at this point time it was just push-ups,” and A2 reported that punishments include extra “pushups, sit-ups, jumping jacks.” A14 stated that punishments are mild but escalate over repeated violations: “Based on severity could be a memo, or corrective training being a physical work out, such as pushups, but it will compound for every infraction that you have.” A7 stated that

students caught in violation are “mostly told to write a memo to the coordinator and the director.” B2 confirmed that punishments include “a memo or extra pushups or extra physical activity.”

A third way in which disciplinary standards in the paramilitary training environment are less stringent than in the military, according to participants, is the level of obedience expected from students. In the military, a do-as-I-say-without-question approach was used, but in the paramilitary training environment, students were able to raise questions under certain circumstances. It is important to note that class coordinators and students understood that a high standard of discipline is expected of students, including compliance with coordinators’ orders. A2, for example, stated, “[Class coordinators] say to do something, I just do it, I don’t question it, it’s just a way to teach as long as it is in a respectful manner.” Similarly, A3 stated, “When an instructor or staff member asks you to do something, you just do it.” Insubordination is not tolerated, A7 said: “Our instructors are very open, but they will not allow you to disrespect them.” However, students reported that they were able to see class coordinators in their offices privately if they wanted to raise concerns or ask questions, and the students perceived class coordinators as open and approachable in that setting. Additionally, students perceived class coordinators as receptive to questions during classes when students needed clarification of instructions. A10 stated: “Most of the instructors like feedback and want to know if anything is unclear so they can help clarify it and want to make sure we are doing the right thing when we are out in the field.” A8 said of the instructors, “They are very open to questions.” A7 stated, “[Instructors] are all approachable, but you

need to be respectful.” B1 confirmed students’ perceptions of instructor openness in stating, “It is very conversational . . . I look at [students] as peers, not students.”

RQ2. Does the Paramilitary Training Environment Foster Aggression in Police Academy Students in Order to Control Situations?

One theme emerged to answer this research question. The theme was: Students are taught to use the least aggressive solution a situation allows. Discussion of this theme follows.

Theme 3. Students Are Taught to Use the Least Aggressive Solution a Situation Allows

All 16 participants indicated that students in the paramilitary training environment were taught to attempt verbal solutions as a first step during an encounter and to escalate to physical control only as a last resort. Thus, aggression was not fostered, but was instead taught as a last-resort tactic to employ only when a situation escalated beyond nonviolent solutions. A1 said of instructors, “They actually shy away from hands-on. It’s more of a last-straw kind of thing.”

A8 agreed with A1, saying of instructors: “They go over a lot of verbal control mostly, talk down a suspect rather than going to physical control measures.” A3 reported that students learned a range of responses, from verbal solutions to deadly force:

We’ve had training scenarios where we had to use verbal skills and then somewhere, we had to use deadly force, so a mix of both. I guess it would depend on that scenario, a shoot or don’t shoot, and then other scenarios where you just talk to someone. (A3)

Students emphasized that physical force and verbal solutions were not taught as equal options, but that physical force was taught as a last resort to be employed when other solutions failed. A5 stated that students were taught to use “verbal before going hands, making the scene safe with the least amount of force used as possible.” A13 said of the relationship between verbal solutions and force: “Depending on the situation, if we can control the situation better with verbal, great, it means less use of force. We are taught to not be afraid to use force, but to use verbal first.” A10 stated of instructors and their perceived expectations:

They definitely want us to know physical control and not letting it get out of hand, using force that is outside the matrix, but they really want to make sure that we talk our way to accomplish our goal, to get cooperation. (A10)

A2 stated that force was taught for use only in “worst-case scenarios”: “They teach us to use words, so it doesn’t become physical. Communication is key. But they teach us how to properly use [force] in case it does come to a worst-case scenario.” A14 said of instructors and their preference for verbal solutions: “They stress that if you are good enough you can talk your way out of a lot of these situations. They prefer to communicate first before any physical action here.” A3 attributed the preference for verbal solutions over force to many instructors:

I think our instructors want us to talk to people but want us to be prepared as a last resort to go hands-on. Numerous instructors have stated that if you talk to people, you can manage yourself a lot easier out on the streets. (A3)

B1 confirmed students' perceptions that instructors prioritized non-aggressive solutions over physical force, stating, "I tend to teach more verbal communication than hands-on. If the situation calls for it, then we teach that they can go hands-on, but I promote verbal communication." B2 also confirmed students' perceptions of the emphasis on verbal control as a first resort, stating, "Your number one asset is your ability to communicate."

RQ3. Does the Live Experience of the Instructional Staff in the Police Academy Diminish the Academy Students' Ability to Use Non-Physical Conflict Resolution Skills?

One theme emerged to answer this research question. The theme was: Instructors describe lived experiences to encourage situational adaptability, including the use of non-physical conflict resolution skills. Discussion of this theme follows.

Theme 4. Instructors Describe Lived Experiences to Encourage Situational Adaptability, Including the Use of Non-Physical Conflict Resolution Skills

All participants reported that instructors drew from their lived experiences to teach the class lessons and that the experiences instructors drew from were mostly officer safety related. Taken in conjunction with Theme 3, data associated with this theme indicated that instructors taught students to adapt their solutions to specific situations, to prioritize officer safety, and to resort to force only when necessary. Thus, instructors' drawing from their lived experiences taught students that safety was paramount, and that they should always rely on the least aggressive means of ensuring safety. A13, for example, stated that instructors emphasized: "Always officer safety, and depending on the situation. If we need to use force, it would depend on the situation." A11 reported

that instructors drew from their own experiences to emphasize adaptability through the versatile use of situation-dependent solutions: “I’d say it is a fair balance of physical control, officer safety, and speaking with people.”

A3 stated that instructors who drew from their own experiences addressed the use of force at least in part because of the current prominence of the topic in public debate: “A lot [of instructors’ reported experiences] were from officer safety perspective, use of force maybe some. That is a hot topic these days to talk about, so it has definitely been talked about in class.” A14 reported that an instructor described an experience of using force as a caution for students against using force unadvisedly: “[Instructors] relate it back to officer safety. Example given by an instructor that once he instinctively went hands-on during an operation, and that was not his role, and he got in trouble for it.”

All participants stated that instructors frequently draw on their personal experiences to discuss effective communication during classes. A10 stated, “Pretty much every class, every instructor has given us a time when they have had to communicate with the suspect or victim.” A13 reported that instructors used personal experiences to teach “communication to gain compliance all the time,” while A11 reported that instructors did so “every other day, if not more.” A7 stated that instructors drew on personal experiences to teach communication “Quite often, displayed throughout, the easiest way to display that is through their experiences.”

RQ4. How Much Time Is Dedicated to De-escalation and Non-aggressive Tactics?

One theme emerged to answer this research question. The theme was: Allocation of instructional time is equal or favors de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics.

Discussion of this theme follows.

Theme 5. Allocation of Instructional Time Is Equal or Favors De-Escalation and Non-Aggressive Tactics

All participants expressed approval of the mixed allocation of instructional time between aggressive and non-aggressive tactics. Participants stated that instructional time was either allocated evenly between the two categories of tactics, or that more instructional time was allocated to de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics. A4 described the allocations of time between aggressive and non-aggressive tactics as approximately equal: "I feel like they are pretty even." A2 described the allocations of instructional time as a "perfect mixture, honestly" and A14 agreed, stating, "Good balance, every scenario we use our discretion."

Other participants described non-aggressive tactics as the predominant focus of instruction. A3 reported, "More scenarios in the classroom where it is just verbal," and A10 said, "For the most part, it is a lot of verbal communication scenarios." A1 stated, "[Instructors] want to teach us more how to communicate with people and not put our hands-on people, invading their privacy." B1 confirmed the perceptions of students who described verbal control as the predominant focus of instruction, stating, "In what I teach, it's mostly verbal, but we do talk about the physical control should the need arise."

Document Analysis and Observations

On several different days that the researcher attended the facility the researcher wore very similar dress to fit in with the current instructors of the academy. This was intentional to not look out of place, interfere or provide distractions while observing the students at a distance. The researcher took notes of interactions between students and instructors. For the purposes of these observations the researcher will refer to the classes as senior class and junior class. Furthermore, observations from the hands-on portions of training such as officer wellness and defensive tactics was a collective view since the periods of observation combined the senior and junior classes. On 10/29/2019 at approximately 11:30 a.m. just prior to lunch the researcher was able observe instructors and students interacting during a lecture course for the senior class. The researcher noted approximately 30 students in the classroom. The researcher observed that many of the interactions during the classroom instructions phase were interactive where multiple students would ask for clarification on a part of a lesson. The instructor's response was clear and provided answers for each of what the research would call a lot of "what if" type questions. It appeared that the students from the senior class were more relaxed than their junior peers when it came to asking questions of their instructors. This could be because the junior class has still not settled into their formal classroom setting or are still adjusting to the regiment of the training academy itself. However, the researcher did observe that when this "what if" line of questioning started to take place for too long, the instructor would go back to the curriculum and move the lesson along to not get stuck in one spot for too long. At 4:00 p.m. the researcher observed the interaction between

students and instructors during officer wellness (physical training). The research observed that there were approximately 30 to 60 students participating in different activities. The researcher observed a small amount of yelling from the instructors while the instructors and students were running together, but it appeared to be more coaching based not a dictation or a belittling based approach. Researcher notes also revealed that many instructors acted as encouragers when providing critiques of students. However, this observation was very limited depending on the block of instruction the students were receiving. This was due to researcher's safety and to not provide a distraction while techniques were being practiced by students during the defensive tactics block of instruction.

During the defensive tactics course the techniques were not open for discussion they had to be demonstrated the same way the technique was presented to the students, but this again was followed up with encouragement not belittling. In contrast during physical training the instructors encouraged students to do their best. This was accomplished without demands or belittling of the students. During scenarios where students engaged potential threats the researcher observed that the students responded differently based on the actions of the person they were in contact with, in other words they reacted to stimulus differently. After each of the observed training encounters the instructors would ask them questions and point out areas that the students had not accounted for or in one observed case never even considered. This critique was not derogatory or demeaning but was techniques and application of those techniques were reinforced consistently among all students.

On October 31, 2019 at 11:30 a.m. the researcher observed interaction between the students and instructors again during the same block of instruction with the same instructor. Researcher observed the same inaction as previously mentioned for the day prior, which revealed a level of consistency from this instructor and his interaction with the recruit students. The afternoon of October 31, 2020 the researcher noted different officer wellness instructors for the same group of students observed the day before. Several of these instructors appeared more intense with their encouragement but not the point of intimidation. Researcher did conduct any further observations until 11/4/2019. On 11/4/2019 at 11:30 a.m. researchers observed the senior class of students who were no longer in training but were conducting reviews before taking their state officers certification exam. The recruited students were no longer dressed in uniform but were wearing casual clothing. On several occasions I observed the interactions between these now completed students and their instructors which appeared to be more of a relationship of equals and not students and instructor. Just prior to 1:00 p.m. I observed students from the junior class interacting with those same instructors in passing in the hallway which appeared to be more of the student and instructor interaction, meaning a more defined relationship and understanding of roles.

Summary of Observations

The observations provided some insight that is not well known to the public sector regarding basic law enforcement training and how future officers react to their training environment. The researcher has reached the conclusion that the training environment does play a part into how students react in stressful situations, but this is not

predicated on the idea of being treated overly aggressively by their instructors or the idea that it is a do as I say not as I do because I am in charge of my mind-set. For this training facility the model of interaction, encouragement and thinking your way through your options appears to be the cornerstone of the training. Students are trained to respond under stress to what they see in these training situations and not respond out of kind if the situation does not call for it. These researchers' observations see this type of mentor/coaching throughout all aspects of the training which challenges the theory that the paramilitary environment police academy training environment contributes to police aggression.

Summary

Four research questions were used to guide this study. The first research question was: What are the key components of a paramilitary training environment and which of those components promote aggression as a means of control within a police academy? The following two themes were identified to answer this question: (1) Students nominate peer leaders; and (2) The environment is disciplined, but military discipline is not applied. The second research question was: Does the paramilitary training environment foster aggression in police academy students in order to control situations? The theme used to answer this research question was: Students are taught to use the least aggressive solution a situation allows. Research question 3 was: Do the lived experiences of the instructional staff in the police academy diminish the academy students' ability to use non-physical conflict resolution skills? The major theme that emerged to answer this research question was: Instructors describe lived experiences to encourage situational

adaptability, including the use of non-physical conflict resolution skills. The fourth research question was: How much time is dedicated to de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics? The theme that emerged to answer this research question was: Allocation of instructional time is equal or favors de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics. Chapter 5 includes discussion, interpretations, and implications based on these findings.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Overview of Chapter

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the results of the study. The chapter is subdivided into sections: the purpose, methodology, research questions, conclusion, implications, and recommendations of the study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative research was to investigate whether the paramilitary police academy training environment affects the students' ability to use verbal conflict resolution skills in place of aggressive physical control methods. I used the crossing streams theory (Sabatier and Weible, 2014) to capture the student perception of the basic law enforcement academy paramilitary training environment and how that environment affects the students' ability to communicate in stressful training situations.

Key Findings

I interviewed a total of 16 participants consisting of both students and instructors. Five key themes emerged from the qualitative analysis that I conducted on the responses provided by the participants. As per the first theme, it was evident that democracy prevailed in the institutions since students were allowed to nominate their peer leaders. However, there were some factors that significantly determined the type of leaders that were elected. First, the nomination process was subjected to coordinator approval, implying that the elected leaders could only assume office after being approved by the coordinators. Military background was an important political asset for students aspiring to become peer leaders, even though it was not a formal requirement stipulated by the

police academy. While these factors may have slightly reduced the level of democracy in the police academy, they did not emerge as dominant themes. The second theme that emerged was that the training environment was disciplined, although military discipline was not applied. As such, the students did not undergo serious military discipline that would have instilled in them an aggressive attitude. The third theme illustrated more coherently that the training environment did not encourage students to develop and apply aggressive tactics especially during community policing. Specifically, as per the third theme, instructors regularly encouraged students to use the least aggressive method during their policing operations. However, there were no proper guidelines on when and how to deploy aggressive tactics. Nevertheless, according to the fourth theme, instructors used their lived experiences to give the students examples of situations in which aggressive or non-aggressive tactics were used. It was expected that from the instructors' lived experiences, students would learn to differentiate between situations requiring aggressive tactics and those requiring non-aggressive tactics. The last theme that emerged was that instructional time allocation was either equal or favored conflict de-escalation or non-aggressive tactics. As per the last theme, it was also evident that the training environment did not support physical aggression in the students.

Research Questions

The questions the researcher investigated include:

RQ1: What are the key components of a paramilitary training environment, and which of those components promote aggression as a means of control within a police academy?

RQ2: Does the paramilitary training environment foster aggression in police academy students in order to control situations?

RQ3: Do the lived experiences of the instructional staff in the police academy diminish the academy students' ability to use non-physical conflict resolution skills?

RQ4: How much time is dedicated to de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics?

Interpretation of the Findings

Research Question 1

In the first research question, the researcher aimed at determining the key components of the training environment and whether there are any of the components that promote aggression as a means of control among the students. Under this first research question, the researcher obtained two themes. The first theme was associated with nomination of peer leaders by the students themselves, while the second theme was associated with discipline and disciplinary action in the paramilitary environment.

Theme 1: Students nominate their peer leaders. As per the findings reported under theme 1 in Chapter 4, students at the paramilitary training academy facility directly engaged in the nomination of their leaders. These findings were supported by several participants. For instance, A2 reported that:

“Those who wanted to go out for the [peer-leadership] roles sent in a memo, and they would prepare a little campaign speech and present it to the class. The class unanimously voted, and the coordinator [B1/B2] tallied up the votes and presented it to the class” (A2)

The component of leader nomination by students denotes that the paramilitary training environment is democratic, as students have a right to determine the type of leaders they want. Such an environment is completely different from a military training environment where students are expected to observe a high level of military discipline, implying that they should follow all orders given rather than question their authorities. The very essence of allowing the students some democratic space teaches them to also grant some democratic space to citizens during their policing operations. As such, the component of leader nomination by students does not promote aggression as a means of control in students within the police academy.

However, findings under the first theme are considered novel since no specific empirical study has ever reported such findings. Nevertheless, the main take-away from the findings under theme 1 is that contemporary paramilitary training institutions do not promote aggression as a means of control in their students. This interpretation is consistent with those of prior researchers such as Flores (2012), who argued that many law enforcement agencies are adhering to proactive styles of policing as opposed to the old reactive styles. The findings were also consistent with the contentions of Marino et al. (2015), who argued that policing approaches significantly depend on the prevailing external environment conditions such as the 2008 global financial crisis and, as such, are in constant shift. Although I did not investigate the current prevailing conditions and their connection to the non-aggressive strategies used at the case academy, the key take-away from Marino et al. (2015) is that there must be current prevailing circumstances in the

external environment that are promoting the limited use of aggressive tactics by police officers.

One of the puzzling findings obtained under theme 1 was that military experience was an important political asset for candidates seeking leadership positions in the institution. According to Bonner (2015), people elect leaders based on some desirable characteristics they see in their leaders. As clearly stated by numerous participants such as A3, military experience was considered an important attribute for students aspiring to become leaders. The implication is that the students highly covet military experience and desire to acquire such skills someday. However, whether this notion promotes or inhibits aggressive tactics is not clear considering the scope of the findings. From my perspective, the students look at someone with military experience as a symbol of authority, considering that military personnel have a tougher role than law enforcement.

Theme 2: The Environment is disciplined, but Military Discipline is not applied. As per the findings under the second theme, general discipline and accountability within the facility is expected among the academy students. However, military discipline standards are not applied. Particularly, all participants except A2 acknowledged that no military discipline is normally applied during training sessions. A2 reported the following:

During PT they do [apply military discipline] in order to push us, I wasn't in the military, so I don't know to what extent drill sergeants act, but they do push us and hold us accountable and integrity is their number one thing. If you cheat yourself on pushups, they will call you out for cheating yourself on pushups (A2)

On the contrary, many other participants indicated that military discipline is not applied during the training. For instance, A5 contended that the training environment was more collegial with less intense disciplinary measures undertaken against wrongdoers:

I wouldn't say [that military discipline is applied]. I am in the Army, and I would say it is a lot more relaxed, not as much yelling, more coach-based here, less in your face than a drill sergeant would be in the Army. You can talk to [class coordinators here]. (A5)

I concluded that in general, the training environment did not apply the strict disciplinary standards common in the military context. As such, absence of military discipline, apart from nomination of student leaders, is another notable aspect of the training environment. These are novel findings since no empirical study, as far as the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 is concerned, has been conducted successfully on the disciplinary standards in the paramilitary as compared to the military training environments. Therefore, the current study findings add new knowledge to existing literature with regards to the intensity of disciplinary standards in a paramilitary training environment and how they affect the students' ability to use limited force during policy operations.

According to Bronstein (2015), military discipline denotes the concept of “do as I say”, since recruits are expected to exhibit the highest level of obedience and never question the decisions of their masters. The end goal of instilling military discipline in military personnel is to build a strong and cohesive team mainly for combat purposes. Additionally, military discipline allows military officers to keep pushing and always do what is right even in the toughest circumstances (Bronstein, 2015). Given that there are

no military disciplinary measures deployed in the police academy, there are two possible outcomes. First, the police officers will not develop the aggressive nature of using combat methods in their policing roles since the training environment has not taught them to be inexorable. On the contrary, not developing military-level discipline is likely to make the police officers reluctant in doing what is right especially when in stressful situations (Bronstein, 2015). Officers with military discipline are characterized by pushing through and making correct decisions even during the toughest times. Since police officers are not given such discipline, yet sometimes operate in stressful environments that require a high level of discipline, they are likely to make wrong decisions such as shooting of innocent civilians or committing suicide.

However, it is not like the students in the police academy are not given any discipline at all. Instead, their level of discipline is less intense as compared to military-level discipline. For instance, some participants indicated that disciplinary measures are issued but they are much lighter than those issued in the military training environment. Such lighter measures include verbal warnings and criticisms, pushups, and memo writing. These disciplinary measures are less intense as compared to those in the military environment such as hard labor, food denial, public shame, and forfeiture of pay. As such, military personnel are required to adhere to more stringent disciplinary standards to facilitate team cohesiveness during combat operations. However, the same level of discipline and obedience may not be necessary in the paramilitary, since the police officers mostly deal with less threatening situations.

Research Question 2

The purpose of the second research question was to find out whether the training environment in the police academy facilitates development of aggressive situational control and conflict resolution tactics in academy students. Thematic analysis of the results obtained revealed one theme that was strongly related to the third research question: students were taught to use the least aggressive solution that a situation allows. In this subsection, I interpret the results obtained under this third theme.

Theme 3: Students are taught to use the least aggressive solution that a situation allows. Under the third theme, all the 16 participants agreed that instructors taught physical aggression as a last resort if all other tactics such as verbal control had failed. However, the students were not encouraged to be afraid of physical control but rather, should attempt to use verbal tactics first before using physical control. The instructors not only told the students to use physical control as a last resort but also practiced the same during their policing operations. A1 said of instructors, “They actually shy away from hands-on. It’s more of a last-straw kind of thing.” A8 agreed with A1, saying of instructors: “They go over a lot of verbal control mostly, talk down a suspect rather than going to physical control measures.” A3 reported that students learned a range of responses, from verbal solutions to deadly force:

We’ve had training scenarios where we had to use verbal skills and then somewhere, we had to use deadly force, so a mix of both. I guess it would depend on that scenario, a shoot or don’t shoot, and then other scenarios where you just talk to someone. (A3)

Based on the findings obtained from the interview with the participants, the training environment does not foster the use of physical control among students in the police academy. The findings under the third theme are consistent with prior contentions reviewed in literature. First, the current findings correspond to the argument presented by Flores (2012) that policing approaches are shifting from reactive to proactive. However, Flores (2012) was only presenting an argument that she did not empirically investigate to validate whether it is true. As such, the current study findings validate Flores (2012) argument.

On the contrary, the findings contradict the arguments of Yeagar (2014) who contended that policing in the Department of Homeland security (DHS) is still not proactive as postulated by Flores (2012). According to Yeagar (2014), police officers working under the DHS still utilize more militaristic threats, aggressive intelligence gathering, and systematic surveillance. However, the current study findings are within the context of police training rather than policing practice as reported in the studies of Flores (2012) and Yeagar (2014). Therefore, there is a significant gap in literature with regards to how training offered to students in police academies affects practice in terms of limited usage of physical control during policing operations. In their study, Blumberg et al. (2016) found that there was no significant change between the level of policing integrity acquired by students at the beginning and the end of the training period. Through these findings, Blumberg et al. (2016) illustrated that training issued does not have a significant impact on practice. However, the gap that still needs to be addressed concerns whether

training is effective specifically in terms of reducing police officers' use of aggressive control tactics in their policing operations.

Nevertheless, the findings of the current study as reported under theme three are consistent with the conceptual framework adopted for the study. Specifically, the findings correspond to Vygotsky's theory of proximal development. As Wink and Putney (2002) argued, Vygotsky's theory holds that after a student receives instructional support from a person with greater experience, the student will internalize the information given and is more capable of performing in the next similar situation. Within the context of instructional support, relating teachings to industry experience allows the students to acquire skills and competencies on how to navigate different policing situations. As per the current study's findings, the fact that instructors offer teaching while relating theory to specific industry experiences implies that students gain more skills and competencies on how to successfully conduct policing operations in different contexts.

However, relating to specific industry experiences may not exhaustively grant the students the specific knowledge they need on how to navigate situations that may not have been covered in the curriculum. For instance, changes in the external regulatory or economic environments may necessitate the adoption of particular changes in policing among individual police officers. As per the argument of Marino et al. (2015), the policing external environment is dynamic hence training given to officers may not be applicable in certain future situations. However, as per the theory of proximal development, the trained officers should develop competence that allows them to make correct decisions depending on the situations they face.

Research Question 3

The main purpose of the third research question was to evaluate how lived experiences of the instructional staff affect students' effective policing practice in terms of reduced use of military control tactics. Thematic analysis of the results obtained revealed one theme that was strongly related to the third research question; Instructors describe lived experiences to encourage situational adaptability, including the use of non-physical conflict resolution skills. The theme is discussed in greater detail in the section that follows.

Theme 4: Instructors describe lived experiences to encourage situational adaptability, including the use of non-physical conflict resolution skills. All

participants reported that instructors drew from their lived experiences to teach class lessons especially on the subject of use of force during policing operations. Most importantly, participants emphasized that instructors taught students to use discretion in making decisions in different situations. Additionally, the participants indicated that the experiences that instructors drew from were particularly concerned about safety of both the citizens and the police officers. A13, for example, stated that instructors emphasized: "Always officer safety, and depending on the situation. If we need to use force, it would depend on the situation." A11 reported that instructors drew from their own experiences to emphasize adaptability through the versatile use of situation-dependent solutions: "I'd say it is a fair balance of physical control, officer safety, and speaking with people."

(A13)

As per the findings under the fourth theme, it is clear that instructors play a significant role of ensuring that while teaching, they also use their specific industry experiences to illustrate to the students how to navigate different situations they may encounter in their policing career, especially regarding when and when not to use force.

Current findings are consistent with the conceptual framework developed by reviewing various theoretical arguments such as Pavlov's dog experiment and Vygotsky's proximal development theory. From the perspective of Pavlov's theory of reinforcement learning, instructors tend to reinforce the learning given to trainee officers in the police academy by connecting theoretical knowledge to their own (instructors') industry experience. The reinforcement the learners get allows them to develop competence in matters policing. Most importantly, the reinforcement given encourages situational adaptability with a particular focus on the limited use of force.

Research Question 4

The purpose of this question is to determine whether training time allocated to aggressive tactics is greater than training time allocated to non-aggressive tactics. The basic reasoning is that a greater training time allocated to a particular policing tactic corresponds to the attention and resultant internalization of that particular tactic by the students. Thematic analysis was conducted, and one theme emerged that corresponded to the fourth research question: allocation of instructional time favors de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics. The theme is discussed in greater detail in the section that follows.

Theme 5: Allocation of Instructional Time is equal or favors de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics. All the participants interviewed expressed approval of the

mixed allocation of instructional time between aggressive and non-aggressive tactics. The participants indicated that instructional time was either allocated equally between the two tactics or that non-aggressive tactics were granted more instructional time. For instance, A4, 42, and A14 argued that allocation of instructional time between aggressive and non-aggressive tactics was approximately equal. However, other participants indicated that instructional time was greater for non-aggressive tactics than aggressive tactics.

Allocation of equal instructional time implies that the students develop both aggressive and non-aggressive tactics and as such, would most probably mix these tactics equally when practicing actual policing. However, this postulation is only considered true if instructional time directly correlates with field practice. Even though there are no empirical studies that have been conducted to ascertain whether instructional time corresponds to the choice of policing tactics, Pavlov's dog experiment theory confirms the argument (Pavlov, 1927). According to Pavlov's experiment, reinforcement learning takes place when learners receive more stimuli from the same source over an extended period (Pavlov, 1927). As such, allocating more instructional time to non-aggressive tactics implies that the students will most probably employ non-aggressive tactics as they have been reinforced to a greater extent than aggressive tactics. However, this contention may not be realistic since aggression somehow occurs due to anger, which is a natural part of human emotions. Nevertheless, reinforcement learning within the context of police academy non-aggressive tactics training may possibly reduce the manifestation of aggressive emotions in the students and instead reinforce non-aggressive ones hence reduce their chances of deploying force during their policing operations.

Limitations of the Study

While all the research questions of the current study were answered as expected, limitations were inevitable just like they are in any other kind of research. First, the study was limited to only one police academy – the State College of basic law enforcement. All the 16 participants were extracted from the population of teachers and students at the college. Limiting the sample included in the study to only one college reduced the generalizability of the current findings to other contexts. For instance, generalizing the findings to the entire state of state may not be reasonable since the study was only conducted in one institution. Every institution is characterized by a particular set of cultural norms, values, and beliefs that influence the interactions among stakeholders. As such, it is highly improbable that the responses provided by the participants in the current study would have been similar to those provided by participants from other institutions.

Second, the current study included a very small number of instructors, yet they were later realized to be invaluable sources of data on the study subject. Specifically, only two instructors were included in the current research. Even though the instructors validated most of the responses provided by the students, their limited number and the student-centered study did not grant them a chance to provide adequate and comprehensive feedback on police training and aggressive vs. non-aggressive tactics. Instructors have both curriculum and industry-level experience hence would provide insight into how they particularly blend aggressive vs non-aggressive based training to enhance informed decision making in their students.

Recommendations

The current study provides novel findings into the question of whether paramilitary training facilities inculcate non-aggressive tactics in the trainee recruits. While findings illustrate that the facilities promote non-aggressive tactics, it is necessary that the same level of commitment towards reducing police harassment and use of force against citizens be upheld. To maintain this commitment, the researcher recommends that practitioners in both law enforcement practice and law enforcement training cooperate to provide effective training to police recruits especially with regards to issues concerning reasonable use of force. Specifically, while instructors provide training to the recruits, law enforcement practitioners, especially those working under the DHS, should provide guidance to the instructors on matters regarding industry dynamics.

Second, even though the non-aggressive approaches are applauded as positive policing approaches, they should not be overemphasized within the training facilities as they will likely compromise the safety of the recruits when in line of operation. Specifically, overemphasizing non-aggression might make the use of force look like an evil act. Instead, the instructional personnel should be open and candid with the trainees and should tell them the circumstances under which force should be used. Additionally, curriculum developers should clearly define the specific situations and contexts in which force and aggressive tactics should be used. In essence, there are some policing contexts, such as intelligence gathering, in which aggressive tactics are not only reasonable but also promote law enforcement through prevention or punishment of crime.

Implications of the Study

Findings of the current study imply that current training platforms are affecting basic recruit officer's ability to use commutation tools over threat or physical control methods to gain compliance during stressful situations. Specifically, there are four key findings that can be attributed to this conclusion. First, the researcher found two major elements in the training environment, both of which promote non-aggressive tactics. The first component was students' participation in the nomination of leaders, which implied that the environment inculcated the aspect of democracy and negotiation whenever they are dealing with suspects. Second, military discipline was not applied in the training, implying that the students were not fed with aggressive tactics. Third, less time was allocated to aggressive military tactics hence implying that the students did not spend a lot of time acquiring aggressive tactics. Additionally, instructors encouraged students to use force and aggressive tactics as last resort.

The current study findings have shed some light on the trends in contemporary policing in the state of A southern state. Specifically, the current researcher has demonstrated through the findings obtained that contemporary police training environments encourage students to use non-aggressive tactics such as dialogue when in stressful policing situations. Clear documentation of such trends is necessary so that leaders within the police training domain remain updated. The police training environment is inherently dynamic, owing to the many changes it has undergone since its formalization in the early 1960s. Existing trends, as evidenced by the current study findings, indicate that the police training environment encourages non-aggressive tactics

during public policing. However, this evidence is based on a study conducted in just one training institution in the entire state of A southern state. As such, the researcher may not tell whether the same training approaches that emphasize non-aggression are replicated in all the other training institutions in A southern state. From a logical perspective, there are likely to be institutions which have not yet adapted to the non-aggressive trend in police training. It is imperative that leaders of such institutions adopt non-aggressive training tactics so that future police officers in the state apply minimal physical force in their operations. It is also necessary that such leaders benchmark in institutions that have successfully implemented non-aggressive training tactics.

Additionally, it is imperative that leaders who have currently adapted to the trend continue with the same training approaches. Non-aggressive tactics are desirable approaches to public policing since they not only protect the rights of citizens but also promote public obedience to the law. When police officers deploy aggressive tactics and physical control in stressful situations, they are likely to undermine the rights of citizens through, for instance, physical harassment. In such circumstances, police officers may actually end up violating the same law they are expected to enforce. Additionally, it would be difficult for the public to obey the law when the enforcement personnel are breaking the same law.

One area of significant concern that emerged during the research was the supposed utilization of aggressive tactics in the DHS. Even though the instructors may provide training that does not promote aggressive tactics, the trainees may still develop aggressive habits following integration into the policing sector. Lack of cooperation

between the training facilities and the potential employers may aggravate the situation since a consensus will most probably not be reached.

The implications for the research findings are clear from the participants perspective that there are some similarities between military training culture and the police academy. These parallels are present in the officer wellness course (PT) and defensive tactics course. This is due in large part to teaching proper techniques when the participants had to use force in training scenarios. The use of rank is more of an informal hierarchy that is meant to resemble the structure currently used in law enforcement agencies as a chain of command and supervisory roles. The implications overall are that the police academy though it has some aspects of military styles and semblance it is anything but military in its operational function. Law enforcement officers are required to work long hours by themselves interacting with the communities in which they serve. Knowing the legal rights of citizens and when you can take someone into custody or even when to use force are critical functions of civilian law enforcement. The use of a uniform resembles that of a public servant and not a soldier. Responding to calls for assistance are a far cry from operations missions used by the military. If military soldiers were the sole law enforcement agency in the communities, they would look more like a police state used in communist countries. Recruit officers will have to know how to engage citizens verbally for conducting investigations, providing other services and direction, not just command and control.

The participants in this study provided some insight as to what they are learning and how they are being taught. Communication being the top of the list for every lesson

not just lecture based courses. The decision to use force is based on what the participants were presented with in officer safety training where stress was a factor where talking to suspects before using force was always encouraged over physical control. The collective responses by the participants were that the training environment did not weigh into the decision to use force, and this is supported by the data presented.

Implications for Future Research

As indicated earlier, the current study was limited to State College of basic law enforcement. Consequently, its generalizability to other contexts such as the entire state would not be possible. Therefore, the investigator recommends that future researchers should investigate the effect of a paramilitary training environment on the ability of trainees to use non-aggressive tactics during policing operations but with a larger sample size selected from across several police academies in the United States. A larger sample size extracted from several academies should provide results that do not significantly deviate from the actual state of affairs. Additionally, future researchers may approach the topic from a quantitative or mixed approach and compare their findings to the current ones. In a quantitative approach, the researchers will simply base their investigations on the findings of the current study's themes. For instance, the future researchers may investigate the effect of allocation time on training outcomes and real-life police practice in terms of limited use of aggression tactics.

Second, there has been no prior study conducted to determine how the paramilitary training environment impacts the ability of police officers to make correct decisions under stressful conditions. As such, future researchers may decide to

investigate whether the training environment, and specifically aggressive vs non-aggressive training, has a tangible impact on how police officers make decisions under stressful conditions. This research direction will help to develop literature about police training and practical outcomes, which is quite scarce as illustrated in the literature review section of the current research.

The researcher previously mentioned that during this research DLE and CJSTC in 2018 had implemented new required communication exercises throughout the curriculum. The participants of this research had received this new training. The researcher recommends that this new training platform continues to focus on the area of communication. However, more time under this newly implemented curriculum will need to be in place for the next several years to truly know if it is having the desired impact on the industry. Researcher also recommends that another study be conducted focusing on the instructors for the listed reasons. Instructors whose academy experiences were trained under different ideas and approaches could be drawing from their own academy experiences and implementing that into the academy training platform. Are the efforts of communication focused on commands and control or is it problem solving designed to assist those in need or under stress.

Conclusion

The purpose of this qualitative, case study research study was to investigate whether the paramilitary police academy training environment affects the students' ability to use verbal conflict resolution skills in place of aggressive physical control methods. The researcher adopted a qualitative approach in which 16 participants,

including police academy students and instructors, were interviewed on four main research questions. After successful data collection, qualitative analysis was conducted using NVivo. The researcher obtained results which generally suggested that the training environment at the selected training facility does not promote force and aggression as a control tactics during policing operations. As per the first study question, the researcher found two main elements within the paramilitary training environment, both of which seemed to promote non-aggressive tactics during policing. Additionally, the findings indicated that the training environment does not foster aggressive tactics since students are taught to use least aggressive solutions. Third, the researcher found that the instructional staff mainly utilized their lived experiences to illustrate to the students how particular situations are handled. Lastly, it was found that a relatively lower amount of time is allocated for aggressive tactics hence leading to a lower level of reinforcement of such attributes in the recruits. Through the current study's findings, the researcher, therefore, illustrates that the paramilitary training environment does not promote aggressive tactics. However, the learners should not be discouraged from using force since they will most likely encounter situations in which force is the only way out. Internal Review Board (IRB) approval number is 11-05-19-0400276.

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Appendix A: Academy Student Questions and Protocol

Protocol: Each research question has at least two responses which allow the student to answer in their own words. The answers provided were compared against each other for a theme.

1. (RQ1) Do you have assigned peers in supervisory or leadership roles such as squad leaders and class leaders?
 - Who picks those students for leadership roles?
 - Do you feel that most of those peers were selected because of some form of military background?
 - Do the academy instructors behave in a manner reflective of a Drill Sgt. from the military?
 - Do you conduct formations with a uniform inspection?
2. (RQ2) If the uniform is not to standard is there a punitive measure as a result?
 - Is this punishment administered by the staff or your peers in leadership roles?
 - What types of punishments were administered?
 - Did you feel like it was a “do as I say without question atmosphere” at times?
 - When did you feel that way?
3. (RQ3) Did your instructors draw from their experiences to teach the class lessons?
 - Were these experiences mostly physical control and/or officer safety related?

- Do you feel like your instructors promote a more hands-on response to training situations such as physical control over verbal communications during a training exercise?
 - Did you feel like your instructor wanted you to respond with physical control more so than verbal techniques?
4. (RQ4) How often did the instructor use their personal experiences to discuss effective communication?
- do you feel like there are more physical control scenarios than verbal communication scenarios?

Research Questions

RQ1. What are the key components of a paramilitary training environment and which of those components promote aggression as a means of control within a police academy?

RQ2. Does the paramilitary training environment foster aggression in police academy students in order to control situations?

RQ3. Do the lived experiences of the instructional staff in the police academy diminish the academy students' ability to use non-physical conflict resolution skills?

RQ4. How much time is dedicated to de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics?

Appendix B: Academy Instructor Questions and Protocol

Protocol: Each research question has at least two responses which allow the instructor to answer in their own words. The answers provided were compared against each other for a theme.

1. (RQ1)

- Do you have assigned peers in supervisory or leadership roles such as squad leaders and class leaders?
- Who picks those students for leadership roles?
- How are these students selected for leadership roles?
- Does the academy apply military discipline throughout the academy?
- Do you conduct formations with a uniform inspection?

2. (RQ2)

- If the uniform is not to standard is there a punitive measure as a result?
- Is this punishment administered by the staff or students in leadership roles?
- What types of punishments are commonly administered?
- Does the instructional platform use a do as I say without question approach in some training?
- If so why?

3. (RQ3)

- Do instructors draw from their experiences to teach the class lessons?

- Were these experiences mostly physical control and/or officer safety related?
- Do you feel like you and your peer instructors promote a more hands-on response to training situations such as physical control over verbal communication during a training exercise?
- Did you feel like your students respond aggressively in some training situations over others because they think that is what the instructor wants to see?

4. (RQ4)

- Do the instructors use personal experiences to discuss effective communication?
- Are there more physical control scenarios than verbal communication scenarios?

Research Questions

RQ1. What are the key components of a paramilitary training environment and which of those components promote aggression as a means of control within a police academy?

RQ2. Does the paramilitary training environment foster aggression in police academy students in order to control situations?

RQ3. Do the lived experiences of the instructional staff in the police academy diminish the academy students' ability to use non-physical conflict resolution skills?

RQ4. How much time is dedicated to de-escalation and non-aggressive tactics?

Appendix C: Law Enforcement Basic Recruit Training Program

Law Enforcement Basic Recruit Training Program

ATMS #1177

Effective April 1, 2008 – March 31, 2009

Version 2008.04

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	Introduction to Law Enforcement	11	CJK_0007
Chapter 2	Legal	69	CJK_0008
Chapter 3	Communications	76	CJK_0017
Chapter 4	Human Issues	40	CJK_0011
Chapter 5	Patrol 1	58	CJK_0061
Chapter 6	Patrol 2	40	CJK_0062
Chapter 7	Crime Scene Investigations	24	CJK_0076
Chapter 8	Criminal Investigations	56	CJK_0071
Chapter 9	Traffic Stops	24	CJK_0082
Chapter 10	DUI Traffic Stops	24	CJK_0083
Chapter 11	Traffic Crash Investigations	32	CJK_0086
	Total LE Hours	454	

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	CMS Law Enforcement Vehicle Operations	48	CJK_0020

Chapter 2	CMS First Aid for Criminal Justice Officers	40	CJK_00 31
Chapter 3	CMS Criminal Justice Firearms	80	CJK_00 40
Chapter 4	CMS Criminal Justice Defensive Tactics	80	CJK_00 51
Chapter 5	Dart-Firing Stun Gun	8	CJK_04 22
Chapter 6	Criminal Justice Officer Physical Fitness Training	60	CJK_00 96
	Total HL Hours	316	
	Total Program Hours	770	

Law Enforcement Basic Recruit Training Program

ATMS #1177

Effective April 1, 2009 – June 30, 2010

Version 2009.04

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	Introduction to Law Enforcement	11	CJK_0007
Chapter 2	Legal	69	CJK_0008
Chapter 3	Communications	76	CJK_0017
Chapter 4	Human Issues	40	CJK_0011
Chapter 5	Patrol 1	58	CJK_0061
Chapter 6	Patrol 2	40	CJK_0062
Chapter 7	Crime Scene Investigations	24	CJK_0076
Chapter 8	Criminal Investigations	56	CJK_0071
Chapter 9	Traffic Stops	24	CJK_0082
Chapter 10	DUI Traffic Stops	24	CJK_0083
Chapter 11	Traffic Crash Investigations	32	CJK_0086
	Total LE Hours	454	

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	CMS Law Enforcement Vehicle Operations	48	CJK_0020

Chapter 2	CMS First Aid for Criminal Justice Officers	40	CJK_00 31
Chapter 3	CMS Criminal Justice Firearms	80	CJK_00 40
Chapter 4	CMS Criminal Justice Defensive Tactics	80	CJK_00 51
Chapter 5	Dart-Firing Stun Gun	8	CJK_04 22
Chapter 6	Criminal Justice Officer Physical Fitness Training	60	CJK_00 96
	Total HL Hours	316	
	Total Program Hours	770	

Law Enforcement Basic Recruit Training Program

ATMS #1177

Effective July 1, 2010 – June 30, 2011

Version 2010.07

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	Introduction to Law Enforcement	11	CJK_00 07
Chapter 2	Legal	69	CJK_00 08
Chapter 3	Communications	76	CJK_00 17
Chapter 4	Human Issues	40	CJK_00 11
Chapter 5	Patrol 1	58	CJK_00 61
Chapter 6	Patrol 2	40	CJK_00 62
Chapter 7	Crime Scene Investigations	24	CJK_00 76
Chapter 8	Criminal Investigations	56	CJK_00 71
Chapter 9	Traffic Stops	24	CJK_00 82
Chapter 10	DUI Traffic Stops	24	CJK_00 83
Chapter 11	Traffic Crash Investigations	32	CJK_00 86
Total LE Hours		454	

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	CMS Law Enforcement Vehicle Operations	48	CJK_00 20
Chapter 2	CMS First Aid for Criminal Justice Officers	40	CJK_00 31

Chapter 3	CMS Criminal Justice Firearms	80	CJK_00 40
Chapter 4	CMS Criminal Justice Defensive Tactics	80	CJK_00 51
Chapter 5	Dart-Firing Stun Gun	8	CJK_04 22
Chapter 6	Criminal Justice Officer Physical Fitness Training	60	CJK_00 96
	Total HL Hours	316	
	Total Program Hours	770	

Law Enforcement Basic Recruit Training Program

ATMS #1177

Effective July 1, 2011 – June 30, 2012

Version 2011.07

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	Introduction to Law Enforcement	11	CJK_007
Chapter 2	Legal	69	CJK_008
Chapter 3	Communications	76	CJK_017
Chapter 4	Human Issues	40	CJK_011
Chapter 5	Patrol 1	58	CJK_061
Chapter 6	Patrol 2	40	CJK_062
Chapter 7	Crime Scene Investigations	24	CJK_076
Chapter 8	Criminal Investigations	56	CJK_071
Chapter 9	Traffic Stops	24	CJK_082
Chapter 10	DUI Traffic Stops	24	CJK_083
Chapter 11	Traffic Crash Investigations	32	CJK_086
	Total LE Hours	454	

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	CMS Law Enforcement Vehicle Operations	48	CJK_020

Chapter 2	CMS First Aid for Criminal Justice Officers	40	CJK_0 031
Chapter 3	CMS Criminal Justice Firearms	80	CJK_0 040
Chapter 4	CMS Criminal Justice Defensive Tactics	80	CJK_0 051
Chapter 5	Dart-Firing Stun Gun	8	CJK_0 422
Chapter 6	Criminal Justice Officer Physical Fitness Training	60	CJK_0 096
	Total HL Hours	316	
	Total Program Hours	770	

Law Enforcement Basic Recruit Training Program

ATMS #1177

Effective July 1, 2012 – June 30, 2013

Version 2012.07

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	Introduction to Law Enforcement	11	CJK_00 07
Chapter 2	Legal	69	CJK_00 08
Chapter 3	Communications	76	CJK_00 17
Chapter 4	Human Issues	40	CJK_00 11
Chapter 5	Patrol 1	58	CJK_00 61
Chapter 6	Patrol 2	40	CJK_00 62
Chapter 7	Crime Scene Investigations	24	CJK_00 76
Chapter 8	Criminal Investigations	56	CJK_00 71
Chapter 9	Traffic Stops	24	CJK_00 82
Chapter 10	DUI Traffic Stops	24	CJK_00 83
Chapter 11	Traffic Crash Investigations	32	CJK_00 86
	Total LE Hours	454	

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	CMS Law Enforcement Vehicle Operations	48	CJK_00 20

Chapter 2	CMS First Aid for Criminal Justice Officers	40	CJK_00 31
Chapter 3	CMS Criminal Justice Firearms	80	CJK_00 40
Chapter 4	CMS Criminal Justice Defensive Tactics	80	CJK_00 51
Chapter 5	Dart-Firing Stun Gun	8	CJK_04 22
Chapter 6	Criminal Justice Officer Physical Fitness Training	60	CJK_00 96
	Total HL Hours	316	
	Total Program Hours	770	

Law Enforcement Basic Recruit Training Program

ATMS #1177

Effective July 1, 2013 – June 30, 2014

Version 2013.07

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	Introduction to Law Enforcement	11	CJK_00 07
Chapter 2	Legal	69	CJK_00 08
Chapter 3	Communications	76	CJK_00 17
Chapter 4	Human Issues	40	CJK_00 11
Chapter 5	Patrol 1	58	CJK_00 61
Chapter 6	Patrol 2	40	CJK_00 62
Chapter 7	Crime Scene Investigations	24	CJK_00 76
Chapter 8	Criminal Investigations	56	CJK_00 71
Chapter 9	Traffic Stops	24	CJK_00 82
Chapter 10	DUI Traffic Stops	24	CJK_00 83
Chapter 11	Traffic Crash Investigations	32	CJK_00 86
	Total LE Hours	454	

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	CMS Law Enforcement Vehicle Operations	48	CJK_00 20
Chapter 2	CMS First Aid for Criminal Justice Officers	40	CJK_00 31
Chapter 3	CMS Criminal Justice Firearms	80	CJK_00 40

Chapter 4	CMS Criminal Justice Defensive Tactics	80	CJK_00 51
Chapter 5	Dart-Firing Stun Gun	8	CJK_04 22
Chapter 6	Criminal Justice Officer Physical Fitness Training	60	CJK_00 96
	Total HL Hours	316	
	Total Program Hours	770	

Law Enforcement Basic Recruit Training Program

ATMS #2000

Basic Recruit Training Program: Law Enforcement

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	Introduction to Law Enforcement	10	CJK_0001
Chapter 2	Legal	62	CJK_0012
Chapter 3	Interactions in a Diverse Community	40	CJK_0013
Chapter 4	Interviewing and Report Writing	56	CJK_0014
Chapter 5	Fundamentals of Patrol	35	CJK_0064
Chapter 6	Calls for Service	36	CJK_0065
Chapter 7	Criminal Investigations	50	CJK_0077
Chapter 8	Crime Scene to Courtroom	35	CJK_0078
Chapter 9	Critical Incidents	44	CJK_0092
Chapter 10	Traffic Stops	30	CJK_0087
Chapter 11	DUI Traffic Stops	24	CJK_0084
Chapter 12	Traffic Crash Investigations	32	CJK_0088
Total Hours		454	

Basic Recruit Training Program: High Liability

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
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Chapter 1	CMS Law Enforcement Vehicle Operations	48	CJK_00 20
Chapter 2	CMS First Aid for Criminal Justice Officers	40	CJK_00 31
Chapter 3	CMS Criminal Justice Firearms	80	CJK_00 40
Chapter 4	CMS Criminal Justice Defensive Tactics	80	CJK_00 51
Chapter 5	Dart-Firing Stun Gun	8	CJK_04 22
Chapter 6	Criminal Justice Officer Physical Fitness Training	60	CJK_00 96
	Total Hours	316	

Law Enforcement Basic Recruit Training Program Version 2016.07 ATMS #2000

Volume 1—Basic Recruit Training Program: Law Enforcement

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	Introduction to Law Enforcement	10	CJK_0001
Chapter 2	Legal	62	CJK_0012
Chapter 3	Interactions in a Diverse Community	40	CJK_0013
Chapter 4	Interviewing and Report Writing	56	CJK_0014
Chapter 5	Fundamentals of Patrol	35	CJK_0064
Chapter 6	Calls for Service	36	CJK_0065
Chapter 7	Criminal Investigations	50	CJK_0077
Chapter 8	Crime Scene to Courtroom	35	CJK_0078
Chapter 9	Critical Incidents	44	CJK_0092
Chapter 10	Traffic Stops	30	CJK_0087
Chapter 11	DUI Traffic Stops	24	CJK_0084
Chapter 12	Traffic Crash Investigations	32	CJK_0088
	Subtotal	454	

Volume 2—Basic Recruit Training Program: High Liability

Chapter	Course Title	Hours	Course Number
Chapter 1	CMS Law Enforcement Vehicle Operations	48	CJK_0020
Chapter 2	CMS First Aid for Criminal Justice Officers	40	CJK_0031
Chapter 3	CMS Criminal Justice Firearms	80	CJK_0040
Chapter 4	CMS Criminal Justice Defensive Tactics	80	CJK_0051
Chapter 5	Dart-Firing Stun Gun	8	CJK_0422

Chapter 6	Criminal Justice Officer Physical Fitness Training	60	CJK_0096
	Subtotal	316	
	PROGRAM TOTAL	770	