

**POST ACADEMY TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS OF SELECTED SCHOOL
DISTRICT POLICE AGENCIES IN TEXAS**

A Dissertation

by

JAMES RICHARD WALKER

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2003

Major Subject: Educational Human Resource Development

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ABSTRACT

Post Academy Training Needs Analysis of Selected School District Police Agencies in

Texas.

(December 2003)

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One of the fastest growing areas of law enforcement in the state of Texas today is school district policing, with many of the Independent School District (ISD) departments having been formed within the past 10-12 years. Without a formal structured plan of its own, training programs for the school district police officer have often followed the template of other local and state policing organizations to determine their own in-service training curriculum. Unfortunately, following the guidelines and programs set up by these outside policing organizations has led to training that is not indicative of the school district police officers bona fide training needs.

This research first focused on identifying the internal and external constraints that are operating from within the school district, along with influences from outside the organization that are hindering ISD police officer training. The results found budgetary issues, time issues, perceived lack of training support from the school district administration, a lack of a training needs analysis to identify training needs, and other outside constraints (such as legislative training mandates), were hindering ISD police in-service training. Recommendations were made to seek outside assistance (grants),

combined regional training efforts, organizing to seek changes in required state training mandates, educating administration in ISD policing needs, and performing a training needs analysis to identify training needs.

The second focus identified the unique tasks of the school district police officer in order to provide the school district policing organizations with specific task information regarding the daily tasks of the school district police officer. Twenty eight unique police officer tasks were then identified through group sessions held with several ISD policing organizations. The tasks were then listed in order of criticality and frequency, and two lists were made from the returns. One related to overall task importance and the second list was ordered by agency size, as it was believed that the agencies may differ in focus and responsibilities by departmental size. This combination of an organizational analysis and a task analysis is expected to provide the ISD policing organizations with the information from which a sound training program may be designed.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to the many men and women involved in school district policing throughout Texas, who have devoted themselves to the task of insuring that our state's children will have a safe environment within which to learn.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	iii
DEDICATION	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	ix
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
 CHAPTER	
I INTRODUCTION.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	5
Purpose of the Study.....	7
Research Questions.....	8
Operational Definitions.....	9
Assumptions and Limitations.....	10
Significance Statement.....	11
II REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	14
Historical Perspective of Law Enforcement Training.....	14
Traditional Police Training Methods.....	18
Ackerman’s Model.....	22
Law Enforcement Training Liability.....	25
Needs Assessment Defined.....	32
Needs Assessment Models.....	33
McGehee and Thayer’s Model.....	37
The Continuous Learning Culture.....	40
Task Analysis Models.....	42
Job Analysis Models.....	45
Data Gathering Methods.....	53
Job Analysis and the Law.....	55

CHAPTER	Page
III	METHODOLOGY..... 61
	Population..... 63
	Instruments.....66
	Procedures..... 69
	Design and Statistics..... 70
IV	RESULTS OF THE STUDY.....72
	Response Rate..... 72
	Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.....73
	Research Question One.....77
	Research Question Two.....95
	Ancillary Findings.....106
V	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS....110
	Summary..... 110
	Conclusions.....120
	Recommendations.....123
	REFERENCES..... 130
	APPENDIX A..... 139
	APPENDIX B 146
	APPENDIX C 151
	VITA.....152

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	Page
1 Importance of in-service training in meeting departmental goals and objectives.....	78
2 How training issues are currently determined within the various ISD departments.....	79
3 Importance of job analysis in determining organizational training needs.....	80
4 Has your ISD department completed a recent needs analysis to determine training issues.....	81
5 How ISD police department chiefs react to identified critical training needs.....	82
6 Officer's attitudes toward in-service training as perceived by ISD police chief's.....	83
7 How much input is sought from officers in the various ISD police departments regarding training issues.....	84
8 How many training hours are required of officers per year by ISD departments.....	85
9 The percentage of budget allotted for training per year by ISD police departments in Texas.....	86
10 Who currently conducts the majority of training classes for ISD police officers within the organization.....	87
11 Litigation suffered by departments regarding failure to train ISD police officers.....	87
12 How concerned are ISD chiefs regarding possible failure to train lawsuits.....	88

FIGURE	Page
13 What the best method is for determining departmental training needs as perceived by ISD police chiefs.....	90
14. Administrative constraints that ISD police chiefs indicate are impeding training within their departments.....	91
15 Training constraints perceived by ISD police chiefs on a departmental level.....	92
16 Statewide external constraints impeding ISD police training in Texas as viewed by ISD police chiefs.....	93
17 Methods used by the Texas Legislature to decide what mandatory classes are required of ISD police officers.....	94
18 Number of training hours required of Texas ISD police officers yearly by their respective departments.....	99
19 How ISD police officers get training hours during the training year.....	100
20 How much input is sought from ISD officers by their departments regarding training issues.....	101
21 How concerned are ISD officers regarding civil liability for failure to train issues or for improper training.....	102
22 ISD officer attitudes toward training issues within their department.....	103
23 What methods are used by the state legislature to determine mandatory classes for peace officers.....	104
24 How ISD police officers perceived that training could be improved by their department.....	105

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		Page
1	Comparison of Work-Oriented Task Analysis and Cognitive Task Analysis.....	51
2	Federal Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures- Definitions.....	56
3	ISD Departments Size Rating, Number of Officers, Response Rates.....	65
4	ISD Police Chief Demographic Characteristics.....	74
5	ISD Police Department Size.....	76
6	ISD Police Officer Demographic Characteristics.....	98
7	Ordered Competency List by Criticality and Frequency Levels.....	107
8	Competency List by Size of ISD Department.....	109

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Post police academy training for Texas Peace Officers is a relatively new phenomenon, having officially commenced in Texas in 1983, with an initial requirement of an eight hour yearly in-service class for all Texas peace officers. It was not until 1989 that the original eight hour requirement was increased to 40 hours of in-service training, based on a two year cycle of training. In-service training since those early formative years has not been without growing pains, however. For example, one recurring problem is that after graduation from the police academy, school district and other policing organizations are often faced with training opportunities that are often poorly constructed, and designed for a nonspecific (generic) law enforcement audience.

An early study by Howard Benson (1970) that surveyed in-service practices for police officers in Texas concluded that continuous training for Texas peace officers during this early formative period was far from sufficient. Benson noted in his study that, "Police agencies have generally failed to provide sufficient in-service training for their personnel" (p.14). Unfortunately, law enforcement training in Texas today is still faced with many of the same issues and problems described in Benson's comprehensive study, which will be discussed in more detail later in this study. While there have been overall improvements, the slow pace with which these changes have taken place and the

The style and format of this dissertation follow that of the *American Educational Research Journal*.

lack of appropriate research into training issues by the state and other interested parties, such as city and county police academy training facilities, have often negatively influenced police training statewide.

The state's police licensing authority, which is the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education (TCLEOSE), was formed by the Texas State Legislature on September 1, 1965, (Article 4413 [29aa] V.C.S.) and had as its mandate, "To raise the level of competence of state and local peace officers in Texas" (Coleman, 1990, p. 5). In 1970, a basic police course was created, and required 240 academy hours as a minimum for certification of Texas peace officers. In 1994, that minimum rose to 560 hours for the Basic Police Officer Course. Nationally current field and classroom training requirements for new officer recruits is more than 1,000 hours. Approximately 7 of 8 departments require officers to complete in-service training, with an average annual requirement of 29 hours (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002).

More recently, police departments in large metropolitan areas had a median annual in-service training requirement of 40 hours (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2002). However, in Texas, after the state mandated classes have been completed by a peace officer, it often remains the responsibility of the individual police officer, and their respective police departments, to determine what courses are annually required to remain certified. Required state mandated classes are primarily decided by the state legislature in Texas, and training is frequently based on perceived law enforcement "problem areas", often appearing to the average law enforcement officer as based on political expediency rather than true identified need.

Law enforcement agencies, like their civilian counterparts, are also finding their organizations forced to rely on workplace learning to remain effective. Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) remarked that “organizations have shifted their views about training from a separate, stand alone event to a fully integrated, strategic component of the organization” (p.472). Unfortunately, law enforcement has not always followed their civilian counterparts in planning and analyzing for their training needs. For example, currently in the state of Texas there is no master training plan that has been designed specifically for school district policing organizational needs. A statewide comprehensive training needs analysis that identifies the training needs and competencies required of school district police officers is needed, and would be one solution towards alleviating this oversight.

Unfortunately, there seems to be no coordinated effort between TCLEOSE and the respective school district police organizations to ascertain the training needs of school district law enforcement officers. TCLEOSE leaves the majority of the decision making regarding appropriate in-service classes to the local agencies, with most of the mandated classes required by the Texas State Legislature being the only required annual courses. However, to its credit, a study completed in 1997 by TCLEOSE did look at training evaluation as a method of measuring quality and effectiveness of in-service training for Texas Peace Officers. Evaluating training programs is an excellent way of identifying problems in training and making adjustments in instructional content and learning format. However, to establish training needs a comprehensive analysis of departmental

internal and external constraints, as well as job content (job or work analysis), are important first steps in the training design process.

For the most part, curriculum development in the area of law enforcement, especially as it relates to school district police officers, has preceded independent of any type of systematic analysis of the tasks criminal justice personnel now perform and tasks they will be expected to perform in the future (National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, 1973). After graduating from the academy, it becomes the responsibility of the officer and his or her department to determine what in-service classes would benefit the officer. Finding appropriate training is often problematic, primarily because most ISD police departments do not have the resources available or the training staff necessary for designing a training program.

Often school district police agencies are forced to look outside its own department for in-service and other training needs, such as regional academies, individual training vendors, or local colleges or universities for its in-service training needs. These resources are not always be appropriate, as school district police department have specific unique training needs, which often are not available from with most outside training providers. These external training sources, such as regional academies and universities, often cater to a generic, more than a specific, policing audience. A cookie cutter approach to training needs is no way to plan for an agency's long term training needs.

Linkins (1995), after reviewing the IADLEST (International Association of Directors of Law Enforcement Standards and Training) sourcebook, remarked that the “States rely on a variety of resources to deliver their in-service instruction, including approved police academies, local police departments, and college or technical schools” (p. 2). Regrettably, most of these instructional facilities do not determine training needs by comprehensive analysis techniques, but rely on the local police agency to determine the training classes needed by what interests the agency, officer, or the instructor may have. Unfortunately, this leads to training by identified interests or “pet” instructional programs, and is not indicative of the officer’s bona fide training needs. Therefore, a case may be made that a review of available training literature on law enforcement training needs and a comprehensive analysis of the training needs for school district policing is long overdue, and can do much to assist the training officers and their respective departments in their efforts to train and maintain a professional workforce.

Statement of the Problem

There has been no concerted effort to identify the unique tasks and related competencies of the school district police officer in Texas. There also has not been any examination of the internal and external constraints that may be present and that cause training issues to arise within ISD police departments. While there have been individual efforts made by various departments that have conducted their own departmental needs assessments, no comprehensive statewide effort has been undertaken to assist in developing ISD police officer in-service training programs. This has resulted in training programs that are less effectual than if the programs were designed around identified

officer tasks and competencies. Etter (2000) makes a very astute observation in his study of effectiveness of in-service training of sheriff's deputies in Kansas that, "While most departments offer occasional in-service training, many conduct it on a hit-and-miss basis with no real plan or program in mind" (p. 4).

Currently there appears to be several approaches used by the majority of law enforcement agencies in Texas to determine departmental in-service courses that would be beneficial to their respective departments. In a survey conducted by TCLEOSE titled "Continuing Education Program Evaluation"(1997), examples of existing methods used to choose in-service training classes included: legislative requirements, specific departmental requests, advisory board, other (not stated), job analysis, sources of funding, and instructor availability. Anderson (1994) commented that when choosing training needs that, "most organizations follow their own less systematic procedures based on tradition, office politics and various internal and external pressures" (p. 1). One of the more prevalent methods of choosing ISD in-service training needs, and the most widely used approach to determine training needs of the law enforcement officer, is that the chief administrator of the ISD police agency or another high-ranking officer will often make the final decision regarding training issues. This is especially evident within smaller departments, where there often is not a training director or staff dedicated to designing or choosing in-service training programs.

The problems associated with these methods are that training remains focused on whatever subject may be of specific interest at the time, rather than being based on sound research of the needs of the department and the individual police officers. An

example of this would be a decision to train officers in the appropriate use of the police baton after a recent incident involving use of force by a member of the department within a local school. Even though this would most likely be an appropriate and needed class, it indicates that ongoing issues and incidents within a police department and other outside issues (such as legislative requirements) can often manipulate training issues. As was noted by McGehee and Thayer (1961) when referring to the determination of training needs of organizations noted that training is, “ a grimy business, frustrating, and often carried on under increasing pressure to get something, just anything, going” (p. 25). Police departments would be best served by considering that inadequate training, or training not based on identified needs, is a waste of valuable resources, time, and opportunity. Training based on identified needs can also assist in protecting the organization from legal issues that can cost both time and money.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to provide school district law enforcement agencies with information from which a sound in-service training program may be devised. Current practice for determining in-service training needs has resulted in ISD police officer in-service training programs that are, at times, poorly designed. Since ISD policing is a recent addition to the law enforcement environment, most training programs have been historically designed around the tasks of generic police officer needs, and not specific to ISD officer's needs. ISD police officer's attend the same police academy's, use the same field training programs, and are offered the same in-service training choices as the regular city, county or state police officer, in general. The identification of 28 unique

tasks required of the school district police officer should assist the Texas ISD police agencies with specialized training programs designed around very specific and unique tasks of their police officers.

Additionally, the identification of ongoing organizational constraints should also assist the ISD police department's in-service training design. By identifying the specific organizational constraints, the ISD police department should be able to design an improved training program for its officers. This can be accomplished by complete elimination of the constraints altogether when possible, or by using innovative training strategies, such as combined regional training, outside grants to assist with funding, current school district civilian training resources relevant to policing needs in public schools, or by attempting to influence TCLEOSE to modify their generic police training requirements to more specifically meet the needs of the ISD police officers.

Research Questions

There are two research questions that need to be answered:

1. What are the specific internal and external organizational constraints emanating from within the school district police department's organizational structure, and on a statewide level with TCLEOSE and the Texas Legislature, that are encumbering school district police in-service training needs?
2. What are the unique tasks and competencies required of the successful ISD police officer, above and beyond those of the average police officer?

Operational Definitions

ISD Police Department: term used to describe police departments that are responsible for policing Texas public schools.

KSA's: term used to describe knowledge, skills and abilities. Often used to describe the knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary to perform tasks needed by the employee for successful job performance.

Organizational Analysis: a part of the training needs analysis, which refers to an examination of the system wide components of the organization affecting a training program.

Task Analysis: the second step of training needs analysis which identifies the duties, tasks and subtasks of a particular job position.

TCLEOSE: Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education. Agency that is responsible for licensing all peace officers in the State of Texas.

Training Needs Analysis: a methodology often used to provide information on where training is needed, what the content of the training should be, and who in an organization needs training.

Assumptions and Limitations

Assumptions

1. The task analysis designed by the researcher, with focus group input from the Conroe, Houston, Katy, and Spring school districts, accurately reflects the tasks and competencies of all school district police departments in Texas.
2. Officers from the Conroe, Houston, Katy, and Spring school districts, which were chosen for the focus group session, accurately identified the significantly unique competencies of school district police officers statewide.
3. The questionnaire designed for obtaining organizational information from the ISD police department chiefs accurately reflected the issues of importance, which are affecting police training in the various organizations surveyed.

Limitations

1. School district policing organizations may possess differences in job tasks and responsibilities that are required of their respective organizations and that may be unique to that agency, especially within the smaller ISD police departments.
2. Questionnaires, by nature, can reflect misunderstanding of the questions asked on the questionnaire and the general subjectivity of this method of data gathering.

Significance Statement

The results of this study provide a unique look at the specific unique training needs of ISD police officers within the state's rapidly growing number of school district police departments. The study may be used as a template for those organizations (ISD police departments and TCLEOSE) wishing to provide their officers with training based on specific identified tasks of school district police officers. The identified officer training needs may also be utilized by the various departments to educate the school district's administration regarding the training needs of their district's police officers, and provide a foundation for positive interactions between the district's administration and the individual ISD police department.

Since ISD police departments perform many of the same duties as most medium to small sized police departments in Texas, other city and county police agencies may judge this model useful in shaping their departments training needs. This is especially true for those outside police organizations (outside of ISD policing) that provide policing services for their local schools, as not all school districts provide their own police departments. There are also many additional tasks and duties of ISD police officers that mirror other outside law enforcement agencies. This research does not specifically focus on those similar tasks, as studies have shown that many of the generic tasks of police officers are the same, regardless of the type of law enforcement department. For example, Benardin (1988), when summarizing the results of 4 independent job analyses' that were completed in four large American cities (Chicago, Virginia, Philadelphia and Washington DC) ascertained,

What is clear from this comparison of independent analyses is that law enforcement officers in general perform essentially the same important tasks regardless of their job title, that is, police officer, patrol officer, highway patrolman, county patrol officer, university security, or jurisdiction (e.g., large versus small municipality). While some reliable differences were found in the relative time spent on various tasks across settings, the importance weightings assigned to those tasks and the knowledge, skills and abilities that were identified were found to be stable (p. 1242).

Bernardin (1988) continues his comments regarding the tasks of police officers by commenting that, while many tasks are similar in nature for many police officer duties across a variety of policing organizations reviewed in his study, it remains important to recognize that not all of the important duties and responsibilities of police officers are absolutely stable. Bernardin's research of police tasks within four large American cities instead found no need for a law enforcement agency to start from scratch when developing personnel practices, such as selection and promotion systems, or performance appraisal instrumentation. The same contention may be made for instrumentation design for a task analysis study of police officers, in that since many of the task are similar (but not exactly the same), Bernardin's study provides the researcher simply with a starting point for a task analysis, while at the same time recognizing the existence of specific and unique tasks that may be an important part of the police officer's duties.

During this research effort many of the police tasks of the ISD police officer were in fact found to be stable, and similar in nature to those of police officers in other outside policing services. However, when the significantly unique tasks and competencies required of the school district police officer were identified by the focus group of ISD

police trainers, a clear picture emerged that there were 28 ISD police officer tasks that were found to be unique and specific to the ISD police officers job. The importance of these tasks to the activities required of the ISD police officer on a consistent basis (frequency and criticality levels) should not be ignored by the police in-service training designer.

Failure to include the 28 identified unique tasks may lead to legal liabilities from improper, or inadequate, police training based on Title 42 U.S.C. 1983 for failure to train, as was the case in *City of Canton, Ohio v. Harris* (*City of Canton, Ohio v. Harris*, 489 U.S. 378, 1989). In this incident, Harris sued the City of Canton because she alleged that the city failed to adequately train its police officers about providing medical assistance. Improper training, or a failure to instruct the ISD police officer in tasks that are determined to be core to their job, may subject the ISD police officer to unnecessary risks, by not providing the officer with the basic knowledge, skills and abilities required to perform these important core tasks. The organization itself also has an interest and legal exposure, as was the case in *Monell v. New York City Department of Social Services* (*Monell v. New York City Department of Social Services*, 436 U.S. 658, 98 S. Ct. 2018, 1978). The Supreme Court decided in the *Monell* case that law enforcement organizations themselves could be held responsible for inadequate training of its employees. The Supreme Court also decided in this important case that governmental agencies could be considered persons under the statute (referring to 42 U.S.C., 1983). Before this decision was rendered only individuals could be held responsible for violations of federally protected rights.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Historical Perspective of Law Enforcement Training

Organized training for police officers is a relatively recent phenomenon, and not until the late 1960's were there mandated courses of training specifically designed and required to become a police officer. Many local, state, and federal agencies had set up various academies, but there was no national standard of training mandated by the federal government (Gaines, Kappeler, & Vaughn, 1994). Forming a well-qualified, professional police agency was recognized to be of significant importance by early police researchers, such as August Vollmer and O.W. Wilson. These and other early police researchers were quite aware of the multitude of problems faced by law enforcement officers of their day, and the majority were vocal in calling for more organized and planned training. The problem facing professionalization of policing often emanated from within policing agencies themselves, many of whom were very protective of their profession, and suspect of any outside input from academics and others claiming to possess knowledge of how policing should be formulated.

Wilson and McLaren (1972), commenting on police organization and administration of training, stated that, "Police service, even of the simplest kind, is unlikely to be of a high quality unless policemen have special training." Continuing his comments regarding police training, Wilson further noted that, "The purpose of training is to make sure the officer performs all tasks with ease and in such a way as to ensure his safety and the safety and satisfaction of the public" (p. 299). Vollmer (1969) also recognized the

inadequacies of law enforcement training in his now classic text “The Police and Modern Society” when he commented,

Even among those who may be considered fit, some have been unable to get all the training that is requisite to the adequate discharge of their functions. Only a few large cities have established schools for the members of their police forces. The greater number of these men are badly placed and inadequately trained, yet they are charged with a task that would be difficult for men of the highest quality and skill (p. 4).

A study that was completed in 1967 by the International Association of Chiefs of Police also recognized that police training was inadequate, and found that the police, with limited formal training and minimum qualifications, are granted more latitude and discretion in dealing with the lives and welfare of individual citizens than any other professional group in America. According to the study, physicians received a minimum of 11,000 hours of training, 5,000 hours for morticians, 4,000 hours for barbers, but policemen less than 200 hours (Warren, 1992). Even to date, the vast majority of police officers nationally have well under 500 hours of academy preparatory training, and post academy training is often less than 40 hours per year.

While Vollmer, Wilson and other educators of their time were calling for major changes in the way that police officers are trained and educated, most of American policing (federal, state, and local governments) responsible for officers receiving that training, appeared to ignore the calls for improved police training. The issue that forced these governmental agencies to change their opinions on police training were the issues during the 1960’s that were driving other vast changes in American society. Etter (2000) commented that,

Reacting to events of the 1960's that often pitted large groups of protesting citizens versus the police because of the actions of various governments in the areas of civil rights, the Vietnam War, and other social issues; the federal government began to study police and how they were trained (pp. 1-2).

The federal government's solution to the problems of society and law enforcement's reaction to these changes was what became known as the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act, which called for law enforcement officers at all levels to receive at least initial police academy type of training.

While this act was inadequate to reform police training as a whole, the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act did cause many states to examine their current police training and strategies, as the act was, in effect, a federal mandate. However, the act did nothing to address one of the primary problems of police training, that there was no requirement for states to provide any in-service training to police officers after they finished the law enforcement academy. Texas, on September 1, 1965, passed Article 4413 (29aa), V.C.S., creating the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement. It was not until five years later, in 1970, that minimum standards became mandatory and a basic course was created which called for 140 hours minimum for police training.

Additionally, it was not until 1983 that Texas mandated that all certified police officers receive a minimum of eight hours of in-service training in a one year cycle of training. This mandate was increased to 40 hours every twenty-four months by 1989.

Along with the federal mandates that called for more law enforcement training via the nation's police academies came the recognition that higher education and continuing education (in-service training) would be of great benefit for both current and new police

officers. While higher education, for the most part, appeared to be guided by specific plans regarding the formation of curriculum development and educational opportunities, law enforcement in-service training has appeared to lag behind. Benson (1970) realized some of the common pitfalls of in-service training as:

1. A lack of interest by the administrator responsible for in-service training;
2. A failure by the administrator to keep informed of contemporary policing techniques;
3. Ill-conceived training objectives;
4. Problem solving with “brush fire training”;
5. “Paper training” for appearance;
6. The continued use of outdated methods and materials (Benson, 1970, p. 6).

More recently, Cox (1996) commented that today most law enforcement agencies offered in-service training for their police officers, but it often appeared as if the training was conducted on a “hit or miss” basis, with no specific plan or program in mind.

Further, Cox stated that training was often viewed as a necessary evil by both the trainer and the trained, rather than as a valuable tool for staying current in the field.

The goal of this research effort is to offer a viable solution to ISD law enforcement agencies that desire nothing less than a paradigm shift in the methodology used to determine law enforcement in-service training needs. ISD policing is relatively new to the law enforcement landscape and has some rather unique training needs. Although much of what they do can be regarded as “routine police work”, such as patrol, filing of

charges, and crime prevention ISD policing may be contrasted with other law enforcement officers on both state and local levels.

There have been relatively few statewide training needs analyses done in the area of law enforcement nationwide, and none were found to have been completed for school district policing, even though school district policing appears to be one of the fastest growing areas of law enforcement in America today, as 10-12 years ago relatively few departments were certified as police agencies by TCLEOSE (many had their beginning as security departments, only much later becoming fully licensed police agencies). Most law enforcement efforts that were identified by the current researches organizational analysis found that, as a general rule, most departments conducted a job or task analysis only, and did not include a complete comprehensive training needs analysis (ex., “Statewide Job Analysis of the Patrol Officer Position” by Standard and Associates, Inc., and “Police Job Task Analysis: A Basic Police Training Assessment of the Delaware State Police”, Dissertation by Gregory A. Warren, 1991).

Traditional Police Training Methods

During the turbulent years of the 1960’s organized police training began to slowly transform. Training changed from an “on the job” format, where the new recruit received the vast majority of his or her training from an experienced police officer in the field, to a more rigorous and controlled training environment of the police academy. It was also during this time period that many states began to require in-service training programs for local policing agencies, with the formation of state licensing agencies to keep track and develop licensing procedures to keep officers licensed. This was not an

easy task for most states, as this was a newly developing concept (licensing and training of police officers). Previous training efforts provided little guidance for the design and development of local training programs, and many of the programs were being designed simultaneously in states around the country with no successes or failures to use as a template to formulating their own programs.

The majority of the state's licensing authorities and policing agencies turned to academia for assistance and guidance in an attempt to develop sound programs for their agencies. It was during this period that law enforcement became acquainted with the behavioral model for police training. Use of the behavioral model persists today, even though newer models have emerged as learning theory has progressed (such as cognitivism and constructivism). The theory of behaviorism concentrates on the study of overt behaviors that can be observed and measured (Good & Brophy, 1990). Behaviorists view the mind as a "black box" in the sense that response to stimulus can be observed quantitatively (measured). The development of behavioral objectives is of importance to the behaviorist, and the tasks are often broken down into specific, measurable tasks. Instructional methodology for this approach includes: competency-based instruction, criterion-referenced instruction, programmed instruction, and computer assisted instruction (Elias & Merriam, 1995). The behaviorist model has been of great benefit to law enforcement over the years and has led to a vast improvement in police training methods and techniques.

The researcher or instructor who follows a strict cognitivist viewpoint believes that we need to look at what is going on within the person's mind, and looks at the thought process behind the behavior. "Cognitive theorists recognize that much learning involves associations established through contiguity and repetition. They also acknowledge the importance of reinforcement, although they stress its role in providing feedback about the correctness of responses over its role as a motivator" (Good & Brophy, 1990, p. 187). Many of the instructional strategies used by behaviorists are also used by cognitivist, but for different reasons. An example of each viewpoint (behaviorist and cognitivist) would be that the behaviorist assesses learners to determine a starting point for instruction, while the cognitivist looks at the learner to determine their predisposition to learning (Ertmer & Newby, 1993).

Law enforcement is beginning to see a shift from an instructional systems design based on strictly a behaviorist or a cognitive stance to one of a blending of both styles. When designing from a cognitive-behaviorist stance, the designer analyzes the situation and sets a goal. The individual tasks are broken down into smaller portions and the learning objectives are developed. In order to determine if the objectives have been met, an evaluation is then completed by the instructor/designer on the program to determine effectiveness, which is then fed back into the program to improve the overall program design. Understanding the major theories of learning is important to the law enforcement training instructional designer, as an understanding of the different theories will provide the instructional designer with an understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of

programs based on each of the learning theories, and will enhance the overall learning environment.

Ertmer and Newby (1993) compared and contrasted behaviorism, cognitivism and constructivism, and felt that the instructional approach used for the novice learner may not be efficiently stimulating for a learner who is already familiar with the subject. Instead they felt that instructional strategies and content depend on the level of the learners. They suggested the following guidelines for choosing an approach to instructional design:

1. Behavioral approach: tasks requiring a low degree of processing (e.g., basic paired associations, discriminations, rote memorization) seem to be facilitated by strategies most frequently associated with a behavioral outlook (e.g. stimulus-response, contiguity of feedback/reinforcement).
2. Cognitive approach: tasks requiring an increasing degree of processing (e.g., classifications, rule or procedural executions) are primarily associated with strategies having a stronger cognitive emphasis (e.g., schematic organization, analogical reasoning, algorithmic problem solving).
3. Constructive approach: tasks demanding high levels of processing (e.g., heuristic problem solving, personal selection and monitoring of cognitive strategies) are frequently learned with strategies advanced by the constructivist perspective (Ertmer & Newby, 1993).

Ertmer and Newby (1993) believe that the strategies promoted by different learning theories overlap, and that learning theory strategies are concentrated along different points of a continuum depending on the focus of the learning theory. The police instructional designer may find that using the instructional strategies provided by Ertmer and Newby will enhance their instructional efforts and provide them with practical applications of the various learning theories.

Ackerman's Model

One of the weaknesses of traditional police training design is that after the needs assessment and job task inventory have both been finalized there appears to be little effort to ascertain how training can be maximized by determining how much the employee already knows about the particular subject(s) that will be instructed. The behaviorist approach, which pervades police training, does not always consider current knowledge of the police officer when designing a training program. To develop a program from the behaviorist approach requires that the behavioral objectives be broken down through analysis into specific, measurable tasks. This results in a police training program, which often repeats familiar knowledge which has been previously acquired by the police officer. Ackerman's model, however, takes a more cognitivist approach, in that Ackerman maintains that as tasks become more familiar the sequences of action become more automatic and reduce attentional demands. The cognitivist analyzes a task, breaks it down into smaller steps or chunks, and then uses that information to develop instruction that moves from simple to complex, building on prior schema or knowledge of the individual.

It is often impractical, for example, to put an experienced officer with 20 years of experience with a police department into an in-service class with a rookie officer just weeks from the police academy. There are exceptions, and there are no hard and fast rules for the department to follow, but a basic fingerprinting class (for example) that has already been attended and learned by the experienced officer is not going to keep his or her interest, and may be a waste of valuable training time and training monies. Training that involves officer safety issues and those that involve learning a new technique or a new technology should, on the other hand, always include officers of all ranks and levels regardless of previous experience.

Ackerman's work, which drew on previous work in skill acquisition (e.g., Anderson, 1983) and automaticity (e.g. Schnieder & Shiffrin, 1977) "proposed a theory of skill acquisition that attempted to explain how task performance can become automatic through practice" (Farrell & McDaniel, 2001, p. 60). Ackerman predicted that a task becomes more completely automatic with practice and that, "under certain conditions task performance switches from being slow and effortful to being fast and effortless" (i.e., automatic; James, 1890) (Farrell & McDaniel, 2001, p. 60). Controlled processing (see Schnieder & Shiffrin, 1977) which is learned by the relatively new learner when first learning a new task or behavior is slow, effortful and error prone, and requires a great deal of attentional resources. On the other hand, automatic processing "occurs without intention, is outside of conscious awareness, and consumes few cognitive resources" (Posner & Snyder, 1974).

Ackerman's model further explains that skills acquisition has three basic phases:

Phase 1- during this phase the person's attention is focused on learning instructions and developing strategies for the task. If the material is new, there is a strong demand on attentional resources. Performance at this stage can be slow and error prone.

Phase 2- occurs after a moderate level of task practice. During this phase, individual productions are integrated into sequences of action. With more practice performance becomes quicker, accurate, and indeed, more automatic, as there is less demand on attentional resources.

Phase 3- at this stage productions are fully integrated allowing for entire sequences of action to be performed as a single production. At this stage performance is fast, accurate, and relatively automatic, and task only require a slight demand on attentional resources (Farrell & McDaniel, 2001, p. 61).

Ackerman's theory is much more complex than is examined in this research effort. The Ackerman model provides the job analyst and the developer of law enforcement curriculum with an important observation, which is that consideration of previous knowledge and skill acquisition should be a routine component of the training designer's toolbox. Currently, many of the in-service classes available for the school district and other law enforcement officers in Texas do not consider prior subject matter knowledge to be of great importance when planning the classroom content and activities. Unless the knowledge being offered to the experienced police officer is a relatively new issue, chances are the officer already has already reached Ackerman's level three, where the behavior has become almost second nature. The training manager should consider prior

knowledge acquisition when designing the training program and question if an experienced officer needs to be placed in the same classroom as a less experienced officer. There are occasions when the answer is going to be “yes”, as when the instructor is relying on the experienced officer to help instruct the less experienced officer. However, considering prior experience(s) of the police officer regarding a task should be one factor considered by the training manager when designing a training curriculum.

Law Enforcement Training Liability

Perhaps one of the most important concerns that law enforcement organizations face today is regarding vicarious liability, often referred to in the law enforcement community as the “failure to train” issue. Police officer’s, supervisors and governmental organizations alike often are the subject of lawsuits based on Title 42 U.S.C. 1983, which provides for a remedy for the violation of individual’s federally protected Constitutional rights. Regarding failure to train, which is an outgrowth of past Title 42 U.S.C. lawsuits and another Supreme Court decision *Monell v. New York City Department of Social Services* (1978), the issue of inadequate training and law enforcement personnel first became an issue in the case of *City of Canton v. Harris* (1989). Harris, picked up by City of Canton Police, was found wandering the streets acting strangely, and was arrested and transported to the police holding facility, where she later claimed that she received no medical attention for her mental problems. Harris then sued the City of Canton because she alleged that the city failed to adequately train its police officers about providing medical assistance. The final results of this lawsuit found that the inadequacy of police training may only serve as the basis of a 1983

lawsuit, when the failure to train amounts to deliberate indifference to the rights of an individual. Deliberate indifference is defined as “the conscious or reckless disregard of the consequences of one's acts or omissions” (‘Lectric Law Library, 2003).

Although failure to train is a relatively new phenomenon due to recent court litigation, police liability has, nevertheless, been recognized as a potential problem area by previous law enforcement administrators and educators before the related lawsuits regarding failure to train were ever filed. For example, a recent analysis of legal liabilities in law enforcement recently appeared in the publication of “Crime and Delinquency” (2001). In this Texas study Michael Vaughn, Tab Cooper and Rolando del Carmen surveyed 849 Texas police chiefs, which asked them 25 questions regarding civil liability lawsuits to determine their experiences with this subject. This study found that 34 of 576 lawsuits suffered by Texas police chiefs were directly related to inadequate training and the top 3 (assault and battery, false arrest, imprisonment, and detention, unlawful search and seizure) had a high probability of successful litigation due to inadequate or lack of training on the reported issues.

Wilson and McLaren (1972) commented in their classic text “Police Administration” that “the municipality clearly has a responsibility to provide training for its police officers, not only for their own safety, but also to protect the city against suits for damages” (p. 299). In the *City of Canton Ohio v. Harris* ruling, the Supreme Court ruled that a local government can be held liable under section 1983 provisions if an officer injures a person due to a deficiency in training. It is unfortunate that these educators, and other individuals involved in police training in the past, were not heeded by law

enforcement organizations. It should not take a lawsuit for a governmental agency, responsible for the proper use of taxpayer monies, to realize that there is a problem that must be resolved. However, a short review of law enforcement history is replete with examples of police departments failing to heed outside guidance and advice.

When determining liability involving a municipality, the courts have traditionally considered several factors to determine whether a municipality is liable for failure to train under 42 U.S.C. Section 1983. The plaintiff has the burden of proving three elements: (1) the training program is inadequate for the tasks that an officer performs; (2) the inadequacy of training is the result of the city's deliberate indifference; and (3) the inadequacy is closely related to or caused the plaintiff's injury (*Johnston v. Cincinnati*, 1999). The majority of Section 1983 successful cases have involved more than one single incident of improper training before liability will be assessed. A pattern or history of problems or incidents that can be related to improper training will normally be the deciding factor in assessing liability.

However, in *Brown v. Bryan County* (2000) the court held that a municipality may be liable for the inadequate training and misconduct of just one officer. In this incident, an off-duty plainclothes officer shot and severely injured the plaintiff following a traffic dispute. The jury found that the shooting was directly related to the officer's position as a police officer and that the police department had failed to train him on the always-armed/ always-on duty policy. Additionally, in *Atchison v. D.C.* (1996) liability was imposed for a single incident of failure to train and supervise when the plaintiff, who

was carrying a machete, was shot by an officer without further warning after telling him to “freeze”.

Another important issue, which is an outgrowth of the *Monell v. New York City Department of Social Services* case is the decision that supervisors, as well as law enforcement organizations themselves, could be held responsible for inadequate training of its employees. The Supreme Court, with the *Monell* decision, also decided that governmental agencies could be considered persons under the statute (referring to Title 42 U.S.C. 1983), where previously only individuals could be held responsible for violations of the federally protected rights. However, incidents of such violations must be shown to involve gross negligence on the part of law enforcement agencies, or the incident must be determined to constitute a deliberate indifference to the rights of an individual. The following are examples of supervisory negligence:

- Negligent hiring - hiring persons unfit for police work; not conducting psychological exams; not conducting full background checks.
- Negligent supervision - inadequate monitoring of employee performance; failure to reprimand when appropriate; tolerating sloppy police work; hearing rumors and not acting; being new to supervisor job .
- Negligent retention - keeping employees on the job or promoting them on the basis of favoritism or friendship when they clearly should have been severely disciplined, demoted, or dismissed.

- Failure to train - inadequately preparing employees to perform their duties; minimal or too easy academy training; little or no in-service training; no educational tuition reimbursement.
- Negligent entrustment - inadequately preparing employees prior to entrusting them with responsibilities; a synergistic combination of failure to train and negligent supervision.
- Negligent assignment - assigning known problem employees to critical or inappropriate duties; reckless drivers to patrol; racist officers to ghetto areas; sexist officers with a female partner.
- Failure to direct - not giving officers clear, articulated guidance in how to perform their duties; not having policies and procedures; having officers "sign off" on same without understanding them.
- Failure to discipline - not having an effective discipline process; not following progressive discipline principles.
- Failure to investigate - also a liability of officers; with supervisors, it's not having an effective Internal Affairs unit, inspections or integrity checks, a difficult (for citizens) complaint process, or a difficult (for employees) grievance process.
- Failure to protect - also a liability of officers and jail managers; not inspecting safety conditions; allowing victims or witnesses to come in contact with suspects; (protection of public is an individual liability addressed with failure to direct for supervisors or writ of mandamus).

- Failure to treat - also a liability of officers and jail manager; not providing first aid, ambulance service, or counseling (given the foresee ability of suicide)
- Negligent classification - liability of a jail manager; throwing adults in with children, or dangerous inmates in with non-dangerous ones (T. O'Connor, 2003, p. 3).

A recent analysis of legal liabilities in law enforcement recently appeared in the publication of "Crime and Delinquency" (2001). In this Texas study Michael Vaughn, Tab Cooper and Rolando del Carmen surveyed 849 Texas police chiefs, were asked to respond to 25 questions regarding civil liability lawsuits to determine their experiences with this subject. While not all of the survey is pertinent to the current discussion, there were two questions, which elicited responses of interest. When asked about the number of lawsuits filed by a member of the public 34 of 576 were directly related to inadequate training and the top three (assault and battery, false arrest, imprisonment, and detention, unlawful search and seizure) had a high probability of successful litigation due to inadequate or lack of training on the reported issues.

Additionally, another question regarding monetary awards paid out by policing organizations in connection with a lawsuit filed by a member of the public in the past three years indicated that monetary awards were paid in 193 cases, with a total settlement cost of \$8,810,400. Interestingly the participants reported that they felt that better training was the second most important strategy for preventing lawsuits. The first and most important way to prevent lawsuits was to treat people fairly. Del Carmen and Kappeler (1991) in an earlier study regarding police liability found that liability risks

increase when a department's official policy maker fails to develop adequate training regimens.

Risher (2001) made a valid observation in her article that appeared in *The Police Chief* that "failure to train claims do not always result from outrageous behavior. Any misstep by an officer that results in injury may lead to a failure- to- train claim." Risher concluded her comments on failure to train by adding, "To avoid lawsuits based on these claims, managers must develop a training curriculum that involves every aspect of policing and carefully document the training of all officers" (p. 10). Also, Ross (2000) further suggested that "each police administrator should conduct an internal assessment of recurring tasks officers and supervisors perform on a regular basis" (p. 12).

Unfortunately, many policing organizations will probably not take note of Risher or Ross's advice and will continue to put training issues as a low priority on their agenda. While most police administrators would agree that employee training is important, factors such as budgetary constraints, state training requirements which take up much of a departments training agenda and the lack of qualified personnel to determine training needs through a training needs assessment, will continue to hinder the police training process.

Needs Assessment Defined

Any attempts to identify and plan for training issues and problems should have, as its first step, a comprehensive needs assessment. Wexley (1984) proclaimed that a “training needs assessment provides information on where training is needed, what the content of the training should be, and who within the organization needs training in certain kinds of skills and knowledge.” Rouda and Kusy (1995) define a needs assessment as “a systematic exploration of the way things are and the way they should be. These “things” are usually associated with organizational and/or individual performance” (p. 1).

Perhaps the clearest explanation of needs assessment is given by Anderson (2000), who writes that the needs assessment,

Is the starting point in the training process. It is the phase in which an organization’s needs are identified, forming the foundation of an effective training effort. The needs assessment tells where and what kind of training programs are needed, who needs to be included, conditions under which training will occur, and criteria to guide program evaluation (p. 9).

The literature often will distinguish between needs assessment and needs analysis as being two distinct and different processes to identifying organizational training needs. For example, Ford (1999) distinguishes between the two terms in his text “Bottom Line Training”.

Needs analysis refers to an investigation into whether training or some other organizational intervention can solve a performance problem or enable a desirable new performance in the workplace.” while describing a “Needs assessment [as] the process of determining what knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSA’s) employees need to perform their jobs” (p. 11).

However, the researcher believes that both of these terms are closely related and designed to identify training issues and problems within an organization, so the two terms may be used interchangeably in this research effort.

In discussing how to actually conduct a needs analysis Mitchell (1993) stated, “To conduct a needs analysis you gather data of present performance, then compare the data to the desired performance standards projected by management” (p. 107). Mitchell further related that the needs analysis helps develop a solid database on which to build the justification for your training program. A thorough search of the literature found no references to training needs analysis being conducted regarding school district policing, and very few have been conducted in law enforcement nationwide.

Needs Assessment Models

There are several different types of needs assessment techniques, or models that have been developed over the years, which have further developed the original job analysis framework that was provided by McGehee and Thayer. Fine (Fine, 1978; Olson, Fine, Myers, and Jennings, 1981) describes a methodology called functional job analysis, much of which is based on focusing on the individual tasks as a unit. Goldstein (1986) describes Fines system as a system that, “requires that the tasks be specified thoroughly enough to be able to classify the worker according to the degree of involvement with data, people and things” (p. 52). The job analysts’ duties under this construct would be to observe the job and then work with SME’s to develop the task list.

Another model was developed by Mager and Pipe (1970) in their now classic text “Analyzing Performance Problems: Or You Really Oughta Wanna”, and has since become known as Mager and Pipe’s “Performance Analysis Model”. Ford (1999) describes this model’s underlying assumption as being that, “performance problems have two primary origins: the person doesn’t know how to perform (lacks the knowledge), or the person doesn’t want to perform (lack motivation)” (p. 12). Mager and Pipe believed that many of the performance problems faced by organizations today were motivational in nature and training alone could not fix those types of problems. Investigation would begin by examine if the problem was skill related, and if so, focusing on identifying those skills.

Often a person who lacks the knowledge to perform a particular task will become frustrated in their efforts to complete the task, causing poor performance and a resultant lack of motivation to continue the task. If not a skill problem the focus turned to motivational issues, identifying the motivational problems, and removing the problems where training can continue. Mager and Pipe recognized that if the problem were motivational that training efforts would likely fail, and that no amount of training would be beneficial. The benefits of this model are that it recognizes that training and performance problems are often linked, and any organization that does not consider both will likely not succeed.

Rummler and Brache (1990) believed that any analysis should look beyond the immediate job performer to identify the complexities of the overall organization. Rummler proposed that we should look beyond the job performer to determine training

needs, which is done by performing three levels of performance analysis: Organizational and surrounding environment, process and work group, and individual performer.

Rummler also describes four training assessment approaches to be used to determine training needs: performance analysis, task analysis, competency study, and training needs survey. Rummler believed that of the four approaches that performance analysis would offer the best results as it linked training to performance outcomes. Ford (1999), when commenting on Rummler's model, stated that each of Rummler's approaches has a place in the trainers "toolbox" as "We have yet to achieve the holy grail of a single best needs assessment method that is fail-safe and under all circumstances" (p. 16).

Allison Rosett's (1987) "Needs Assessment Model" identifies needs assessment as consisting of two kinds of activities: Identifying gaps between what is happening and what should be happening (gap analysis) and identifying causes for the gaps (causal analysis). Rosett's model offers a "planning" and a "doing" stage, with the planning stage focusing on the work environment and observations made of that environment by the needs assessor. In the doing stage the assessor should select the appropriate method to collect data relevant to the training problems of the organization. Rosette offered that the data that is generated from the resultant skill gap analysis should reveal deficiencies in one or more of the following areas: skill, knowledge, environment, or incentives. Ford (1999) offered the comment that, "Only deficiencies in the first category can be effectively addressed by training. Deficiencies in the other areas are better addressed by changing the work environment, the management system, the reward/recognition system, or the job itself" (p. 17).

Donald Ford (1999) offered his needs analysis model appropriately labeled as Ford's "Model T" in his text "Bottom Line Training". Ford believed that any model offered should be simple in design, as the more complex the model becomes the less likely it is that anyone would use it in the business and organizational community. Ford's model contains four phases, which consist of surveillance, investigation, analysis and action. He describes surveillance as an ongoing process of reviewing vital information about an organization to understand the issues and the problems it is confronting. Ford further states, "Surveillance, while unfocused on a specific performance problem, provides the necessary background to begin a more specific investigation quickly" (p. 19). The trainer should keep his attention focused on the organization as a whole, where using his surveillance method may identify problem areas.

The investigation phase would then start when a problem area is identified and data would then be gathered for later analysis. Ford felt that three common methods for gathering this data could be used in this phase of the analysis. The methods are interviews, surveys and observation, with the assessor determining which method he/she felt was useful in gathering the data. Once the data is collected Ford then remarks that the analysis phase can begin. The assessor would then need to choose his methodology of choice (quantitative or qualitative) to describe and analyze the relevant data collected. The last step in Ford's model is termed the action step, and starts when the trainer or manager begins to make decisions based on the data that has been collected and analyzed.

McGehee and Thayer's Model

The first systematic treatment of needs analysis can be found in the McGehee and Thayer (1961) classic text "Training in Business and Industry". As noted by Goldstein (1989) "McGehee and Thayer (1961) introduced a framework for understanding the needs assessment process. [They identified] three critical and interrelated components: organizational analysis, operations (or task) analysis, and person analysis" (p. 26). Using McGehee and Thayer's (1961) model for conducting training needs analysis the researcher would start with an organizational analysis, which Goldstein (1986) states, "begins with an examination of the short and long term goals of the organization, as well as trends that are likely to affect those goals" (p. 17). Goldstein (1986) also added that organizational analysis included, "examination of the resources of the organization, climate for training, and internal and external constraints present in the environment" (p. 28). Ostroff and Ford (1989) expanded Goldstein's explanation, adding that the organizational analysis "emphasizes the study of the entire organization, its objectives, its resources, and the allocation of those resources, as they are related to the organizational objectives" (pp. 26-27).

Goldstein and Ford (2002) in an effort to distinguish the difference between organizational analysis and task and person analysis remarks that the "Organizational analysis refers to an examination of the system wide components of the organization that may affect a training program's factors beyond those ordinarily considered in task and person analysis" (p. 28). The organizational analysis focuses on "the congruence between training objectives with such factors as organizational goals, available

resources, constraints, and support for transfer” (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001, p. 475).

A 1993 study that was conducted in a chain of fast food restaurants by Rouiller and Goldstein (1993) demonstrated that organizational climate was a powerful predictor of whether trainees transferred the learned skills.

Another study in supermarkets by Tracey et al (1995) illustrated how the organizational climate and culture were directly related to post training behaviors. Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) further remarked that “Clearly, these two studies illustrate how powerful an effect the organizational environment can have on whether newly acquired knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSA’s) are applied on the job” (p. 475).

Cascio (1998), reflecting on the need for the organizational analysis, commented that, “Will training produce changes in employee behavior that will contribute to the organization’s goals? If that connection cannot be made, then training is probably not necessary” (p. 265).

Blanchard and Thacker (1999) commented that while in the past organizational analysis has focused on the strategies of the organization, the resources of the organization, and the allocation of these resources that, “More recently, organizational analysis has been reconceptualized to include the total internal environment” (p. 131). This process looks at structures, policies and procedures, job-design work flow processes, and other factors that facilitate or inhibit an employee’s ability to meet job performance expectations” (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). Blanchard and Thacker (1999) explain that this expansion of definition was necessary in order to assist in identifying

the cause of discrepancies, and specifically was intended to determine if the discrepancies were, in fact, training issues.

Many training issues often turn out to be related to issues that cannot be addressed by training, or by training alone. Instead, they were issues within the organizational environment itself, which prohibited or prevented the appropriate work behaviors. An organizational analysis, then, should include the following:

1. An examination of the mission and strategies of an organization.
2. An examination of the resources and allocation of the resources, given the objectives.
3. An analysis of the factors in the internal environment to determine if they are causing the problem.
4. If the training is required, the impact of those environmental factors on providing training and transferring the training to the job. (Blanchard, Thacker, 1999, p. 132).

In regards to order of analysis it is recommended that the organizational analysis should be completed before the task or person analysis, to identify any constraints operating on the organizational level, before continuing with the next steps of task and person analysis. Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001), when reviewing the outcomes of an organizational analysis state that two of the most important objectives are the “specification of learning objectives, which in turn shapes the design and delivery of training, as well as the process of criterion development” (p. 475).

Without the identification of specific learning objectives of the organization and its support staff the next step in the needs assessment, the job analysis, would likely be ineffectual. It is of little help to design a training program if there are internal and external organizational constraints (ex. budgetary, policy and procedural), which would act to hinder the training program or curriculum. Also, it is important to remember that the issue may not be a training issue at all, but rather an issue of incongruent goals and objectives of the department, a resource issue (budgetary), or inconsistent policies and procedural issues. It is recommended that any identified training constraints need to be documented and discussed prior to designing a training program by the needs assessor and the organizations management.

The Continuous Learning Culture

The organizational analysis should go beyond identifying the system wide components of the organization that may be affecting the training program and attempt to ascertain the organizational culture as it relates to support of the continuous learning work environment. Tracey, Tannenbaum and Kavanagh (1995) in their work titled “Applying Trained Skills on the Job: The Importance of the Work Environment”, which discussed the subject of transfer of training, reviewed and synthesized several authors views of the continuous learning environment and its importance within an organization. Factors contributing to a continuous learning environment:

First: A continuous-learning work environment is one in which knowledge and skill acquisition is essential responsibilities of every employee’s job (Rosow & Zager, 1988). Job assignments are challenging and are designed to promote personal development

(Dubin, 1990). Moreover, learning becomes a taken-for-granted part of every job in an organization, and this tacit understanding is embedded within the framework of organizational meaning (Schein, 1985).

Second: a continuous learning work environment is one in which knowledge and skill acquisition is supported by social interaction and work relationships (Dubin, 1990). By working together in a highly interactive work context, organizational members gain an understanding of each other's tasks and responsibilities and clearly recognize the interrelationships among jobs. Cooperation and cohesion among employees, managers, teams, functional units, and so on, are encouraged and supported such that they become institutionalized (Kozlowski & Hults, 1987; Rosow & Zager, 1988).

Third: Organizations that have a continuous-learning work environment have developed formal systems that reinforce achievement and provide opportunities for personal development (Dubin, 1990). Organizational members are provided with resources and opportunities necessary to acquire and apply new knowledge and skills. In addition, there are clear policies that communicate the importance of continuous learning (Kozlowski & Hults, 1987), and extrinsic and intrinsic rewards are provided to individuals who effectively apply newly acquired job-related knowledge (Dubin, 1990; Rosow & Zager, 1988).

Fourth: A continuous-learning work environment is characterized by an emphasis on innovation and competition, both within and outside the organizational context (Rosow & Zager, 1988). There is a shared expectation that all organizational members strive for

high levels of work performance through progressive, innovative work techniques and putting forth maximum effort.

Tracey, Tannenbaum and Kavanagh (1995) proclaim that the continuous-learning work environment is “one in which organizational members share perceptions and expectations that learning is an important part of everyday life” (p. 241). The organizations culture, which can be defined in terms of shared values and beliefs, shapes perceptions and behaviors associated with knowledge and skill acquisition. Thus, if the culture of the organization supports training wholeheartedly and makes employee training one of its top priorities, chances are that the employees will see training as more than “just another 8 hours that I have to endure”. Unfortunately many of the training classes that law enforcement in Texas is provided with by their agencies or outside vendors are often perceived by the officer receiving the training as just that, “another 8 hours of training”. Therefore, understanding the organizations work environment and taking steps to mend the problems that are found is an important step in the process that cannot be trivialized by the needs assessor.

Task Analysis Models

The second step, continuing with the McGehee and Thayer model is the task analysis, of which Gordon (1994) states that “Traditionally, task analysis has been accomplished by breaking down a job to be trained into a list or hierarchy of components, such as duties, tasks, and subtasks” (e.g., Goldstein, 1986; Merrill, 1987; Rothwell & Kazanas, 1992). Clifford (1994) describes the job analysis as “the process of defining the work, activities, tasks, products, services or processes performed by or produced by an

employee or employees” (p. 323). Clifford goes on to explain that since people do not behave in a random fashion, are generally reasonable and systematic and continuously adjusting their jobs to be more efficient, that people can and will talk about their jobs when asked in a very organized systematic manner. The job of the analyst is to capture those thoughts and ideas about the job of an employee in an organized, systematic manner where the results can be analyzed and jobs defined. Once the job is defined then the analyst can detect where training may be needed in an organization.

The analysis generally begins with a task description, followed by a detailed specification of tasks and a scaling of tasks on various dimensions, such as criticality, frequency of occurrence, and so on. The resultant list, according to Goldstein (1986), results in a statement of the activities or work operations performed on the job and the conditions under which the job is performed. It is not a description of the worker but rather a description of the job itself. Once completed the researcher should have a comprehensive picture of the role and job duties of the employee’s position. These tasks and roles are important, as when roles and tasks are accurately defined, then needed competencies can be identified which can lead to the identification and development of a “body of knowledge” for criminal justice practitioners, thereby taking a giant step toward true professionalization (Tannehill & Janeksela, 1984).

Completing a job analysis also has additional benefits for the organization, as it assists the people within an organization develop a clearer picture of what their job entails, and helps them understand exactly what is expected of them. The analysis also helps supervisors and managers to, “establish criteria for job performance, which in a

broader context lays the foundation for performance management and career planning systems” (Gupta, 1999, p. 90). The job analysis identifies the content and context of the job for both employees and employer, and in effect provides them with a roadmap for job success. There are additional benefits and drawbacks to conducting a job and task analysis:

Benefits to conducting a job and task analysis:

1. It stimulates buy-in and interest because people are directly involved in defining their jobs.
2. It provides supervisors with a profile of skill sets that are necessary in order for people to perform competently in a given job function.
3. It serves as a basis for distinguishing the skill requirements for various job classifications within a job category (such as entry-level versus senior positions).
4. It serves as a benchmark for determining what additional knowledge, skills, or abilities must be acquired in order for people to move laterally across or upward within a job category.
5. It helps in the overall growth and professional development of people within an organization.

Drawbacks of conducting a job and task analysis:

1. It does not take into account any external factors that may have an impact on job performance.
2. It takes time and commitment.
3. It is costly. (Gupta, 1999, p. 91).

Examples of the task dimensions that are often used in a job analysis are:

1. Time spent. Amount of time spent on a task, relative to all other tasks in a job.
Note that this scale is different than the relative time spent scale used in the Armed Forces, which is usually defined as “time to learn” the task (Christal, 1974).
2. Task difficulty. How difficult it is to perform a task, relative to all other tasks in a job.
3. Task criticality. Degree to which incorrect performance of a task would result in negative consequences, relative to other tasks in a job.
4. Task responsibility. Degree of responsibility for completing a task without supervision, relative to all other tasks in a job.
5. Difficulty of learning the task. The amount of time and effort that is required to learn to manage a task, relative to all other tasks in a job.
6. Overall task importance. The overall importance of a task, relative to all other tasks in a job. (Sanchez & Levine 1989, p. 33).

Job Analysis Models

It would be of benefit to review the various types of job analysis methods over the years, as there are many different methods and variations that have been offered over the last few decades as research has progressed. Of the rather long list of job analysis methods that have been developed only a few will be discussed here, as several methods have gone into disuse, primarily due to advancements in job analysis techniques and consolidation of job analysis methods.

Functional job analysis is based on research conducted as a part of the Functional Occupational Classification Project, which resulted in the third edition of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. Conceived by Sidney Fine during the years of 1950-1959, functional job analysis became a comprehensive job/task analysis approach which focuses on interactions among the work, the workers, and the work organization (Fine, Holt & Hutchinson, 1974). Functional job analysis had five primary components:

1. Identification of purpose, goals, and objectives- the organizations overall purpose, mission and maintenance goals, resources and constraints, and objectives are identified.
2. Identification and description of tasks- tasks describing “what a worker does” and “what gets done” are identified and defined to reflect the systems orientation. Task statements describing the content of the job are then written in standardized format.
3. Analysis of tasks- each task is analyzed according to seven scales-the Worker Function Scales of Data, people, and Things; the Worker Instruction Scale; and the three General Education Development Scales of Reasoning, Mathematics, and Language.
4. Development of performance standards- task statements and orientation percentages provide the basis for determining descriptive as well as numerical performance standards which define the criteria for assessing the results of a workers tasks.

5. Development of training content- FJA distinguishes between three types of skills-functional, specific content, and adaptive-in identifying job requirements. (Bemis, Belenky & Soder, 1983).

The FJA data is usually developed by trained analysts and is based on a review of background and reference material, interviews with workers and supervisors, and direct observation of the work as it is performed (Bemis, Belenky & Soder, 1983).

Additionally, FJA has been applied to the analysis of work on every level, from management to clerical, and a broad range of fields from human resources to construction with good results.

Critical Incident Technique, developed by John C. Flanagan (Flanagan, 1954) is a method of defining a job in terms of the concrete and specific behaviors necessary to perform that job successfully. This work was based on Flanagan's work during World War II, which was an effort to design procedures for selecting and classifying aircrews.

The technique has two basic steps:

1. Identification of critical incidents- incidents illustrating behaviors that are observed to be effective or ineffective in accomplishing the aims of a job are collected from supervisors, incumbents, and others who are in a position to observe and evaluate job behavior. Usually the employee's behavior is studied and a description is written explaining the circumstances leading up to a particular incident, what the person did, and why the behavior was effective or ineffective.

2. Classifications of critical incidents- after the incidents are collected for a job they are then reviewed and classified, or grouped, into categories (Bemis, Belenky & Soder, 1983).

The CIT does not provide a complete description of a job, but does identify successful or unsuccessful performance by an employee. This technique has often been used in conjunction with other types of job analysis techniques, and has been used for developing job performance appraisals, test construction, and for the development and defense of selection processes.

The Position Analysis Questionnaire developed by Ernest McCormick and Associates at Purdue University hypothesized that “there is some underlying behavioral structure or order to the domain of human work” (McCormick, Jeanneret & Mecham, 1972). The PAQ is a structured job analysis instrument, which is used to analyze and describe the job as it is being performed (Bemis, Belenky & Soder, 1983, p. 30). The method is composed of 194 elements, of which 187 are related to job activities and seven to compensation. The elements are then organized into six categories:

1. Information input- where and how does the worker get the information used in performing the job?
2. Mental processes- what reasoning, decision-making, planning, and information-processing activities are involved in performing the job?
3. Work output- what physical activities does the worker perform and what tools or devices are used?

4. Relationship with other persons- what relationships with other people are required in performing the job?
5. Job context- in what physical and social contexts is the work performed?
6. Other job characteristics- what activities, conditions, or characteristics, other than those described in the job context category, are relevant to the job? (Bemis, Belenky & Soder, 1983, p. 31).

The PAQ has primarily been used in the development of job evaluation and compensation programs, but also generates data that can be applied to employee selection and placement, performance appraisal, assessment center development, determining the similarity of jobs, grouping jobs into families, vocational counseling, career development, identifying training needs and developing training curricula (McCormick, Jeanneret & Mecham , 1977). The PAQ is still in use today by many various types of organizations from government to business, and has been successfully used to identify training needs and guide curriculum development.

Cognitive task analysis, a relative new form of task analysis, is a method of research, which refers to a “set of procedures for understanding the mental processing and mental requirements for job performance” (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001, p.475). This method of analysis has received a lot of attention lately (see Dubois et al. 1997/1998, Schraagen et al. 2000) from researchers wishing to “understand how trainees acquire and develop knowledge and how they organize rules, concepts and associations” (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001, p. 475). Gordon (1994) further denotes that “While traditional task analysis focused on the knowledge and skills required for each individual subtask,

cognitive task analysis goes far beyond that, analyzing the knowledge base for an entire job or set of tasks, looking at concepts and procedures, but also at their interrelationships” (p.68).

Cognitive task analysis has its roots in cognitive psychology and cognitive science. Cognitive science has been described as a blend of cognitive psychology, computer science, engineering, and philosophy that has as its goal the understanding of the mind by producing models of mental activity (Brannick & Levine, 2002,). The researcher who chooses to use this method to determine how a task is completed usually have both experts and novices complete a task in a controlled environment and then make inferences as to the mental activities the expert uses to complete the task. Then a computer model is used to attempt to mimic what the experts do in completing the task. The analysis normally begins with the completion of a work-oriented job analysis and then some of the tasks are chosen for more in-depth study by using the method described above. One of the greatest strengths of cognitive task analysis is that unlike other work-based and trait-oriented methods of task analysis cognitive analysis realizes that there may be more than one way to complete a task. Table 1 is a comparison of work-oriented task analysis and cognitive task analysis.

Table 1

Comparison of Work-Oriented Task Analysis and Cognitive Task Analysis

<i>Work-Oriented Task Analysis</i>	<i>Cognitive Task Analysis</i>
Emphasizes behavior	Emphasizes cognition
Analyzes target performance	Analyzes expertise and learning
Evaluates knowledge for each task Separately	Evaluates the interrelations among knowledge elements
Segments tasks according to behaviors required	Segments tasks according to cognitive skills required
Representational skills are not addressed	Representational skills are addressed
<u>Describes only one way to perform</u>	<u>Accounts for individual differences</u>

Source. Adapted from *Applied Cognitive Task Analysis in Aviation*, by T.L. Seamster, R.E. Redding, and G.I. Kaempf, 1997, Brookfield, VT: Ashgate, p. 5. Copyright (c) 1997 by Ashgate Publications. Reprinted by permission of Ashgate Publications.

When using this method of task analysis the researcher would be wise to make a distinction between knowledge and skill. Knowledge has been described as referring to information possessed by the jobholder, whereas skill refers to a process that uses information (Brannick & Levine, 2002). Several types of skills were identified by Seamster, Redding, & Kaempf (1997):

1. Automated skills- mental processes that are fast and effortless (an example would be an adult who learns how to drive a car, which would be difficult at first, but eventually the process become s automatic).
2. Representational skills- implies the use of mental models, or a mental representation of some device, process, or system (an example would be you

have some type of representation of a car and how it works, and if the car won't start these skills become important).

3. Decision-making skills- techniques such as rules of thumb, mental simulation, or other processes that allow experts to arrive at appropriate decisions quickly and accurately (using the car example this would be recognizing that you have probably formed rules about how to respond when driving, and when you see a yellow light you make a decision to either speed up or stop).

Cognitive task analysis can provide, for the training needs assessor, an alternate to the traditional behavioral forms of training needs analysis. Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) give an example of meta-cognition, which suggests that through continued practice or experience, individuals' automatize complex behaviors, thus freeing up cognitive resources for monitoring and evaluating behavior (see also Rogers et al., 1997). "By determining the trainee's current complex cognitive skills, instructional designers can gain insight into trainee's capacity for proficiency and diagnose performance deficiencies" (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001, p. 275). Cognitive tasks analysis appears to be a useful tool, but to date there has been little use of its potential to assisting the job analyst in designing training programs.

Data Gathering Methods

There have been many different methods used for gathering the data necessary for conducting a task analysis. The method(s) chosen depends as much on the individual analyst's style as it does with the type of job being analyzed. Analysts will often favor certain methods of data gathering over other methods that in many cases will return the same or similar types of job task results, as job analysis appears to be more of an art than a pure science. Several of the task analysis methods for gathering data are listed below:

1. Document and equipment analysis- evaluation of pre-existing documentation relating to a job and evaluation of the equipment used in the job itself. Goal hierarchies and a description of the system is one of the intended outcomes of such an analysis.
2. Interviews- interviews can provide useful information if they are conducted systematically. Gordon (1994, p. 74) stated that a number of methods for structuring interviews have been developed, including laddering (Diederich, Ruhmann, & May, 1987; Grover 1983), goal decomposition (Grover, 1983), repertory grid techniques (Boose, 1986, 1988), question answering (Graesser, Lang & Elofson, 1987), FAST (Creasy, 1980 ; Fewins, Mitchell & Williams, 1992), and question probes (Gordon, & Gill, 1989; Moore & Gordon, 1988). Most interviews are either structured or unstructured, with the structured interviews the analyst conducts multiple interviews with one of more experts and one or more novices before analyzing the results, and the unstructured interviews

are usually short in nature and are conducted with experts to determine what they feel is important about the job (goals and tasks).

3. Group interviews (meetings) - there are also two common types of group interviews or meetings. One is often called a technical conference, where, typically, "design engineers and outside experts get together to identify what tasks will be necessary to perform a job created as a result of technological change" (Bemis, Belenky & Soder, 1983, p. 3). The second type is the structured interview, where a number of job experts meet to discuss a job under the guidance of a job analyst.
4. Questionnaires- questionnaires are a useful and often use tool to gather job data from job incumbents and often their supervisors. Questionnaires are especially useful when there are a large number of job incumbents, and they are often used in conjunction with other methods to give a greater overall picture of the job being analyzed. Questionnaire are either structured (specific questions with a range of answers to choose from) or unstructured (open ended), and at times both are used to elicit job information.
5. Observation- one of the best methods to get a deeper understanding of the job context or environment. "Observation can yield two types of data for the job analyst. The first is to simply catalogue the various work situations and the responses of the job incumbents. The second is the analyst may wish to make observations of a wide range of behaviors and look for patterns of stimulus-response associations" (Gordon, 1994, p. 80).

One disadvantage of direct observation is that when special attention is being paid to employees there is always the probability of causing an undesired Hawthorn effect (Wren, 1994). In the Hawthorn effect special attention was paid to workers in the bank wiring room of the Hawthorn plant, which caused a noticeable change in the workers behaviors from their normal behaviors. The interviewers should consider that when special attention is being paid to a job incumbent while a job analysis is being conducted that there is always a chance their (the interviewers) presence will change the routine of the job and skew any observations that are made of the job situation.

Job Analysis and the Law

The legal significance of job analysis, particularly in the public sector, was established in the 1978 Federal Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures, which set forth technical standards for validity studies that demonstrate the job-relatedness of testing methods while also expanding the scope of job analysis application to all primary employment decisions (selection, training, evaluation, and compensation) (Kriebel, 1996). As stated in the Guidelines, job analysis is a critical element to the three types of validation: content, criterion related, and construct. “If an employer wishes to demonstrate to the courts that the selection process used for an employment decision was valid, the employer will need to start from the basis of a current job analysis” (Clifford, 1994, p. 321). Further, the Uniform Guidelines also state “Any job analysis should focus on the work behavior(s) and the tasks associated with them. If work behaviors(s) are not observable, the job analysis should identify and analyze those

aspects of the behavior(s) that can be observed and the observed work products” (1978, p. 38302). Table 2 provides a useful review of the terms that are frequented in the Uniform Guidelines.

Table 2

Federal Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures-Definitions

<i>Term</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Job Analysis	A detailed statement of work behaviors and other information relevant to the job.
Work Behavior	An activity performed to achieve the objectives of the job. Work Behaviors involve observable (physical) components and un-observable (mental) components. A work behavior consists of the performance of one or more tasks. Knowledge’s, skills, and abilities are not behaviors, although they may be applied in work behaviors.
Observable	Able to be seen, heard, or otherwise perceived by a person other than the person performing the action
Knowledge	A body of information applied directly to the performance of a function.
Skill	A present, observable competence to perform a learned psychomotor act
Ability	A present competence to perform an observable behavior that results in an observable product.

Source. M.T. Brannick and E.L. Levine’s “*Job Analysis: Methods, Research, and Application for Human Resource Management in the New Millennium*” (2002), p. 178. Copyright (c) 2002 by Sage Publications, reprinted by permission of Sage Publications, Inc.

In addition to the uniform guidelines, the passing of the American's With Disabilities Act (ADA 1990), has made job analysis has taken on an increasing important role in the workplace. Unfortunately, since passage of the act little has been written about the implications the ADA may have on the process of job analysis, which is the cornerstone of nearly all personnel practices (Cascio, 1991). More specifically, the ADA relates that no covered entity should discriminate against a qualified individual with a disability because of the disability of such individual in regards to a job application procedure, the hiring, advancement, or discharge of employees, employee compensation, job training, and other terms, conditions, and privileges of employment. The act further defines "qualified individual with a disability" as someone with a disability who: "with or without reasonable accommodation, can perform the essential functions of the employment position that such individual holds or desires" (see ADA Section 101. Definitions (8).

There are also other laws that the job analyst needs to be aware of when completing a job analysis for an organization. These laws are:

1. Discrimination in Employment Act- Prohibits discrimination against people 40 years of age and older. This law created a special protected class of individuals for person's age forty and over.
2. Rehabilitation Act (1973) - Predates the ADA and prohibits discrimination based on a handicap. This act only applies to federal contractors, while the ADA applies to all.

3. Equal Pay Act (1963) - Requires employers to pay men and women the same salary for the same job, or equal pay for equal work.
4. The Constitution- On occasion individuals will bring a lawsuit against an organization under the Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments to the Constitution. Both state that no person shall be denied life, liberty, or property without due process of law. The Fourteenth Amendment applies to state governments and the Fifth Amendment applies to the federal government.
5. The Civil Rights Acts (1964, 1972, and 1991), which prohibits employers from discriminating on the basis of race, color, sex, religion, or national origin, also plays a role in job analysis. This law applies to all “conditions or privileges of employment” and is broader in coverage than just hiring and promotional practices as is often applied. The law states that employment practices that do not affect members of one of the protected groups are legal unless covered by another law. The act also created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), an arm of the federal government, to monitor and prosecute cases of employment discrimination. The EEOC often uses the “Guidelines” to help it to determine whether or not an employer is legally discriminating.

There are two relevant United States Supreme Court decisions, which are of interest to organizations concerning the relevancy of completing a job task analysis within the ranks of their employees. The first is the *Griggs vs. Duke Power Company* (1971), in which the Supreme Court ruled that if an employee practice cannot be shown to be

related to job performance, the practice is prohibited. The second case, *Albermarle Paper Company vs. Moody* (1975), the Court held that whatever criteria used must represent major or critical work behavior as reported by a careful job analysis. Since a task analysis is designed to identify the tasks actually required of the job by measuring the individual tasks of the job position, the importance of completing a task analysis should be self-evident.

Determining the essential functions of a job is perhaps the most important element to consider when attempting any valid job analysis within an organization. It is also important to recognize that essential functions are not necessarily the same as critical tasks. Essential functions are broader than tasks in that they are outcome, not method, oriented. Essential functions specify the desired end result of an action, not how the essential functions must be performed. Therefore, in job analysis terminology, essential functions are more like “duties” rather than tasks (Mitchell, K. E., Alliger, G.M. & Morfopoulos, R.,1997).

Although many organizations in the past have used written job descriptions, their own judgment, amount of time performing the function, consequences of not performing the function, work experiences of past workers performing the job, or other relevant factors (see EEOC 1992, pp. 13-18) as a defense, a job analysis that identifies important job factors may prove useful in defending any ensuing lawsuit. While a job analysis alone does not provide insurance against litigation, it is a key element in designing human performance management and development systems that can stand up to legal challenges (HR Guide to the Internet, 1998-1999).

The last step in the McGehee and Thayer model is what they termed “person analysis”. McGehee and Thayer (1961) explain, “This analysis is concerned with how well a specific employee is carrying out tasks which make up the job.” This directly relates to the knowledge, skills and abilities necessary to perform the tasks needed by the employee for successful job performance. Goldstein (1986) further elaborates that the emphasis is not on determining which KSA’s are necessary, but rather in assessing how well the actual employee performs the KSA’s required by the job. Personnel analysis faces many potential problems, two of the largest being that it is very costly and complex, and management’s ability to make accurate judgments/performance ratings is questionable (DeSimmons & Harris, 1998; Herbert & Doverspike, 1990). To date, there is no evidence of any empirical work regarding this phase of the training needs analysis.

Unfortunately, there has been a limited amount of work on training needs analysis by organizations of all types, and notably even less in law enforcement. This finding is consistent to the findings of Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992) who found limited empirical studies on training needs analysis. Additionally, this researcher found no published statewide needs analysis’s, which specifically targeted school district policing has been completed to date. A comprehensive needs analysis of school district policing, and policing in general, is long overdue. The organizational analysis and task analysis will identify the constraints currently operating, both internally and externally, to inhibit training in the school district policing organization. Also, the task analysis will provide the agency with a detailed list of daily tasks of the school district police officer.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This is a descriptive study, which had two primary objectives. The first objective was to identify organizational constraints that hinder the progress of ISD police officer training within selected Texas ISD police departments. This was accomplished with the assistance of a questionnaire designed by the researcher to identify the current organizational constraints hindering in-service training within the selected ISD police departments. Identification of these constraints would provide ISD police departments with valuable information from which they may develop strategies to establish a course of action to redress those identified problem areas.

The second objective was to identify the unique ISD police officer tasks required of an ISD police officer in Texas. This was accomplished by the researcher, who used a task analysis designed with the assistance of four Houston, Texas area ISD police departments (Conroe, Katy, Houston and Spring ISD). These four departments provided experienced police trainers for four individual group sessions; each held at the ISD police department's facilities by the researcher. The group sessions were completed in order to specifically identify the unique tasks required of the ISD police officer. A previous task analysis, which was designed and conducted by the researcher at the Houston Independent School District in 2002, was used as a reference document in each of the sessions. From those sessions 28 unique tasks required of the ISD police officer emerged, and were combined with the original task analysis conducted at the Houston Independent School District by the researcher. The questionnaires were then sent by

U.S. Mail to the 37 selected ISD police department chiefs and designated coordinators at each ISD location. The selected school district police departments were chosen from a list of ISD police departments provided to the researcher by the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education (TCLEOSE). A decision was made to use departments with ten or more officers, in that it was believed that departments with less than ten officers would most likely not be able to attend to the unique training needs as would the larger departments, primarily due to budgetary and manpower issues, which can both hinder training opportunities. Many of these smaller departments (less than 10 officers) are also assisted by the local police departments with campus policing issues, and also cross train with these local departments (in some instances).

The combined officer task list totaled 111 tasks, from which the results will be used for identifying the ISD officer unique tasks and for future training program design by the researcher. The identification of the 28 unique tasks were chosen for this research, as current training efforts, which tend follows a generalist police officer model, does not always provide for the special training needs of the ISD police officer. Four selections for each identified task were provided on the task analysis questionnaire:

1. The frequency with which they perform that task.
2. The criticality level of that task.
3. The difficulty of learning that particular task.
4. The perceived amount of training that was required at their specific TCLEOSE certificate level to maintain proficiency at that task.

Population

The population for this study consisted of the chiefs of police for the 37 selected ISD police departments in Texas for the organizational analysis, and the 858 patrol, campus officers and sergeants who work for those same 37 departments for the job task analysis. Officers working in administrative and specialized positions, such as DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education) and detective units were excluded from the selected population of officers and sergeants. The departments were selected from a master list of ISD police departments supplied by the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education, and only those departments with less than ten officers were excluded. There were 117 school districts at the time of this study that have school district police officers, with 37 having 10 or more officers (38 including Dallas, when Dallas ISD police becomes certified) and 79 with 9 or less officers. Twenty-eight of those 79 smaller agencies have only one officer, 13 have 2 officers, 13 have 3 officers and the remaining 25 have between 4 to 9 officers.

The police officer tasks and the organizational constraints affecting the in-service training of smaller ISD police departments were believed to be different than those of the larger ISD departments. In fact, when considered by departmental size, criticality and frequency of tasks, the chosen population for this study showed that size did matter regarding the perceived criticality and frequency of the tasks on the task analysis questionnaire. There were noticeable differences in frequency and criticality of tasks between the ISD police agencies that had 20 or more officers (divided into two groups, 35 plus officers and 20 to 34 officers) and those with less than 20 officers. The

frequency and criticality of various tasks were notable, in that the two larger sized agencies reported that, when considering criticality and frequency, that bomb threat calls at school were their number one concern, while the smaller agencies with less than 20 people had citations near school grounds as their primary concern. Table 3 summarizes the group of 37 ISD police departments chosen for the study and indicates the reported number of officers and sergeants who worked within those departments. The response rates of the various departments who chose to respond to the study are also indicated.

Several departments chose not to respond to the questionnaires, but are included in table 3 as they were offered the opportunity to respond. The combined total response rate for the ISD police officer questionnaire was 50 percent. The response rate for the task questionnaire was lower than predicted. From conversations the researcher held with a majority of the police chiefs during the organizational questionnaire (which was completed first), most of the chiefs indicated a high level of interest in the outcomes of the research.

Table 3
ISD Departments Size Rating, Number of Officers, Response Rates

<i>ISD Department</i>	<i>Rating</i>	<i>Officers and Sergeants</i>	<i>Number Responded</i>	<i>Response Rate %</i>
Houston *	1	130	98	75.3
San Antonio	1	58	50	86.2
Conroe *	1	39	20	51.2
Northside	1	45	5	11
Austin	1	30	20	66.6
Edinburg	1	34		
Ft. Bend	1	34	34	100
North East	2	25	17	68
Spring Branch	2	26	26	100
Aldine	2	29	22	75.8
Alief	2	25	8	32
El Paso	2	26	11	42.3
McAllen	2	22		
Spring *	2	27	13	48.1
Edgewood	2	23		
Katy*	2	15	12	80
Corpus Christi	2	23	8	34.7
Ector Co.	2	15	14	93.3
Pasadena	2	17	17	100
Klein	2	18	9	50
Harlandale	2	14		
North Forest	2	15		
La Joya	3	22	22	100
South San Antonio	3	14		
East Central	3	12	1	1
Brownsville	3	12		
Socorro	3	12	12	100
Mansfield	3	8	5	62.5
United	3	10		
Alvin	3	10		
Weslaco	3	10		
Eagle Pass	3	10		
Killeen	3	10		
San Benito	3	8	2	25
San Felipe	3	10		
Texarkana	3	10		
Waco	3	10		

Note: Size rating computations: 1= 35 plus officers, 2= 20-34 officers, 3= less than 20 officers. Size computations prepared using certified officer data supplied by TCLEOSE. Additionally, departments marked with an asterisk participated in the focus group, which assisted with development of the officer task questionnaire. Gaps in data indicate no response to questionnaire by the indicated departments. Total number of officers and sergeants= 858, number responding to questionnaire= 425, response average= 49.53. N=37.

A large number of the department's chiefs, or their selected coordinators, advised that many of their officers were unavailable during the summer when this questionnaire was conducted, or that they were attending training that could not be completed during the regular school year. Several police chiefs were also replaced during the questionnaire response period, and the original questionnaires were either lost or ignored by new or acting police chiefs, causing these questionnaires not to be returned. Several officers also commented that the length of the questionnaire (111 tasks, each with four required responses) was also a determining factor in returning an incomplete survey.

Questionnaire data collection was halted in early August of 2003 (before the new school year began) and any responses received after that date were not included in the final results. Also, incomplete questionnaires were not included in the final response rate totals. It should also be noted that Dallas ISD was excluded from the final list of respondents, as their department was not certified as a law enforcement agency by TCLEOSE at the time of this study, although certification appeared to be imminent.

Instruments

Questionnaires

A questionnaire was provided to the 37 selected ISD police chiefs as a data collection instrument to identify the current goals, practices, trends and constraints which are affecting the police in-service training programs in Texas. Additionally, a job task analysis (inventory) was conducted with approximately 858 police officers within these same 37 selected ISD police departments. "A job-task inventory is basically a questionnaire, generally composed of two major sections, the "background information

section” and the “task inventory section.” (Christal & Weissmuller, 1988, p.1036). The police officer task questionnaire used for this study was designed from a pilot study completed in the Houston Independent School District by the researcher, who utilized three different task analysis instruments to assist in the questionnaires design:

1. The “College Station Model for Field Training” originally completed by Dr. Walter F. Stenning of the Texas A&M Department of Educational Administration and Human Resource Development.
2. An inventory of four diverse police agencies in the United States from the “Job Analysis Handbook for Business, Industry, and Government” (Sidney Gael, 1988).
3. The “Statewide Job Analysis of the Patrol Officer Position” completed by Standard and Associates (1996) for the Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council.

The questionnaire developed for the final study was used with the addition of the 28 unique tasks that were identified by the four focus groups. The researcher also provided the focus group participants with a list of tasks that had been previously identified through a compilation of three previous studies (“College Station Model for Field Training”, an inventory of four police agencies from the “Job Analysis Handbook”, and the “Statewide Job Analysis of the Patrol Officer Position”) and the researcher’s task analysis conducted with the Houston Independent School District in 2002. The discussion was then guided by questions that the group and the researcher had relating to

those originally compiled tasks, with the unique tasks being added to the original list after a thorough discussion of why that specific task was unique to ISD policing.

The final list of unique tasks was approved by all of the focus group participants. The modifications were made in order to add the unique tasks to the task list that was developed by the focus group of ISD training officers. The final instrument included unique tasks specific to ISD policing, which were added to reflect the unique tasks required of the ISD police officer. A total of four focus groups were convened by the researcher at each of the participating ISD police departments which assisted in identifying these specific tasks and competencies. The groups consisted of SME's (Subject Matter Experts) from the rank of sergeant and police officer from Conroe ISD, Houston ISD, Katy ISD, and Spring ISD. Green and Stutzman (1986, p. 545) cite the description for subject matter expert found in Davis et al. (1974, p. 28) as a person that should be, "thoroughly familiar with the job, i.e., the actual duties performed on the job and what knowledge, abilities, skills, and personal characteristics are utilized in the adequate performance of those duties.... [and] should be a willing participant." Green and Stutzman further suggest that both incumbents and supervisors are eligible, as they are screened as to their educational, training, and job related experiences by a personnel analyst, who "makes a 'face validity' judgment as to whether the person is an SME" (Meene, McCarthy & Meene, 1976, p. 393).

All of the chosen ISD police officer SME's were either current or past field training officers (FTO) or certified TCLEOSE police instructors in their respective departments, or were currently responsible for assisting in designing or developing in-service training for their departments.

Procedures:

The ISD police chiefs were sent the ISD administrator questionnaire and accompanying correspondence that explained the purpose and objectives of the ISD administrator questionnaire. The accompanying correspondence also referenced the fact that the Texas School District Police Chiefs Association supported the study of ISD police in-service training being conducted by the researcher. The ISD police chiefs were asked to respond to the questionnaire and a follow up telephone call and a letter was sent for those not replying to the original request. The researcher then asked the ISD police chiefs to identify an officer to coordinate the police officer task questionnaire within their departments. If the chiefs responded with the name of a coordinating officer the researcher sent all materials (questionnaire and an explanation of the final use of the questionnaires) to that officer, explaining that that the task analysis was to be completed by patrol and campus officers and sergeants only. Not all of the ISD police chiefs responded, and many of the questionnaires were coordinated by the chief of police of that agency, especially the smaller agencies that were a part of the study. The researcher then mailed both of the questionnaires to those respective ISD police departments for the identified police chiefs, police officers, and sergeants to complete.

The questionnaires were sent in two groups by U.S. Mail, the first group to the ISD police chiefs and the second group, which consisted of the police officer task questionnaire, to the ISD police chief or the coordinator named by the ISD police chief. Additionally, the researcher requested through written correspondence and telephone contact, the chiefs of the Conroe ISD, Houston ISD, Katy ISD, and Spring ISD school districts to identify four officers and two sergeants to be a part of the planned focus group session, which was completed at each of the agency's facilities. The researcher will maintain confidentiality of all the respondents.

Design and Statistics:

The research was descriptive by design, and used descriptive statistics, such as frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, and correlations, to describe the results. The ISD police chiefs and police officers were provided with the opportunity to respond with their own answer to many of the questions provided by the two questionnaires. This was accomplished with the addition of an "other" category after many of the demographic questions and several other included information gathering questions (not inclusive of the task analysis portion of the ISD police officer questionnaire). Space was provided at the end of the questionnaires for additional written comments by the ISD police chiefs and the ISD police officers.

Instrumentation used to gather the data came from two researcher designed questionnaires, which were compiled with assistance of three previous task analysis studies relating to police officers, and the researcher's use of subject matter experts and focus group technique in the 4 Houston, Texas are ISD police departments (Conroe,

Katy, Houston, and Spring ISD). Comparisons of scores will utilize the Chi Square test and ANOVA to test for significant differences in questionnaire responses and for the analysis of the task analysis responses from the test subjects. The statistical analysis of the accumulated data was performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-11.0).

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Response Rate

The 37 ISD chiefs of police were selected from a list supplied by the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education (TCLEOSE). From this list, all of the school district law enforcement agencies that had ten or more police officers employed at the time of the study were chosen. The return rate for the administrator questionnaire was 92 percent. Research by TCLEOSE related to Texas police trainers in a 1997 report titled "Continuing Education Program Evaluation" reported a response rate of 61 percent (p. 8). Additionally, Dillman (1978) found that the response rate to questionnaires mailed to the general public or to specialized populations was approximately 60 to 75 percent.

The same list of ISD police departments provided by TCLEOSE for the administrator questionnaire was used to also send questionnaires regarding the police officer task analysis to those same 37 law enforcement agencies for responses by their police officers. The return rate for the ISD police officer questionnaire of 425 responses represented a total response rate of 50 percent. The response rates of the ISD police officers to the questionnaire were less than expected, and was affected by:

- The majority of ISD police officers being off for vacations and training during the summer months
- Several police chiefs were absent during the summer when the questionnaire was mailed out, and the questionnaires remained on the desks of these chiefs until summer break was over, and data collection had been stopped.
- The length of the questionnaire, which resulted in many of the survey's being returned with incomplete responses (incomplete responses were not used to figure final totals).
- Several of the ISD chief's left employment with their ISD department and coordination of the task analysis results languished as a result of coordination issues.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic data (see table 4) was collected for both the administrator questionnaire and the police officer job task questionnaire to assist in describing the respondents in the study. The questionnaire of police department administrator's demographic data included age, sex, number of years in law enforcement, number of years in present position and highest level of educational attainment. Table 4 listed below is a summary of the demographic data returned by the ISD police chiefs.

Table 4
ISD Police Chief Demographic Characteristics

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Age at time of survey (years)		
21-30	1	2.9
31-39	6	17.6
40-50	7	20.6
51 or older	20	58.8
Sex		
Male	34	100
Police Experience		
6-15 years	4	11.8
16-20 years	7	20.6
21 or more years	23	67.6
Years in present position (chief)		
Less than 1	1	2.9
1-5 years	14	41.2
6-10 years	10	29.4
11 or more years	9	26.5
Highest level of educational attainment		
High school	3	8.8
Some college	11	32.4
Associates Degree	3	8.8
Bachelors Degree	11	32.4
Masters Degree	6	17.6

Note: Demographic information collected from 34 Texas ISD police chiefs. N=34.

The ages of the police chief's returning the questionnaire were categorized for simplification (ages 21-30, 31-39, 40-50, 51 or older). Fifty eight percent of the chiefs were 51 or older, 38 percent were 31 to age 50, and only 3 percent were less than 30 years of age (see Table 4).

All of the chiefs were male (100 percent), and the number of years in law enforcement, which was also categorized (1-5 years, 6-15 years, 16-20 years, and 21 or more years), indicated that 68 percent of the police chiefs had in excess of 21 years of law enforcement experience while another 25 percent had 16-20 years (see Table 4). This indicates a probable high level of prior law enforcement experience prior to the chiefs taking their current positions, since the age of the majority of school district law enforcement agencies in Texas are 10 to 12 years or less.

Twenty-nine percent of the ISD police chiefs indicated that they had been in their present position for 6-10 years, 27 percent had been in their present position for 11 or more years, and 41 percent had been with their school districts for 1-5 years. As school district policing is a relatively new phenomenon in Texas, some of the department chiefs likely headed their departments as security agencies before the police agencies became certified by TCLEOSE, and many arrived to their current positions as chief with prior public law enforcement experience.

Thirty-two percent of the chiefs had obtained at least a bachelor's degree in law enforcement, with 18 percent having obtained a master's degree. Another 32 percent had at least some college credit hours and only 9 percent had not attended any college courses or had any previous college hours. Education along with experience most likely plays an important part in job attainment by the ISD police department chiefs.

The police agencies for this research effort were categorized according to size of the department. The questionnaires revealed that 29 percent of the agencies had 35 or more officers, 29 percent had more that 20 but less than 34 officers, and another 41 percent had 20 or fewer officers (see Table 5).

Table 5
ISD Police Department Size

<i>Number of Officers</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
35 or greater	10	29.4
20-34	10	29.4
19 or less	14	41.2

Note. N= 34.

Research Question One

The first research question was designed to elicit responses regarding organizational constraints and issues that may impede officer in-service training within the ISD police organization. The question asked, “What are the specific internal and external organizational constraints emanating from within the school district police department’s organizational structure, and on a statewide level with TCLEOSE and the Texas Legislature, that may be encumbering school district police in-service training?” Before identifying and offering suggestions for improvement or design of a training program, it is critical that the organizational constraints be identified and confronted, as a training program designed without identifying and solving impeding factors from both internal and external sources is relegated to probable failure.

McGehee and Thayer (1961) introduced the organizational analysis as the first step of three critical and interrelated steps in the needs assessment (analysis) process. The organizational analysis emphasizes the examination of the entire organization, its objectives, resources, and the allocation of those resources as they are related to organizational objectives (McGehee & Thayer, 1961; Goldstein, 1989). Goldstein and Ford (2002) further adds that the organizational analysis “Includes an examination of organizational goals, resources of the organization, climate for training, and internal and external constraints present in the environment” (p. 41).

The organizational analysis questionnaire was designed by the researcher to gather information pertaining to the internal and external constraints related to the ISD police organization. After the questionnaire was developed, it was mailed by U.S. Mail to the

37 identified ISD police agency chiefs for feedback. The first major question (after the initial demographic questions) asked the ISD police chiefs, “How important is officer in-service training in assisting you in meeting your department’s goals and objectives?”

Figure 1 illustrates the responses of the ISD chiefs to this question.

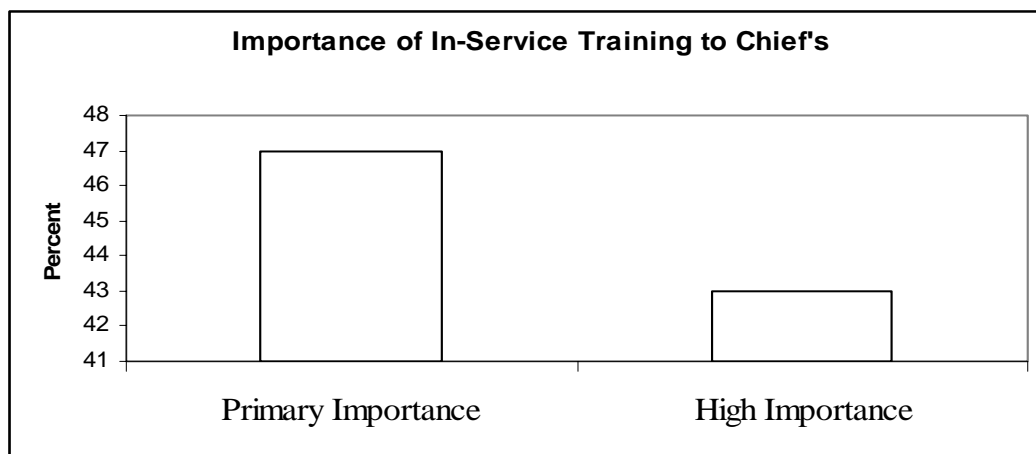


Figure 1. Importance of in-service training in meeting departmental goals and objectives. N= 34.

Forty-seven percent of the chiefs felt that training was of primary importance when training impacted goals and objectives of the department and another 43 percent stated that in-service training was of at least high importance when training issues impacted goals and objectives. It is apparent that all of the ISD police chief’s value in-service training for their ISD police officers and see in-service training as benefiting their organizations in meet overall goals and objectives.

The second question asked, “How are training issues currently determined within your agency?” This question indicated that 35 percent of the chiefs had their training coordinator recommend choices and then the chiefs approved of those choices. Another

35 percent stated that they followed TCLEOSE guidelines and take the required courses, with the officer allowed to choose additional hours to meet the state mandated 20 hours of in-service training per year on their own. A panel composed the training choices in 9 percent of the ISD police departments and another 15 percent stated that their department made training choices by utilizing a job analysis/needs assessment to identify training needs. The results of this question are shown in figure 2. These responses indicate that very few ISD police departments are utilizing training needs assessments and job task analysis to determine their departments training needs. It also appears that many of the departments are relying heavily on TCLEOSE to develop many in-service training needs.

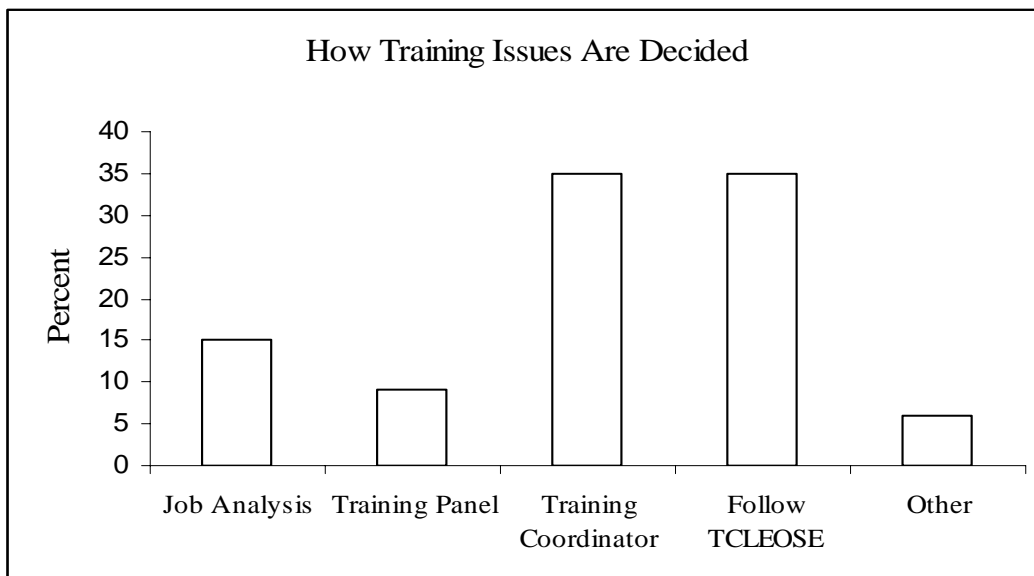


Figure 2. How training issues are currently determined within the various ISD Police Departments. N= 34.

The third question asked the ISD police chiefs if a job analysis was recently conducted within the agency, and if so, how important the job analysis was in assisting the organization in determining training needs of its officers.

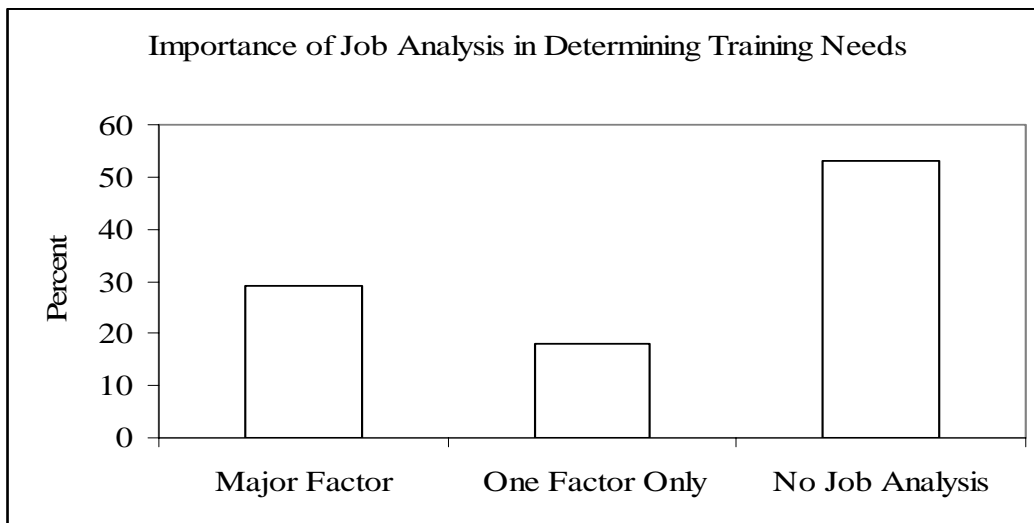


Figure 3. Importance of job analysis in determining organizational training needs. N= 34.

Figure 3 reveals that 53 percent of the ISD chiefs did not currently conduct a job analysis to determine training needs, while 18 percent stated that the job analysis was only one factor used to determine training issues. Additionally, 29 percent of those who did conduct a job analysis stated that the analysis was a major factor in determining their departments training needs. Of the 29 percent of ISD police departments that felt job analysis was important in determining in-service training needs 18 percent (question two) appeared to support the notion that job analysis plays an important part in planning training needs for their departments.

The purpose of question four was to ascertain the number of ISD agencies that have completed a recent training needs analysis. The chiefs indicated that 24 percent had conducted a needs analysis within the past year, with another 24 percent indicating that it had been over a year since the last needs analysis was completed. Another 9 percent stated that it had been over two years since a training needs analysis was completed, and the remaining 44 percent stated that they do not use a training needs analysis at this time to determine training issues (see figure 4).

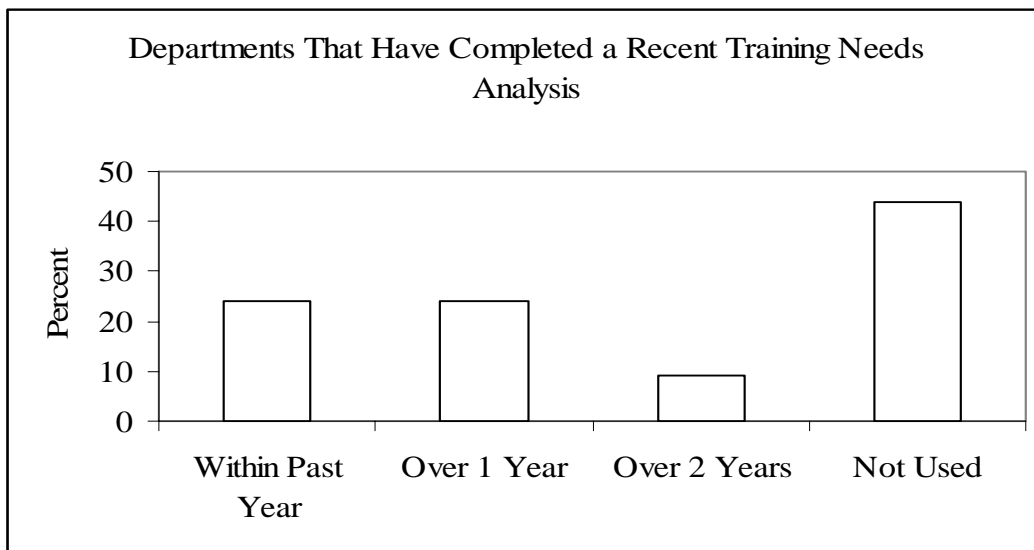


Figure 4. Has your department completed a recent needs analysis to determine training issues. N= 34.

Question five inquired of the chiefs how their respective department reacted after identifying critical training needs (see figure 5). The chiefs indicated that after identifying critical training needs that 23 percent mandated the officers be trained in those critical areas, 53 percent usually find available classes that best meet these criteria at local training academies, 9 percent appoint someone from within the department to

address the training needs and design their own program, and 15 percent answered the open ended question.

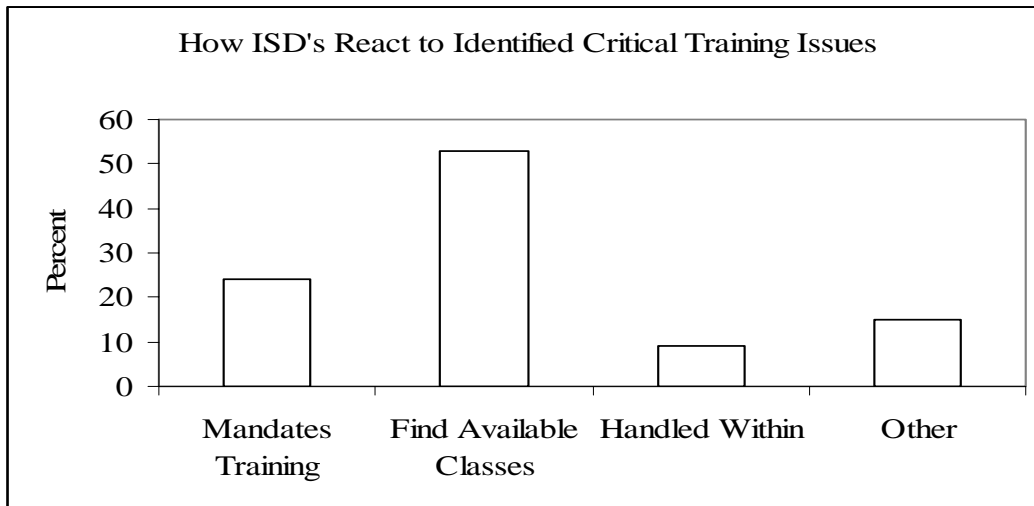


Figure 5. How ISD police department chiefs react to identified critical training needs. N= 34.

One chief indicated that his department used a combination of all three of the choices given by the question, and three additional chiefs indicated that their department's used a combination of finding available classes at local training academies and appointing someone from within to address the training need. Another chief answered that he would find available classes at local training academies, but wrote a short note indicating that his department tries to budget for those critical training needs and also seeks outside sources of funding to train in identified training areas. Another chief answered that his department tried to budget for these training needs and also often sought outside measures or monies to help fund training needs.

Question six was asked to determine officer attitudes toward training within the ISD police departments (see figure 6). Officer attitudes are an important barometer when addressing training needs of the ISD department, and may become an issue when officers feel that training does not matter. Sixty-seven percent of the chiefs indicated they felt their officers were highly motivated by training opportunities, and often seek out opportunities on their own, while 27 percent felt the officers were at least moderately motivated and would take classes prescribed by the department and TCLOESE.

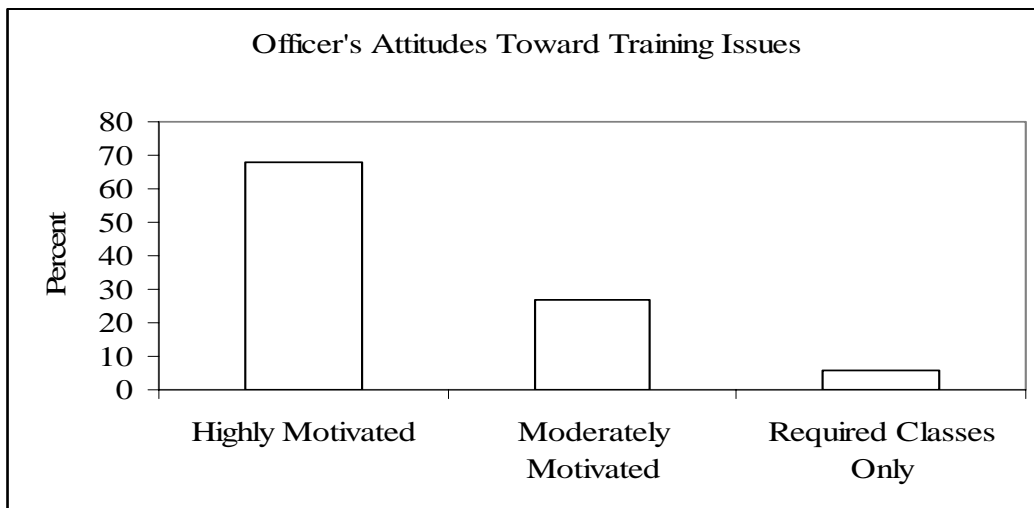


Figure 6. Officer's attitudes toward in-service training as perceived by ISD police chief's. N= 34.

Question seven was asked of the ISD chiefs to determine how officer input is received by their department. Officers have often related that they feel their departments do not care enough about the type of training the street officers is receiving, and do not include them in the decision making process about the selection of appropriate in-service classes. Sixty-five percent of the chiefs stated that they highly valued officer input into

training issues and consider the officers' input when designing training for their departments, and 35 percent stated that offices were encouraged to give input only if they had relevant knowledge of a specific training area (see figure 7).

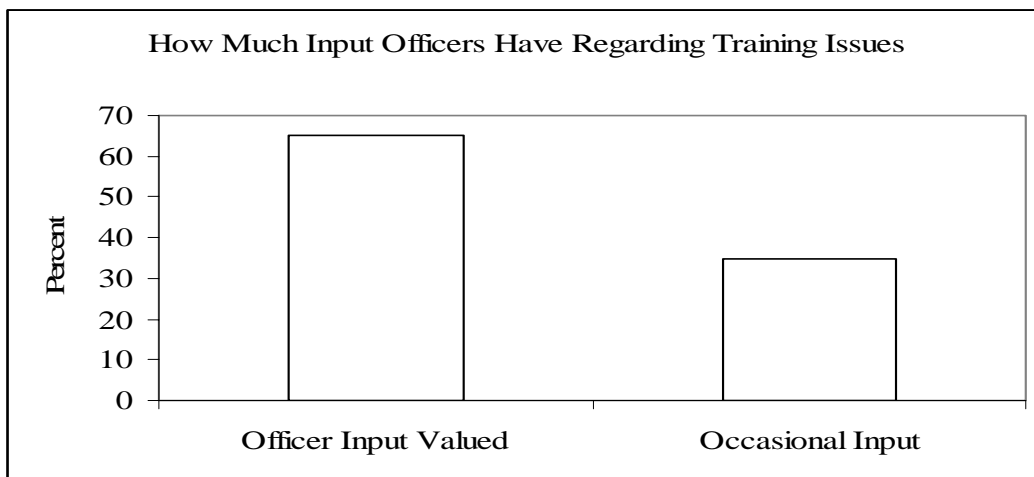


Figure 7. How much input is sought from officers in the various ISD police departments regarding training issues? N= 34.

Question eight asked the chiefs to identify how many hours per year of in-service training their officers are required to take (see figure 8). Twenty Seven percent of the chiefs required their officers to take only the state mandated 20 hours of in-service training per year, 3 percent mandated 8 hours over the state minimum, 32 percent required 40 hours a year, and 38 percent indicated that they required over 40 hours a year training for their officers.

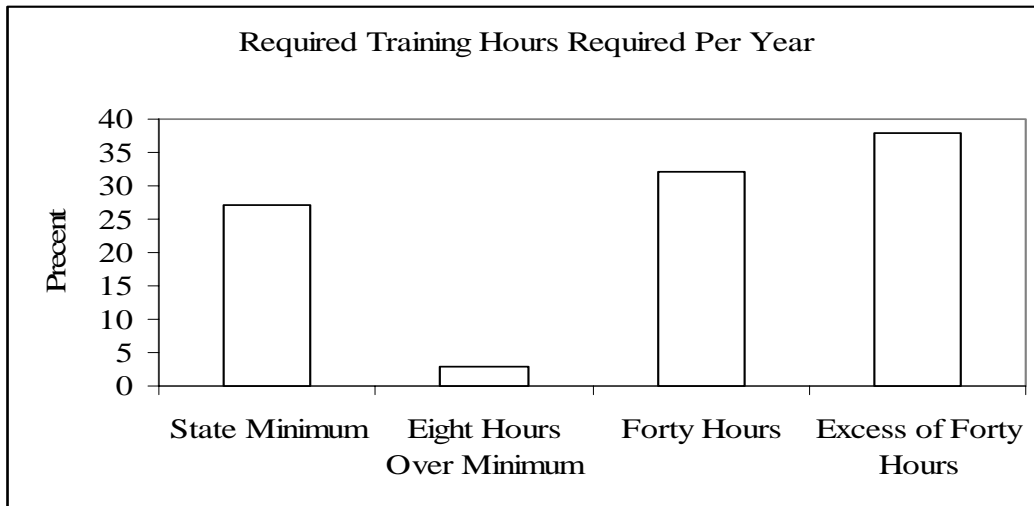


Figure 8. How many training hours are required of officers per year by ISD police departments. N= 34.

Question nine was related to budget matters regarding training issues, and was asked to determine how much of the departmental budget was dedicated to in-service and other training (see figure 9). Fifty-two percent of the chiefs had a training budget of less than 5 percent of their budget, 12 percent stated that their training budget was between 6 percent to 8 percent of their total budget, and 35 percent indicated that training was between 8 percent and 10 percent of their total budget for the department.

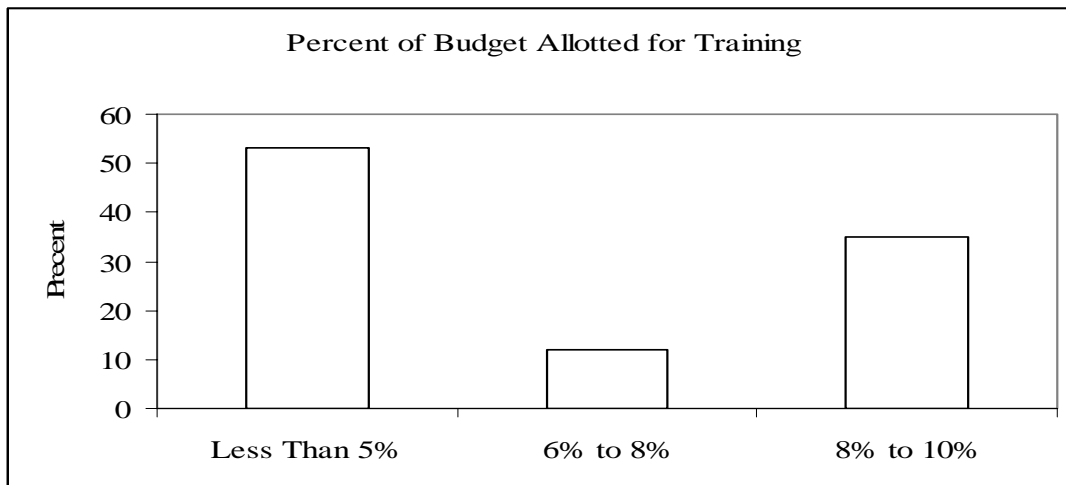


Figure 9. The percentage of budget allotted for training per year by ISD Police Departments in Texas. N= 34.

Question ten was asked to inquire of the ISD chiefs who provided their departments training needs (see figure 10). A total of 3 percent of the chiefs stated that their own staff conducted all training classes, 15 percent used outside vendors for all of the training needs, 32 percent used their own staff with some outside help to conduct the majority of their classes, and another 47 percent stated that vendors did the majority of the training while their own staff conducted the remaining training. Another 3 percent answered the open-ended question provided for by this question. One chief indicated that his department used a regional training academy to meet their department's training needs.

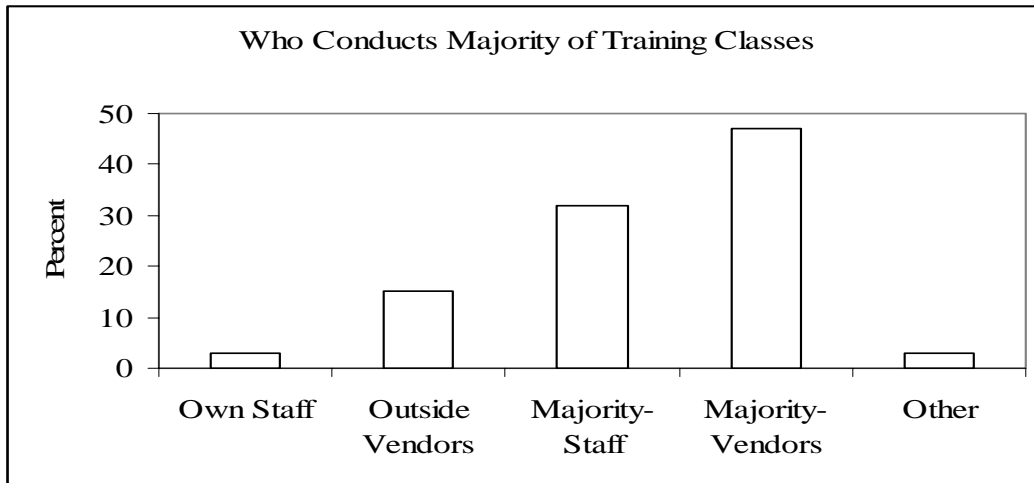


Figure 10. Who currently conducts the majority of training classes for ISD police officers within the organization. N= 34.

Question eleven asked the ISD chiefs to identify if their respective departments had suffered any civil litigation regarding lack of training or improper training received by their officers (see figure 11). Three percent of the chiefs revealed that there had been civil or criminal liabilities (litigation) for failure to train their officers; while 97 percent indicated that there had not been any legal problems in regard to training their officers.

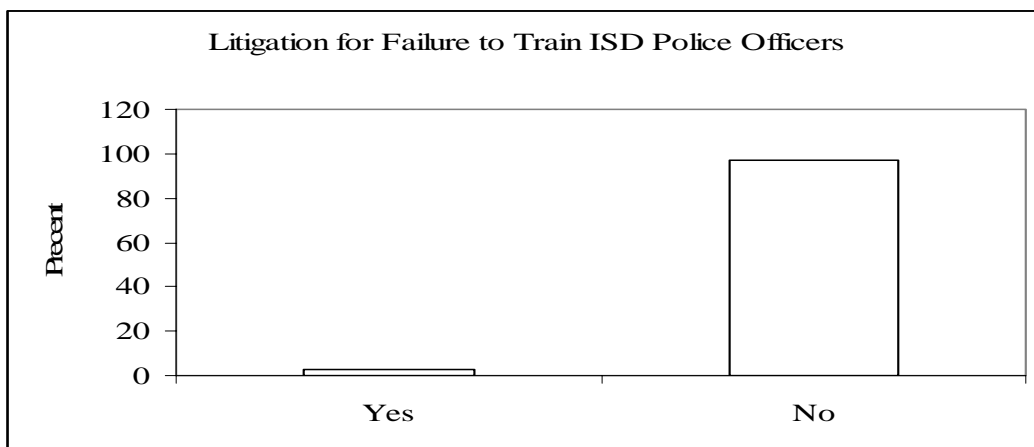


Figure 11. Litigation suffered by departments regarding failure to train ISD police officers. N= 34.

Question twelve was a follow up question to question number 11 and asked the chiefs to indicate how concerned they were that their department could be held liable for a failure to train situation involving an officer in your department (see figure 12). This question revealed that 44 percent of the chiefs were very concerned about the liability issues regarding training, 29 percent were at least somewhat concerned about the issue of liability, 24 percent were not concerned at all and felt as if they trained their officers sufficiently to avoid litigation, and 3 percent answered the open ended question and provided their own answer.

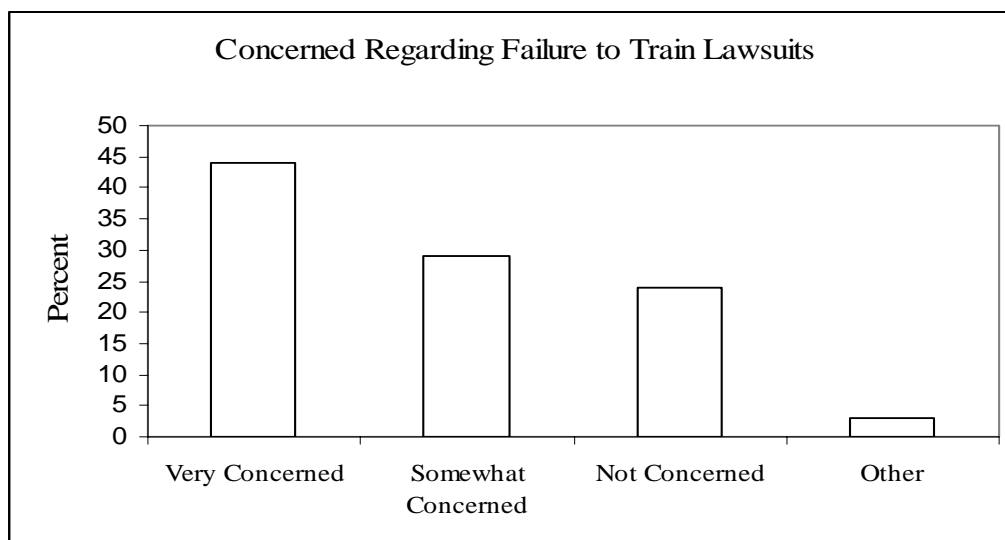


Figure 12. How concerned are ISD chiefs regarding possible failure to train lawsuits. N= 34.

Question thirteen asked the ISD chiefs to identify what they felt was the best method for determining training needs within their department. Thirty -five percent of the chiefs felt that the best method for determining training needs was a job analysis/needs assessment, while 15 percent felt that an internal panel of expert police officers and supervisors was the best method, 15 percent stated a training coordinator was the best method, and 17 percent felt that they would rather make their own training decisions with input from their command staff (see figure 13). Seventeen percent answered the open-ended question and provided their own answers they felt were appropriate.

One chief indicated that his department uses a combination of the questions choices for determining training needs of his department, two other chiefs stated they felt that using a combination of job analysis/needs assessment and an internal panel of experts was best for determining training needs within their departments. Additionally, another chief chose a combination of a training coordinator and having themselves make the decision with input from their command staff as his preferred choices for determining training needs, while yet another felt that a combination of all of the above methods was the best for determining training needs. Lastly, one chief stated that depending on the expertise of the police officer and the requirements of TCLEOSE demands was necessary when determining training needs in his department.

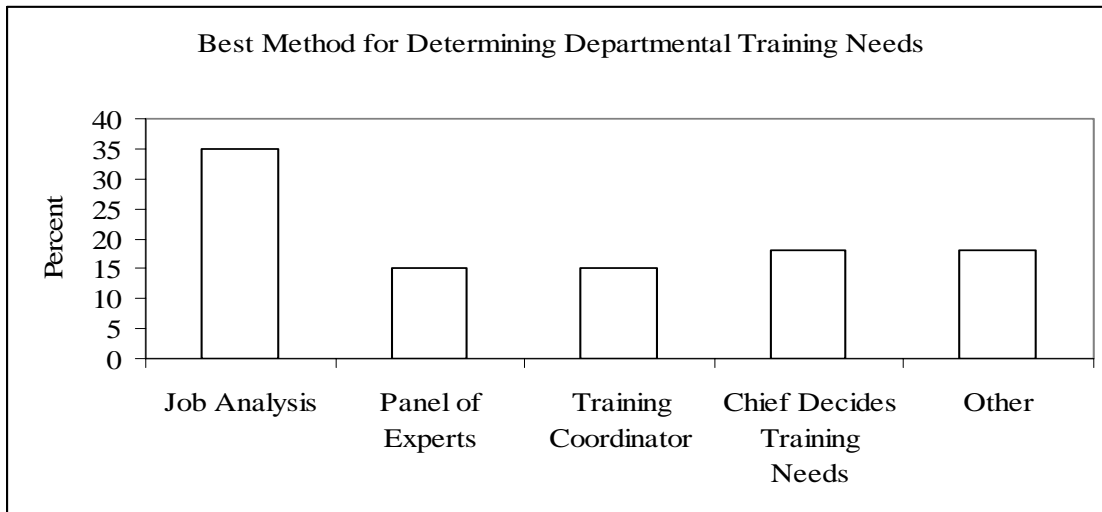


Figure 13. What the best method is for determining departmental training needs as perceived by ISD police chiefs. N= 34.

Question fourteen asked the ISD chiefs to identify what constraints they saw on an administrative level that was impeding their department from maximizing its training potential (see figure 14). This question showed that 18 percent felt that other school officials who are unfamiliar with officer training needs hampered their departments training issues, and 15 percent stated that funding from the administration was inadequate to meet training needs. Another 24 percent felt that a lack of general support from the administration who viewed policing as a secondary issue was hampering training needs, and 44 percent answered the open ended question indicating other administrative level constraints.

One chief indicated that a constraint he felt was important was quality of personnel and time, while two indicated time needed for training vs. the duties and responsibilities within a small department environment was a problem. Two chiefs stated that they had not experienced any constraints on an administrative level, while yet another stated that

his department depended on state funds or government grants for assistance in his departments training needs. One chief indicated that funding and lack of support from administration was a problem and another chief stated that administrators who did not understand training needs of officers and lack of support from administration was a problem impeding training issues in their departments.

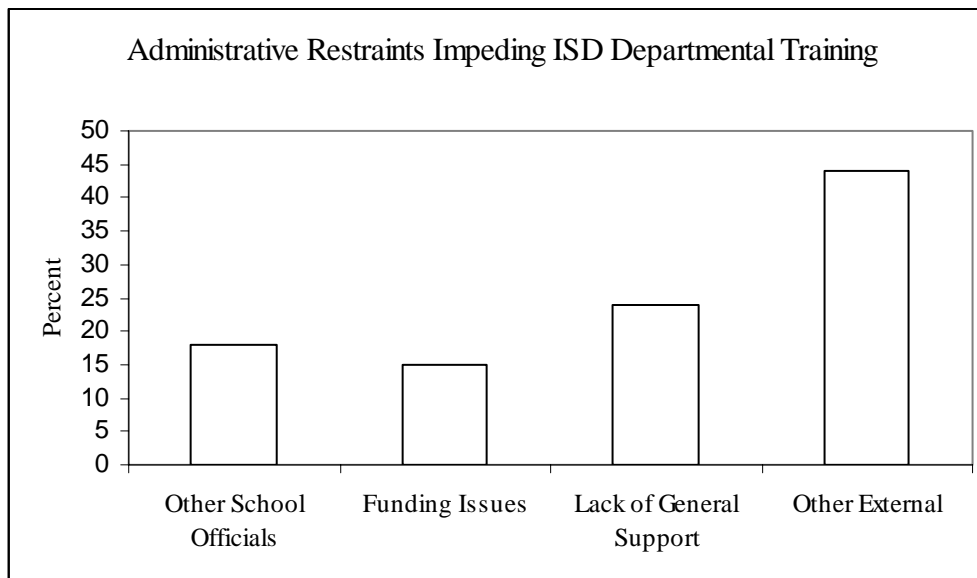


Figure 14. Administrative constraints that ISD police chiefs indicate are impeding training within their departments. N= 34.

Question fifteen inquired as to what constraints the chiefs observed on a departmental level that is impeding most (ISD) police departments from maximizing their training programs (see figure 15). Seventeen percent of the chiefs felt internal policies and directives hampered police training, 3 percent felt that internal policies and directives of the police department hindered training, and 47 percent felt there were other external influences, such as funding, that hampered training. There were 18 percent who

answered the open-ended question and provided their own answer to this question. One of the chiefs indicated that time was a primary issue constraining his department from optimizing their training programs, while another felt that scheduling and other operational needs was impeding police training in his department. Another chief stated that attrition of officers created multi-levels of training needs, and still another chief stated that manpower and time constraints were problems faced by his department.

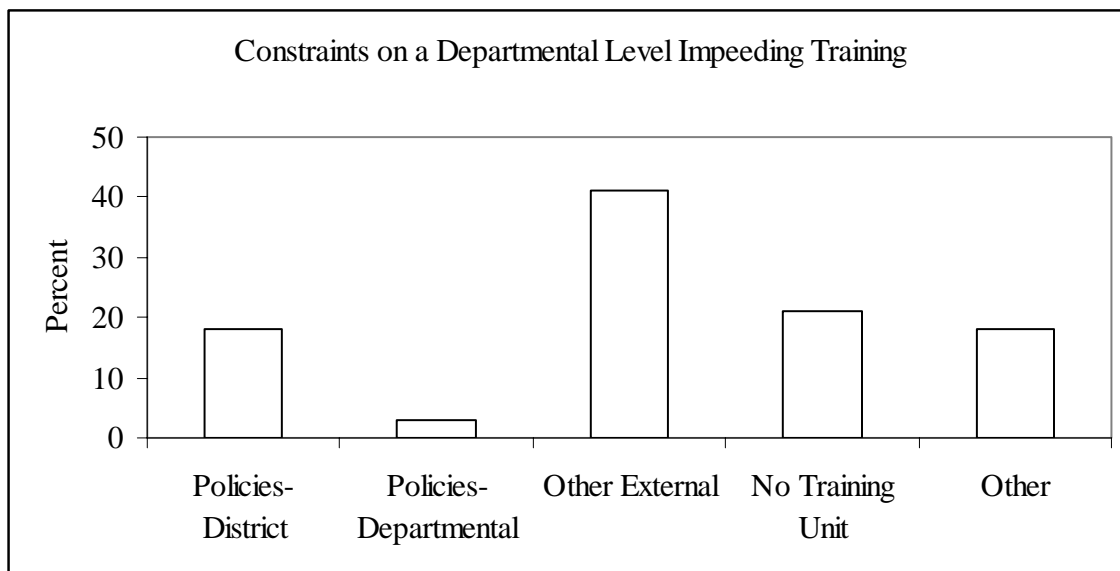


Figure 15. Training constraints perceived by ISD police chiefs on a departmental level. N= 34.

Question sixteen was asked of the chiefs to determine possible constraints regarding ISD training on a statewide basis. Twenty percent felt that legislative mandates and requirements for training take up too much training time, 65 percent felt that the lack of a statewide needs assessment designed for school district policing has hampered training, and 12 percent answered the open ended question and provided their own answer (see figure 16). Two of the chiefs stated a combination of all three of the possible

given answers played a part in impeding training, and that a lack of understanding that policing in a school environment is different also plays a role in impeding training needs. These same chiefs also stated that smaller departments have a much harder time with actual training costs and that many outside venues are much too expensive to choose for providing training services.

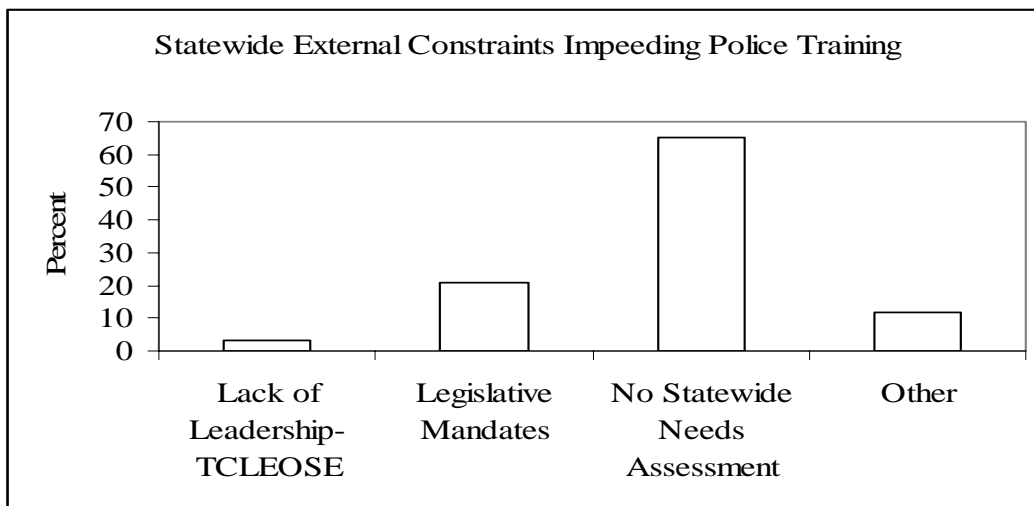


Figure 16. Statewide external constraints impeding ISD police training in Texas as viewed by ISD police chiefs. N= 34.

The last question asked the ISD chiefs to identify what method(s) they believed were used by the state legislature when determining what mandatory classes are required of police officers (see figure 17). A majority (56 percent) of the chiefs felt that the mandated classes seemed to be constructed by the legislature around whatever topic was “hot” at the time with little effort being made to determine if the classes would be beneficial for police officers. Another 27 percent felt the legislature sought input from citizens and other interest groups with little input from officers. Three percent stated

they thought that a survey was done of local and state police officers and used their input to design classes, and 14 percent answered the open ended question and provided their own answer for this question.

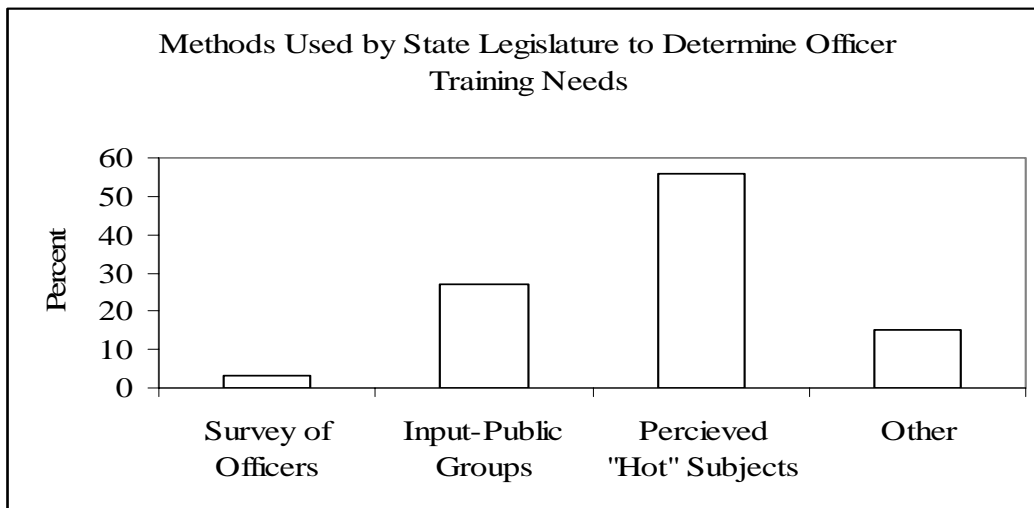


Figure 17. Methods used by the Texas Legislature to decide what mandatory classes are required of police officers. N= 34.

One of the police chiefs stated he felt that “overkill” was prevalent in the required training that officers are mandated to take, and that repetition in certain areas was also an important issue that needed to be addressed. Two chiefs stated they felt that a combination of the legislature seeking input from citizens and interest groups and classes constructed around whatever topic was hot at the time both appeared to be how training issues are decided by the legislature. Lastly, one chief indicated a combination of all of the given answers was probably correct.

Research Question Two

The second research question was designed to identify the unique tasks and competencies required of the successful ISD police officer, above and beyond those of what could be considered of the ordinary, non-ISD police officer (city, state, and county police officers). The task analysis is the second component of the McGehee and Thayer (1961) model regarding the training needs analysis process. This second important step was perhaps best described by Goldstein (1986) as consisting of all of the tasks required of the particular job in question, so that the particular skills, knowledge, and attitudes required to perform the job are understood. It is not a description of the worker but of the job the worker is asked to perform in the organization.

The decision to concentrate on the unique tasks of the ISD police officer was made after a comprehensive review of the literature revealed that although many past training needs analysis's and task analyses have been completed on the task of police officers nationwide, when data from four of those studies was examined by Benardin (1988) he concluded, quite accurately, that the job tasks of the average police officer is relatively stable. While there were minor differences noted on the time spent on various tasks by officers within the agencies Benardin examined (Chicago, Virginia, Philadelphia and Washington, DC), those tasks were not considered significant enough to warrant further elaboration.

While Benardin may have regarded those tasks as not being significant, it can be reasoned that Benardin did not intend to imply that these tasks were not important to the myriad of tasks required of the police officer. The tasks identified in this study elaborate on the unique tasks that the ISD police officer is expected to perform, and as the task list in Appendix C illustrates, if the unique tasks of the ISD police officer were not considered, any comprehensive job task analysis would be incomplete, resulting in these unique tasks not being considered for in-service training, perhaps overlooking valuable training opportunities.

These unique tasks were identified by experienced field training officers and certified in-service training instructor's officers (SME's) of the Conroe, Houston, Katy, and Spring ISD Police Departments who participated in the focus group exercise conducted at each of the participating police department's facilities by the researcher. Focus group research has been described by Garson (2003) as research that "is based on facilitating an organized discussion with a group of individuals selected because they were believed to be representative of some class" (p. 1). Garson also further states that the interaction among focus group participants brings out differing perspectives through the language used by the participants in an informal interview setting.

Review of the original task list found that there were 28 additional significantly unique tasks that could be added to the overall task list, resulting in the final task questionnaire consisting of 111 individual job tasks. Appendix C provides a listing of these unique ISD police officer tasks that were identified for inclusion in the questionnaire. The questionnaire was then returned to the focus group for final approval

before the instrument was mailed to the original list of 37 ISD police departments for distribution to their ISD police officers.

The questionnaires were sent by U.S. Mail to the 37 previously identified ISD departments, most of whom appointed a coordinator within the specific department to oversee the returns. There were several departments who chose not to return surveys for this portion of the research effort, but overall the returns represent a wide variety of agencies in regard to department size and department location throughout the State of Texas. It was preferable to get this overall perspective from ISD police officers throughout the state, as the identified unique tasks were expected to vary in importance by agency size, police officer experience and specific administrative needs and functions required of each ISD agency, as they focused on meeting their respective department's goals and objectives. A sample of the final unique task list that was compiled from the ISD group sessions may be viewed in appendix "C".

The final 111 item questionnaire consisted of four columns for each task question, with the four columns consisting of the frequencies of the individual tasks, the criticality of that task, the difficulty level of the task, and time to train for the task. The questionnaire was given to officers and sergeants in patrol and campus functions of these departments (administrative police personnel were not considered as their needs and tasks could be considered unique unto themselves, as are their training needs). The Dallas ISD Police Department was still in the formation stages of beginning a full fledged police department and was not included in the officer totals.

Table 6
ISD Police Officer Demographic Characteristics

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Age at time of survey.		
21-30	65	15.2
31-39	171	40.2
40-49	118	27.7
50 or older	71	16.7
Number of years in law enforcement.		
1-5 years	97	22.8
6-10 years	136	32
11-19 years	113	26.5
20 or more years	79	18.5
Highest educational level you have attained.		
High School	53	12.4
Some college, but no degree	269	63.2
Associates Degree	49	12
Bachelors Degree	51	12
Masters Degree	3	.07

Note: Demographic questions asked of ISD Police Officers on ISD police officer task questionnaire. N= 425.

The demographic characteristics in table 6 indicate that 40 percent of the ISD police officers were between ages 31-39, and 45 percent were 40 or older. Only 15 percent of the officers were between the ages of 21 and 30, which could indicate a relatively small number of officers just beginning their careers are choosing ISD policing versus other traditional law enforcement careers. Also, when reviewing the results of the number of years in law enforcement a combined total of 59 percent of officers responded that they had been in law enforcement for between 6 and 19 years. This response indicated a

relatively high level of experience in law enforcement and a high probability of previous law enforcement experience within another law enforcement agency, since the majority of ISD police departments have been in existence only for the past ten years. The last demographic question regarding educational attainment indicated that 63 percent of the ISD officers had some college, but had not obtained a degree at the time of the questionnaire. Only 12 percent had obtained an associates degree and an additional 12 percent had obtained a bachelors degree.

Question four results, which can be viewed in figure 18, indicated that the vast majority of departments are requiring at least 40 or more hours a year of training for each officer. The required number of training hours per year required by TCLEOSE is only 20, indicating the departments are well over the required standard regarding training hours for their officers.

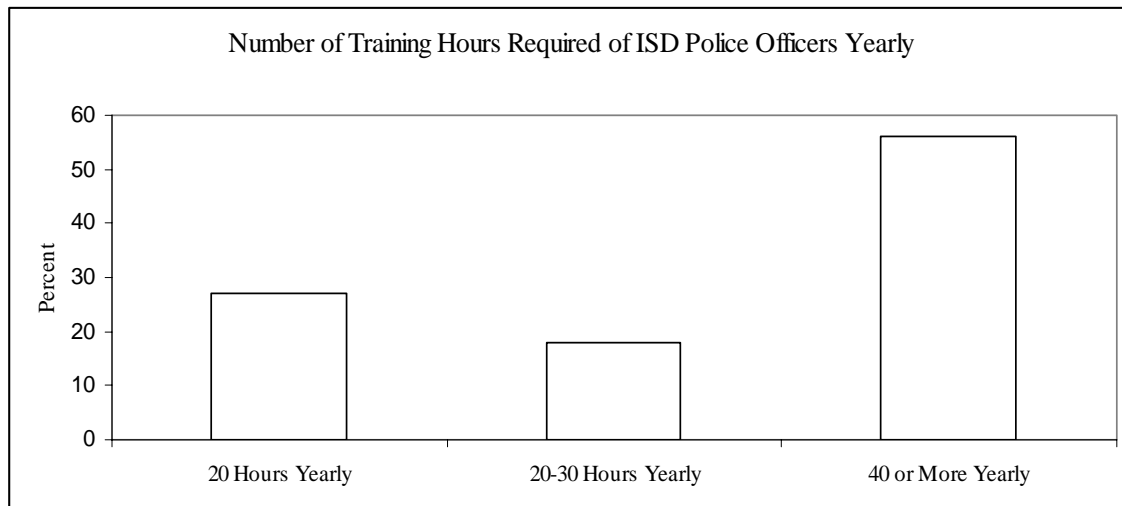


Figure 18. Number of training hours required of Texas ISD police officers yearly by their respective departments. N= 425.

Question five asked the officers how they received their hours of in-service training during the year. The results in figure 19 indicated that 69 percent of the ISD officers stated that their departments did the majority of the training with some outside assistance. Only 9 percent were required to find training on their own during the year, which indicated the majority of the departments were pre-planning the officer's training for them.

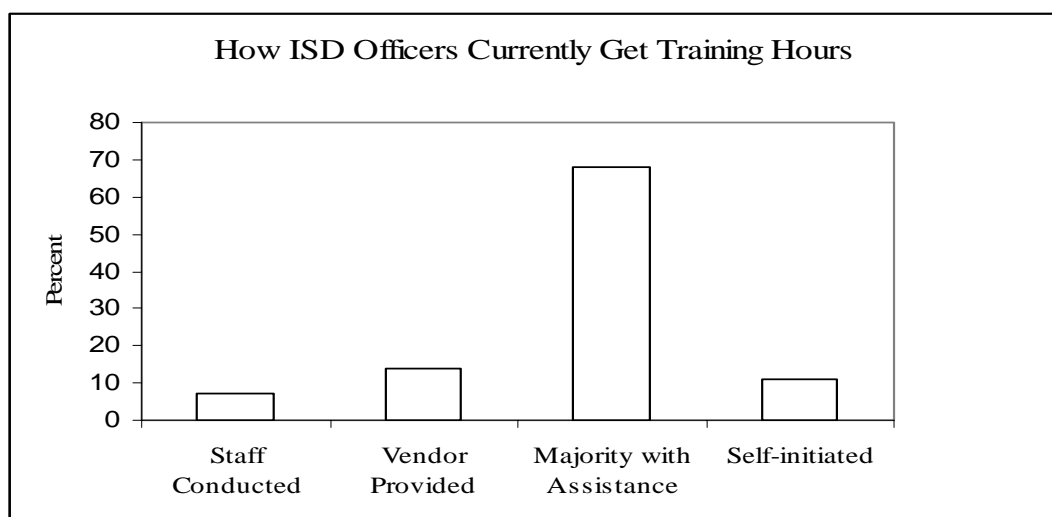


Figure 19. How ISD police officers get training hours during the year. N= 425.

Question six asked the ISD officers to indicate how much input is sought from officers of their department regarding training issues. The results in figure 20 indicated a relatively even split between those who stated their department highly valued their input to officer's opinions are not sought because a training panel makes the training decisions for the department.

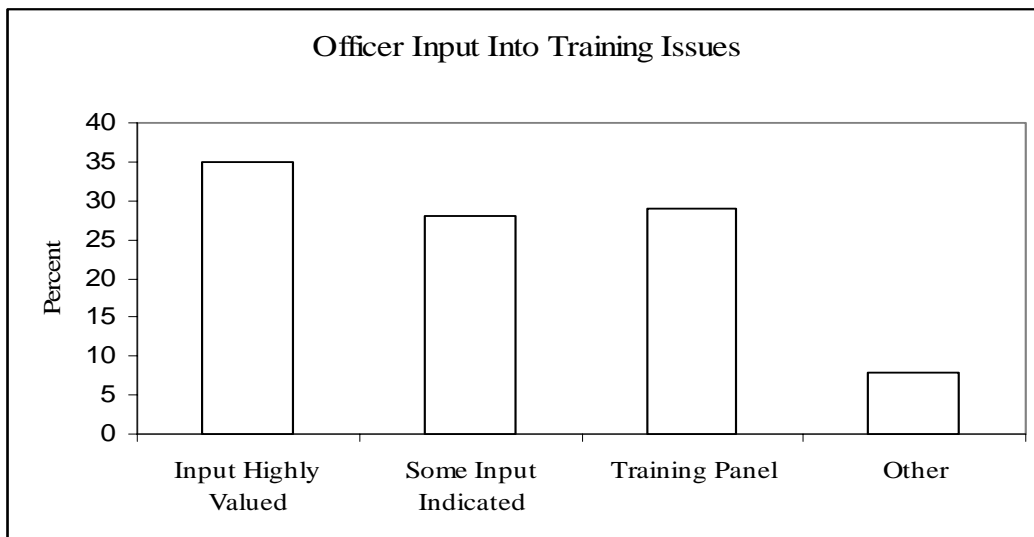


Figure 20. How much input is sought from ISD officers by their departments regarding training issues. N= 425.

Question seven asked the ISD officers to indicate how concerned they were that they may be held civilly liable for actions that they are required to take for which they were either improperly training, or received no training at all. The results in figure 21 indicated that 38 percent were very concerned, 45 percent were somewhat concerned, 16 percent were not concerned and felt that they were trained sufficiently to avoid litigation issues, and less than 1 percent answered the “other” question with their own response.

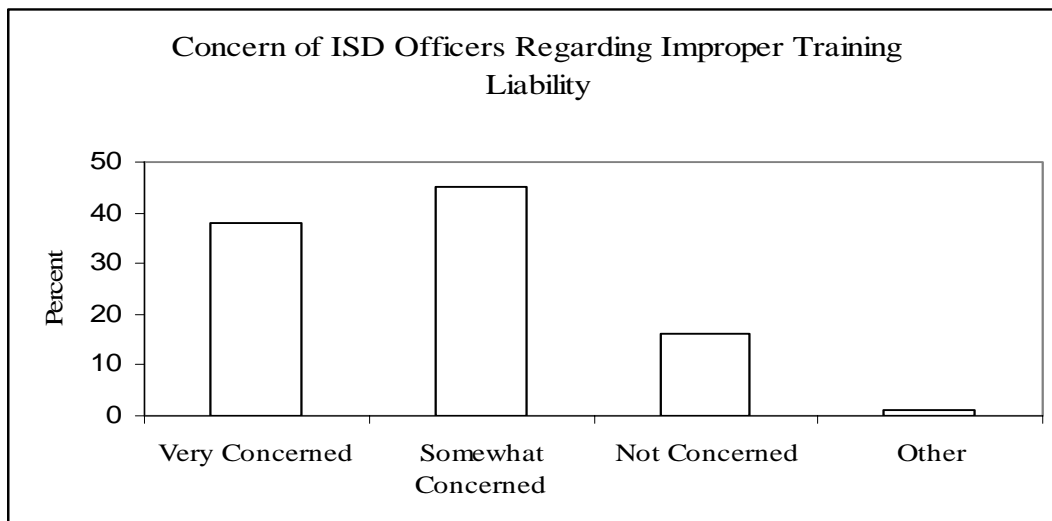


Figure 21. How concerned are ISD officers regarding civil liability for failure to train issues or for improper training received. N= 425.

Question eight asked the ISD police officers to describe officer attitudes toward training issues within their department. The results in figure 22 indicated in that 31 percent were highly motivated and often sought outside training opportunities on their own, 40 percent were at least moderately motivated and take prescribed classes mandated by their departments and TLEOSE, 23 percent were only interested in getting required classes and rarely sought outside training on their own, 2 percent thought training was a waste of their time, and 4 percent provided their own answer.

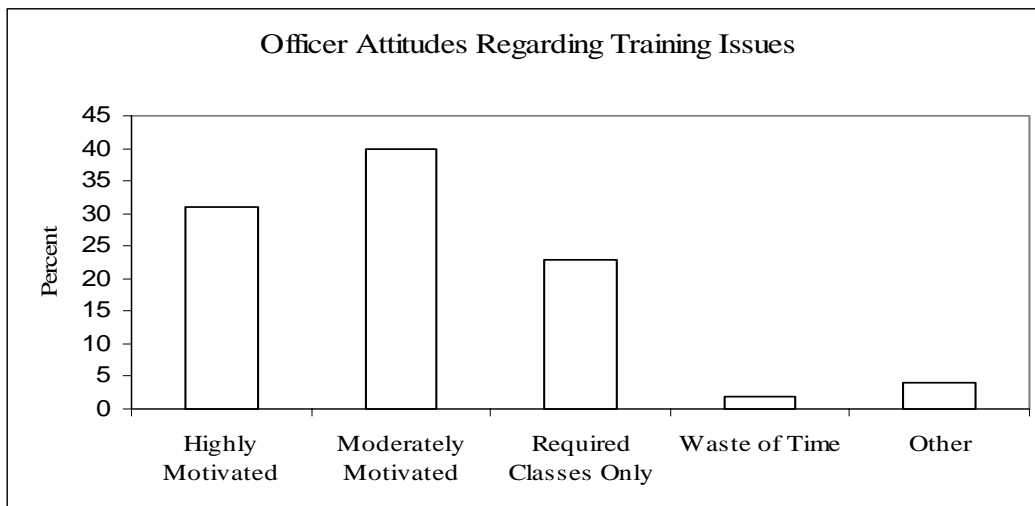


Figure 22. ISD officer attitudes toward training issues within their department. N= 425.

Question nine asked the ISD officers to indicate what methods they believe are used by the state legislature when determining what mandatory classes are required of the officers each year. The results, which can be seen in figure 23, indicated that 30 percent thought that a survey was done of local and state officers and that this input was considered, 25 percent felt that the legislature sought out input from concerned citizen and interest groups, 8 percent thought the legislature determine the required training with no outside help, 31 percent thought the legislature decided what classes are to be taught by constructing classes around what issues were “hot” at the time, and 5 percent answered the open ended question and supplied their own answer.

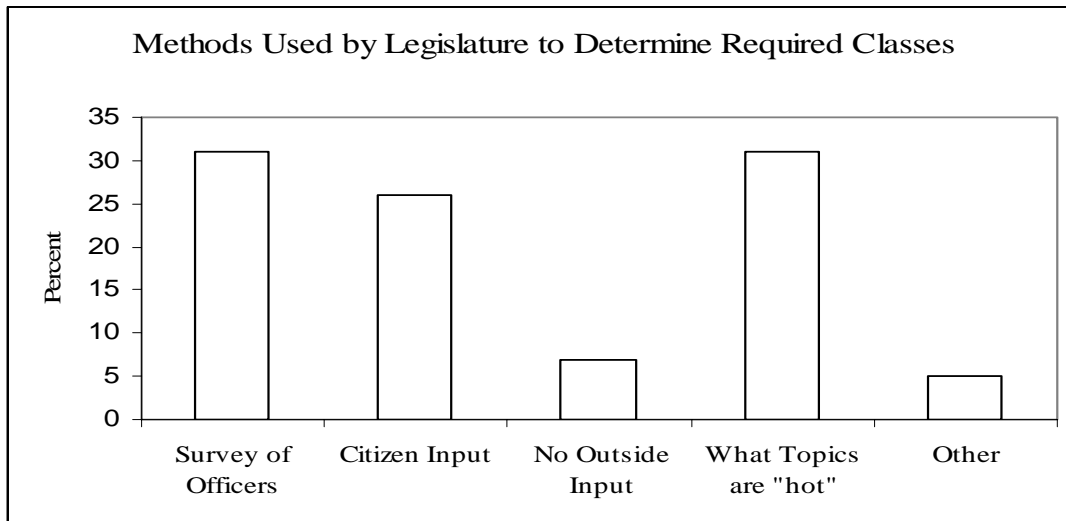


Figure 23. What methods are used by the state legislature to determine mandatory classes for peace officers. N= 425.

Question nine asked the ISD officers to indicate how they would improve police training within their own department. The results in figure 24 indicate that 41 percent thought that the best method was to determine what officers do on a daily basis and then have training revolve around those issues, 46 percent felt that officers should be polled to get their opinion on what subjects they felt was the most important, 4 percent stated they would let the experts design the classes, 4 percent wanted TCLEOSE to decide what classes were to be taken by officers, and 6 percent provided their own answer for the question.

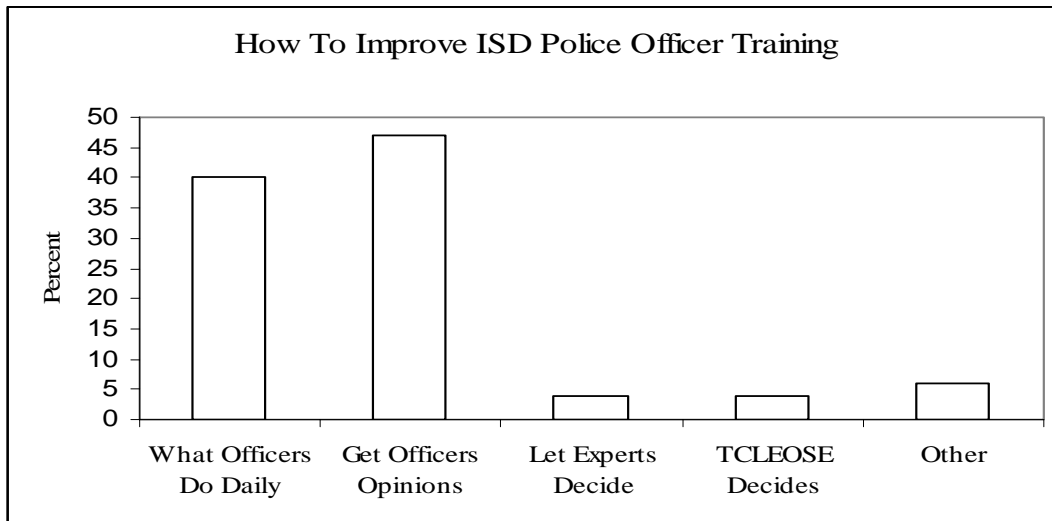


Figure 24. How ISD police officers perceived that training could be improved by their departments. N= 425.

Although the questionnaire regarding the ISD police officer unique competencies were identified by the group of officers chosen for the four group sessions with the researcher, it was believed that providing this list of tasks to the population of ISD police officers previously identified from the TCLEOSE list would provide additional insight into those unique tasks, providing a foundation from which a greater understanding of the in-service training issues may emerge.

Ancillary Findings

In addition to the two primary research questions there were other findings of interest that materialized during the study. After determining the unique tasks of the ISD police officer that sets them apart from the common police officer, it was decided that each of the individual competencies should be rated for frequency and criticality, and the individual competencies would then be rated in order of significance. When developing in-service training programs it would be useful to the police trainer to rate the criticality and frequency levels of each of the tasks, if a task analysis or training analysis is completed before training design begins. The more critical tasks should be considered first, for example, as though the frequency of the identified task may be low the criticality of a mistake made by the officer could range from high criticality (injury as the result of a misapplication of force, for example) to extreme criticality (loss of life or serious injury to the officer or others is high).

The results of this study indicated that one of the primary concerns of the chiefs during the organizational analysis was that their budgets allowed for only minimum training opportunities, so it would be desirable to maximize the available training budget by focusing on the most critical tasks first, then if there is training monies left over, the less critical and less frequent tasks. A review of table 7 below lists these competencies in the order of importance in regards to criticality and frequency. The criticality rating was completed by combining the highest scores of the criticality scales level 4 (high probability of consequences or liability due to error) and level 5 (serious consequences or liability due to error) into one overall criticality rating. The frequency of the task was

then considered by combining the top two highest scores of the frequency rating scale, with level 4 (I engage in that activity frequently) and level 5 (I engage in that activity extremely frequently) into one overall frequency rating.

Table 7
Ordered Competency List by Criticality and Frequency Levels. N=425.

<i>Competency</i>	<i>Criticality</i>		<i>Frequency</i>		<i>Final Rating</i>
	<i>F</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>%</i>	
Bomb threat calls at school.	208	49	51	12	1
Drug usage/overdose school grounds.	189	44	47	11	2
Irate Parents on school grounds.	139	33	152	35	3
Domestic disturbances.	137	32	62	14	4
Arrest due to administrative searches.	134	31	133	31	5
Controlling crowds at sporting events.	110	26	144	34	6
Emergency preparedness drills/training.	101	24	107	25	7
Assist in school crossing duties.	96	23	89	21	8
Handling disorderly juvenile groups.	95	22	160	38	9
Patrolling school/district property.	87	21	345	81	10
Assisting/conducting fire drills.	83	20	115	27	11
Contact with juvenile offenders.	82	19	271	64	12
Advising/mentoring children.	80	19	208	49	13
Criminal Activity off campus.	69	16	117	28	14
Disruption of school activities.	65	15	152	36	15
Student code of conduct regulations.	63	15	137	32	16
Non-criminal disciplinary actions.	62	15	123	29	17
Disruption of classroom activities	61	14	194	46	18
Security meetings with faculty.	56	13	92	22	19
Lunchroom security monitoring	54	13	229	54	20
Hallway security monitoring	53	13	225	53	21
Disruption of transportation	53	13	104	24	22
Speaking to parent groups.	49	12	72	17	23
Presentations to student groups.	47	11	101	24	24
School records checks of students.	46	11	111	26	25
Presentations to faculty groups.	41	11	54	15	26
Citations near school grounds.	40	9	77	18	27
Assisting motorists on school grounds.	28	7	92	22	28

Note: Ordered ISD police officer competency list by criticality and frequency. The criticality scale was considered the primary factor in the rating, with frequency considered only in cases of criticality score similarities. N= 425.

The review of the data also proved to be interesting when considering these unique ISD officer tasks/competencies by agency size. Although not an entirely an unexpected finding, the results showed that when the agencies were broken into size categories (size 1= 35 plus officers, size 2= 20-34 officers, size 3= 19 or less officers) there were also noted differences primarily in the perceived criticality and frequency of the task. Many of the smaller departments had less personnel to focus on the required tasks and duties of the department (the officers were more of a generalist, having to be responsible for more tasks events), while the larger departments had more officers that specialized in completing certain tasks (canine officers, swat teams and other reactive and administrative type units).

In addition to considering the combined tasks by the officers in table 7 it was also decided that the agencies would benefit from looking at those same tasks in relationship to agency size. Table 8 lists those same tasks by frequency and criticality as does table 7, but it also considers the criticality and frequency in relationship to the agency size. This would also assist the ISD agencies when planning for in-service training needs related to the unique competencies of the ISD officer and may reduce the costs related to these training needs and the time that it would normally take to determine if their respective department's needs may match with the needs of all of the ISD police departments.

Table 8

Competency List by Rank of Department

<i>Competency</i>	<i>Number of Officers</i>		
	<i>35+</i>	<i>34-20</i>	<i>Fewer Than 20</i>
Bomb threat calls at school.	1	1	3
Drug usage/overdose school grounds.	2	2	9
Irate Parents on school grounds.	4	4	8
Domestic disturbances.	3	3	20
Arrest due to administrative searches.	5	6	7
Controlling crowds at sporting events.	7	5	11
Emergency preparedness drills/training.	6	13	21
Assist in school crossing duties.	12	7	15
Handling disorderly juvenile groups.	9	9	14
Patrolling school/district property.	10	10	13
Assisting/conducting fire drills.	8	15	28
Advising/mentoring children.	13	11	18
Contact with juvenile offenders.	11	12	23
Lunchroom security monitoring.	20	27	19
Criminal Activity off campus.	14	19	4
Disruption of school activities.	17	16	24
Disruption of classroom activities.	21	14	2
Student code of conduct regulations.	15	25	6
Non-criminal disciplinary actions.	19	20	25
Disruption of transportation.	23	17	5
Hallway security monitoring.	18	28	22
Security meetings with faculty.	26	26	17
Speaking to parent groups.	22	23	27
Presentations to student groups.	25	22	10
Presentations to faculty groups.	25	21	12
School records checks of students.	24	24	26
Citations near school grounds.	27	18	1
Assisting motorists on school grounds.	28	8	16

Note: ISD police officer unique task list by departmental ranking. A large department consisted of 35 or more officers, a medium department consisted of 20 to 34 officers and small department consisted of less than 20 officers. N= 425.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Although it has been well documented in the private sector the many benefits of conducting a training needs analysis, law enforcement (in general) has lagged behind the public counterpart in conducting both local and statewide training needs analysis. One of the first steps in training development should focus on the process of deciding who should be trained (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Goldstein (1986) also identifies the training needs analysis as the next logical step, conducted in order to determine where training is needed, what needs to be taught, and who needs to be trained. The overall objectives of the current research were to identify organizational constraints emanating from within the ISD policing organization, as well as outside constraints hindering in-service training, and to provide a detailed look into the unique tasks that are required of the ISD police officer in the State of Texas.

This objective was accomplished in this research effort by using the needs analysis model developed by McGehee and Thayer (1961), which initially involves a detailed look at the organization itself (the system wide components affecting delivery of a training program). Additionally, a comprehensive task analysis of the organization's personnel is completed to describe the work functions to be performed, the conditions under which the job is to be performed, and the knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSA's) needed to perform those tasks (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). A thorough search of

the current literature revealed that there had been relatively few training needs analysis's completed in Texas regarding the job of police officer (most were small, locally completed task analysis often completed by untrained personnel), and there were none discovered that had been conducted on a statewide basis of the job of the ISD police officer.

The research was guided by the results of two questionnaires, both of which were distributed by the researcher by U.S. Mail to 37 selected ISD police departments (as identified by TCLEOSE). The first questionnaire was distributed to the chiefs of police of those identified ISD police departments to develop information on the organizational constraints, and the second was distributed to the patrol and campus police officers of those same 37 identified agencies to assist in identifying the unique tasks of the ISD police officer. These unique tasks had been previously identified by the researcher with the assistance of four Houston area ISD police departments (Conroe, Houston, Katy, and Spring ISD). Descriptive statistical methods were the used to analyze the data from the questionnaires. The summary of the results of the research first focuses on the results of the ISD police chief's questionnaire (which assists in understanding research question one) and will be followed by the results of the ISD police officer task questionnaire (which assist in answering research question two).

Organizational Constraints

Analysis of the data returned by the 34 ISD chiefs of police indicates that the primary constraints with which school district police departments must contend with are:

1. Budgetary issues- fifty-two percent of the chiefs had a training budget of less than 5 percent of their total budget, 12 percent stated that their budget was between 6 and 8 percent and 35 percent stated that their training budget was between 8 and 10 percent of their total budget for the department.
2. Time issues- one of the ISD chiefs indicated that time was a primary issue constraining his department from optimizing their training programs, while another chief felt that scheduling and other operational needs were impeding police training in his department. Another chief stated that attrition of officers created multi-levels of training needs, and still another chief stated that manpower and time constraints was an issue within his department. Although time constraints was not a directed question asked in the questionnaire many of the chiefs indicated that time both to allow for officers to take training and time to plan for training was a major issue affecting in-service police training issues within their departments.
3. Lack of training support from the state and local school district administration- this question showed that 18 percent felt that other school officials who are unfamiliar with officer training needs hampered their departments training issues, and 15 percent stated that funding from the administration was inadequate to meet training needs. Another 24 percent felt that a lack of general support for the administration who viewed policing as a secondary issue was hampering training

needs, and 44 percent answered the open ended question indicating other administrative level constraints. One chief indicated that a constraint he felt was quality of personnel and time, while two indicated time needed for training vs. the duties and responsibilities within a small department environment was a problem. Two chiefs stated that they had not experienced any constraints on an administrative level, while yet another stated that his department depended on state funds or government grants for assistance in his department's training needs. One chief indicated that funding and support from his administration was a problem and another chief stated that administrators who did not understand training needs of officers and lack of support from administration was a problem impeding training issues in their departments.

4. No training needs analysis to identify important training needs- The questionnaire revealed that 24 percent had conducted a needs analysis within the past year, while 24 percent stated that it had been over a year since the last needs analysis was completed. Another 9 percent stated that it had been over two years since a training needs analysis was completed, and the remaining 44 percent stated that they do not use a training needs analysis at this time for training issues.
5. Other outside training constraints- Twenty percent felt that legislative mandates and requirements take up too much training time, 65 percent felt that the lack of a statewide needs assessment designed for school district policing has hampered training, and 12 percent answered the open ended question and provided their own answer. Two chiefs stated that a combination of all three of the questions given

answers played a part in impeding training, and additionally, that a lack of understanding that policing in a school environment is different also plays a role in impeding training needs. These same chief also stated that smaller departments have a much harder time with actual training costs and that many outside venues are much to expensive to choose for providing training services.

Other relevant in-service training issues to be considered that may be affecting ISD police officer training is that 53 percent of the chiefs indicated they did not conduct a job analysis to determine training needs, and only 24 percent indicated that one had been completed within the past year. Sixty-five percent felt that the lack of a statewide needs analysis specifically designed for school district policing has hampered training, indicating the chiefs are aware of the value of the needs analysis for training issues.

After identifying training needs 53 percent indicated that their department usually finds available classes that best meet their training needs from local training academies, which may or may not offer the best alternative to their department's identified training needs. A majority of the chiefs (56 percent) felt that the mandated classes seemed to be constructed by the legislature around whatever topic was "hot" at the time regarding mandatory training, and that little effort was being made to determine if the classes would be beneficial (or needed) by police officers. One of the chiefs indicated that "overkill" was prevalent in the required training that officers are mandated to take, and that repetition in certain areas was also a problem (the same type of mandatory class being given repeatedly). In those ISD agencies that chose to use outside vendors for a

majority of their training needs the chiefs often had little choice but to choose classes not always closely related to school district policing.

Task Analysis Results

The ISD police officer's unique tasks, which were identified with the assistance of four Houston area ISD police departments (Conroe, Katy, Houston, and Spring ISD's), provided a unique look into the specific and unique tasks that are required of the Texas ISD police officer, over and above the tasks that would be considered of the customary Texas peace officer. The task list provided 28 additional tasks that were added to the originally designed task list provided by the researcher to the focus groups. These tasks were added to the finalized task list bringing the total tasks numbers to 111, and along with several other demographic and various questions designed to determine officers opinions regarding training issues within their departments, these questions provided a unique look at ISD police officer training through the ISD police officers perspective.

The demographic questions of age, number of years in law enforcement and highest educational attainment of the ISD police officer revealed that a large majority of the officers were between the ages of 31-39, and 41 percent were 40 or older. This represents a high number of officers who have entered ISD policing with prior experience, as was the case when the organizational analysis revealed that many of the ISD police chiefs also had prior experience before joining their departments. Also, 59 percent of the ISD police officers indicated that they had been involved in law enforcement for between 6 and 19 years, which further supports this conclusion, as most ISD departments have been in existence for only 10-12 years.

The educational attainment results indicated that most ISD police officers (64 percent) did not have a college degree, with only 11 percent with an Associates Degree and 12 percent with a Bachelors degree. It has only been recently that many of ISD police departments have required their officers to have a degree before being employed.

The ISD officers also indicated that they were required to attain more hours than is required by TCLEOSE yearly for training, which supports the ISD police chief's views that training is very important to their department when it impacts departmental goals and objectives. The officers also stated that their department was responsible for a majority of the in-service classes, but also was assisted from the outside by training vendors. When asked how much input was sought from them regarding training, the views were evenly split between having input highly valued to a training panel makes the decisions and their opinions are not sought. In order to have ownership of the in-service classes it is desired to have officers input into the classes to some extent, perhaps through an evaluation of current in-service classes that they are asked to attend.

The officers also indicated that they were very concerned about legal issues regarding failure to train or improper training liability. The officer's results showed that 81 percent were very concerned to somewhat concerned that they would be held liable for an action that they might take in which they did not receive proper training. This is an uncomfortably high number, and perhaps shows that the officers do not believe the training that they are currently receiving is adequate. Most of the officers did remain highly motivated to at least moderately motivated concerning training issues with 74 percent confirming this fact. It is, however, disturbing that 21 percent felt that they were

interested in getting required classes only, and this may indicate problems within those specific departments regarding training issues.

The topic of how the legislature determines the required training of officers in the state showed that most of the officers were unclear on the method, with 31 percent stating that a survey of officers was done (which is not the case) and 26 percent stating that outside parties, such as special interest groups, played a part (which is partially correct). Another 31 percent thought the classes were on whatever topic was hot (or politically expedient) was correct, which is the most likely answer, as many of the officers feel that the topics that they are required to take often make very little sense when compared with what training is truly needed by officers in their department. When asked what they would do to improve training, 40 percent of the officers indicated that in-service classes should revolve around on what officers do on a daily basis, which is a strong validation a statewide training needs analysis such as the current research effort.

Although not originally considered to be a focus of this research, the ancillary findings provided additional valuable information regarding the 28 unique tasks that were previously identified by the focus groups efforts. In order to get a better view of these tasks the questionnaire was sent out to the previously identified ISD departments and provided to their officers for feedback. The feedback resulted in the list of competencies being ordered, both by overall criticality and frequency and by departmental size. This effort prioritized the list of tasks, for it is understood from viewing the results of the organizational analysis, that when training monies are in short supply, the training needs to be finely focused on what is considered important by the

organization. It was also recognized that not one size fits all when training issues are concerned, so the unique tasks were also ordered by departmental size to give greater flexibility to the individual departments. A large department consisted of 35 plus officers, a medium department had 20-34 officers, and the small departments had less than 20 officers.

While the majority of the tasks are understandable when departmental size is considered, there were a few surprises in the data, such as the number one task reported by the smaller sized departments consisted of citations near school grounds, while the same view by the large department's is that citations near school grounds only rated 27 out of 28 tasks. Also, domestic disturbances rated a 20 for the small departments while the same issue rated a 4 for the large departments and for the medium departments. This may reveal the differences and concerns of the smaller school districts administration, teachers and parents of the students versus the larger school districts in some instances. If this is the case, the police chief's of these organizations should educate the educators, administrators and the parents regarding the law enforcement role in the school district.

The organizational analysis did reveal that one of the problems faced by the police chiefs was that the ISD administrators did not understand their (the ISD police departments) purpose and responsibilities. This is not to say that the conflicts are totally of the making of the school administration, however, as the police chiefs share a portion of the blame for any misunderstandings. The ISD police chiefs should take a leadership role regarding the ISD administration, and not wait for the administration to come to

them regarding the administration's wants and needs. Taking this leadership role may also assist the ISD police department's in-service training needs, as an informed and educated administrator is more likely to release more funds for training when he or she is educated in the special needs of the district's police department. The lack of funding appeared to be a major issue affecting ISD police officer training needs.

This researcher is familiar with a program compiled by William Horton, the Chief of Police of the Mansfield Independent School District, which has made great strides in assisting both the administration and the police department recognize and appreciate the duties and responsibilities of the other party. Additional recent research has also supported the conclusion of a disconnect between the ISD police department and the administration. Completed by Ann Neeley (2003) the study, originally conducted to research the impact of violence in Texas schools, found consistent evidence that a partnership (between the police and the school district administration) was not in place in the majority of locations which responded to her research effort. This was both with ISD's that had police departments, and also within ISD's that relied upon outside police agencies (generally city or county) for their policing needs.

Conclusions

The results of the statistical analysis conducted on the organizational level with the 34 responding ISD police chiefs provided a clear picture that the current process of determining the in-service training needs for their departments is not effective. The identified organizational constraints (budgets, time, administration not understanding police training needs, poorly chosen and designed legislative mandates, and no statewide analysis of in-service training needs of ISD police officers) are hindering training progress and must be dealt with initially before other training issues are addressed. The ISD chiefs did understand the benefits that a statewide analysis of the in-service training needs could provide for their departments, and the majority of the chiefs who were approached with this research effort were very supportive, realizing that a change was necessary in order for ISD policing to grow and improve. Following the general template previously provided by other law enforcement agencies external to the ISD police departments was determined to be valuable, but inefficient, when considering that school district policing provides a completely different environment and perspective with unique training needs.

The police chiefs also acknowledged that many of the ISD organizations had some of the same issues that were impeding other organizations outside of ISD law enforcement training progression, such as time constraints, budget constraints, lack of training support from administrators who knew little of police training needs, no training needs analysis to identify training issues and needs, and legislative mandated training that takes up too much valuable training time and is more often than not, based on political

expediency more than identified police needs. The recommendations that were made to overcome these issues should prove valuable for the ISD police departments, such as seeking outside funds and other opportunities for training, training during school holidays and during the summer, organizing to attempt to reduce the number of legislative training mandates that takes up valuable training time, involving and educating school district administrators of police training needs, and providing for a statewide school district police officer training needs analysis.

The focus group sessions with the ISD police trainers provided 28 unique ISD police officer tasks, which should prove useful when training ISD police officers from around the state of Texas. At the current time it is unknown exactly how many of the agencies train in any of the identified areas, as a number of the tasks overlap with other current police training opportunities to some extent. However, it should be recognized that the policing environments are not always the same, and this observation should be considered in the design of the training program for the individual ISD police department. For example, while patrolling and patrol functions are a commonly instructed course in law enforcement, a course revolving around the school environment might take into account the young ages of the victims and the suspects, or the searching of a building might take into account the layout of the schools and surrounding properties, and the best method of entry and exit for the officer.

The organization may also find it valuable to train in the most critical areas first regarding the 28 unique competencies, and then simply work their way down the list when developing a training curriculum. The ancillary findings should provide this valuable information for the ISD departments, both in general with the overall combined task list and with the organization of the tasks/competencies by agency size. Since funding is often a problem with public agencies it was decided to provide the list of tasks/competencies both ways to provide not only a look at the tasks overall but to allow for the agencies to view their training needs versus other nearby districts to see if joint training efforts would prove valuable. It is also useful to see that there are other ISD agencies that may have an entirely different focus on training due to local issues and problems, but that overall, the tasks are still necessary to provide for a well rounded ISD police training program.

Overall, most ISD police officers appear to be a group who are interested in improving their in-service training opportunities, although many feel the current process makes little sense. Current in-service is not based on what the ISD police officer does on a daily basis and is not job specific enough, and the officers and chiefs both are aware of this fact. The chiefs and officers as a group agree that a training needs analysis was needed and supported this by their responses in this research effort. The ISD officers should also be included in the design and teaching of in-service classes, as currently it is believed that this talent exists within most agencies, but remains untapped because of past views and constraints as yet unidentified.

The outlook to improve ISD police training looks hopeful, as the support appears to be there for positive, proactive changes. The ISD police department chiefs, with the assistance of organizations such as the Texas School District Police Chiefs Association, the individual ISD police departments, and the officers themselves, must combine their efforts to make the changes necessary to make the future of ISD police training a positive experience for everyone.

Recommendations

Organizational Issues

The 34 ISD police chiefs who provided responses to identify current ISD police officer in-service training constraints indicated that: lack of appropriate monies to budget for in-service training, time constraints, a lack of general support from state agencies controlling in-service training agendas and local administrators who do not support or understand ISD police training needs, and no training needs analysis to identify unique ISD police training needs, were the most pressing issues hampering in-service training needs.

While it appears to be a daunting task to alleviate the identified training constraints, it is a necessary and needed undertaking in order to improve future ISD police in-service training. It is important to recognize that in order to improve ISD police officer in-service training, the first task is to confront the organizational issues before considering the results of any tasks or training needs analysis.

Recommendations that may positively impact these training constraints are:

1. **Budgetary factors-** The results of this analysis determined that approximately 53 percent of the agencies returning a questionnaire indicated that they spent less than 5 percent of their budget on training. Since more than 47 percent of the agencies reported that outside vendors, were responsible for the majority of their training and another 32 percent indicated at least some of the classes were provided by outside vendors a lack of appropriate training funds can directly impact the quality of a training program. Outside funding sources, such as grants, along with identifying training opportunities with other local agencies and educational providers, may provide the agency with some relief from budgetary constraints. However, since the agency usually has no direct input into the outside training opportunities, choices of training identified by the ISD police departments may not be offered. Another alternative would be for the school district police agencies to have their training directors meet within a given regional area and design training programs for those participating departments, therefore sharing the costs and identifying particular training needs of school district police departments. It may also be appropriate for the ISD organization to exploit training opportunities within their own school district, as many school district training issues may overlap with ISD police officer needs (an example would be training on how to deal with mentally challenged juvenile students in a campus setting).

2. Time constraints- When answering the open ended questions provided by the questionnaire for questions 14, 15 and 16, which looked at administrative, police department and statewide constraints, many of the chiefs indicated that time was a problem in planning for training issues. Time, at least in this sense, often impacted other important needs, such as manpower issues and not having the personnel to “cover” for officers who are away from their normal duties attending training programs. Also identified as a time constraint was the mandatory classes required by the state’s licensing authority, the chiefs felt that mandatory classes took time away from providing their officers with training designed for meeting specific school policing issues. Recommendations would be for the chiefs to organize, as has been the case in the past several years, with many joining the Texas School District Police Chiefs Association, and for the members to take their concerns on police training directly to the state’s licensing authority in order to seek changes in the mandatory training programs. The other scheduling problems regarding time will most likely remain, especially within the smaller departments. However, recognition of the problem in advance may offer departments the opportunity to come up with unique ways of managing their training time, such as providing training during the summer months, which many of the ISD departments do at the present time.
3. Lack of training support – These support issues arose from two primary sources; the state and the school district administration. The lack of support from TCLEOSE was evident in that 65 percent felt that a statewide needs assessment

specifically designed for school district policing agencies had not been completed. The chiefs felt that the state needed to address their particular concerns regarding training issues specific to their needs, and that a statewide needs analysis/assessment should be done for ISD police departments to identify those needs. On a local administrative level, the chiefs felt that their administrator (the superintendent or other person responsible on an administrative level) was unfamiliar with officer training needs (18 percent), and 24 percent felt that the administration did not see police training as a primary issue with which they should be concerned. Both the state and the administration need to be allied behind the department's training plans for them to be successful. There are no easy answers regarding seeking the local administration's support, as the school district chiefs are dealing with different personalities, unique local issues, and concerns. Keeping the administrator involved, even if indirectly, is one option to garner support, while a program designed to educate the administrator in school policing issues offered by the police agency, or an organization like the Texas School District Police Chiefs Association offered on a regional basis, could be of great benefit.

4. Training needs assessment- Only 18 percent of the school district policing agencies in Texas are currently using training needs assessment information to determine training needs. However, when asked what was hampering the training of school district police on a statewide basis 65 percent stated that they felt a statewide training needs analysis needed to be completed to help guide their

police training. The reason that most had not completed a needs analysis or assessment most likely had to do with size of the agency being a factor to completing an assessment, as well as prohibitive costs to seek an outside assessor to complete an assessment. The chiefs who participated in this study, as well as the chiefs of smaller school district policing agencies throughout the state, will benefit greatly from the needs assessment provided by this research effort.

ISD Officer Unique Tasks

The results of the task analysis provided the ISD police departments with a listing of specific unique competencies which may be useful in designing and selecting training opportunities for their officers. While using the general training opportunities provided by other policing organizations and other educational institutions in the past has provided useful classes, no attempt has been made on a larger scale to determine what other training opportunities should be provided for ISD police officers. There have been local attempts to provide information, such as local training needs assessments and analyses, but the resulting data from this research effort provided a clear picture that this was not a normal and routine act for most departments, perhaps due to lack of funds for such a study or lack of qualified or interested personnel to provide these services to the individual department.

It is apparent that the officers have not completely lost faith in the ability of their departments to provide relevant training, but it is obvious that a large number (46 percent) feel that they have little no input into training issues within their departments and they do not feel that the department is focusing enough effort on training for what

they are required to do on a daily basis (40 percent). The officers would like training to make sense, and training focused around the tasks and competencies that the police officer is required do on a daily basis would be a step in the right direction, and would most likely receive the support of the ISD police officers.

It would also be of value to include officers in the various training issues of the department, from assisting in designing the training programs to actually instructing the training programs when deemed appropriate. Often there is valuable training expertise and abilities within an organization. A survey of officers' opinions regarding training issues on a regular basis or before and after a class (an evaluation process) would provide feedback on current training programs and the evaluation could be modified to ask officers their opinions on what other training would be valuable, and if they would be interested in assisting in the design of a training class such as one that they may recommend. This is a win-win situation for both the department and the officer, as the department can often gain valuable and needed training and the individual officer gains valuable teaching experience that may broaden his or her horizons.

Improving the Study

The following recommendations are made for improvement of any future research into the organizational constraints and unique tasks of the ISD police officer. The researcher became aware, while in the process of collecting data from the ISD police officers, that the collection of data during the summer months makes the task of collection immensely more difficult. Additionally, the ISD police officer task analysis consisted of 111 questions, while only 28 of those 111 tasks were relevant to this

research effort (the additional data was collected for future research efforts). This caused many of the questionnaires to be returned blank or with only partial answers for some of the questions, as the questionnaire took at least 30 to 40 minutes to complete. This reduced the response rate for the task analysis considerably. Any replication efforts may consider these important issues and plan for them accordingly.

Future Research

As is the case for many research studies, the data in this research effort raises additional questions that need to be addressed by future researchers into ISD police officer in-service training issues. First, there appears to be a real disconnect between the administration and the ISD police departments regarding the duties and responsibilities of each party. Valuable research into this area would include a deeper and more targeted effort to identify what those issues may be, both of the administration and the police department. Second, there appears to be a noticeable difference between the perceptions of task criticality and frequency of the smaller sized ISD police departments and the larger ISD departments. Research focused on why these differences exist may provide additional valuable knowledge for the future training needs of the smaller ISD police departments and their respective administration.

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APPENDIX A

School District Police Officer Job Task Questionnaire

Purpose of this study:

The goal of this questionnaire is to ascertain the knowledge, skills and abilities to perform the job of School District Police Officer in Texas. One of the necessary elements of a “job analysis” is a determination of the individual tasks that constitute your job. Please read the instructions below carefully and fill out the questionnaire, returning it to your supervisor or other designated person. Thank you for your time and consideration.

There are four categories for each of the job functions listed: Frequency Rating (how often the job function is done), Criticality Rating (what are the consequences/liability from error involved in the job function), Difficulty of Learning Rating (how difficult is the specific task to learn), Time to train (how much additional training is needed for mastery of task at your current certificate level). Please complete each individual job function completely before continuing to the next question. You may find it convenient to tear off this page only to view the rating scales while filling out the form.

<u>SAMPLE:</u>	F. R.	C.R.	D.R.	T.R.
Answering calls for service.	4	3	3	2

<p><u>Frequency Rating</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I never engage in that activity. 2. I engage in that activity only very infrequently. 3. I occasionally engage in that activity. 4. I engage in that activity frequently. 5. I engage in that activity extremely frequently.
<p><u>Criticality Rating</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. No consequences/liability from error. 2. Minor consequences/liability from error. 3. Moderate consequences/liability from error. 4. High probability of consequences/liability due to error. 5. Serious consequences/liability due to errors.
<p><u>Difficulty of Learning Rating</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. No training required for task. 2. Some training required for task. 3. Moderate training required for task. 4. Training/ education important for task. 5. Specialized training and expertise required.
<p><u>Time to Train Rating</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. No additional training required. 2. 8 hours of additional training required. 3. 16 hours of additional training required. 4. 40 hours of additional training required. 5. Activity requires constant training of officer.

Preliminary demographic questions:

Current Rank: _____

1. What is your current age?
 - a. 21-30
 - b. 31-39
 - c. 40-49
 - d. 50 or older

1. Number of years in law enforcement?
 - a. 1-5 years
 - b. 6-10 years
 - c. 11-19 years
 - d. 20 or more years

2. Highest level of education you have attained?
 - a. High School or GED.
 - b. Some college, but no degree.
 - c. Associates Degree.
 - d. Bachelors Degree
 - e. Masters Degree
 - f. Ph.D.

3. How many training hours are required of you by your agency yearly?
 - a. 20 hours a year
 - b. 20- 30 a year.
 - c. 40 or more a year.

4. How do you get the training hours during the year?
 - a. Our departmental staff conducts all the training.
 - b. Outside vendors conduct all of our training classes.
 - c. Our department does the majority with some outside assistance.
 - d. I have to find training on my own during the training year.

5. How much input is sought from officers in your department regarding training issues?
 - a. Officer input is highly valued and is considered in all training decisions.
 - b. Officers are encouraged to give input only if they have relevant knowledge of a specific training area.
 - c. Officer's opinions are not sought because a panel or our training coordinator makes all the training decisions.
 - d. Other_____.

6. As a police officer, how concerned are you that you may be held civilly liable for an action you take for which you were improperly trained, or received no training?
 - a. Very concerned about the liability issue.
 - b. Somewhat concerned about the liability issue.
 - c. Not concerned at all, as I feel we are trained sufficiently to avoid litigation issues.
 - d. Other_____.

7. How would you describe officer's attitudes within your department regarding training issues?
 - a. The majority of officers are highly motivated and often seek out training opportunities on their own.
 - b. They are moderately motivated and will take classes prescribed by the department and TCLEOSE.
 - c. Most seem to be interested in getting required classes only. They occasionally seek out classes of interest to them in addition to the required hours.
 - d. Most officers do not like training and feel it is a waste of their time.
 - e. Other_____.

9. In your opinion, what method(s) do you believe are used by the State Legislature when determining what mandatory classes are required of police officers?
 - a. A survey is done of local and state police officers and their input helps determine the type of mandated classes.
 - b. The legislature seeks input from citizens and interest groups with little input from police officers and officials.
 - c. The legislature determines the mandated classes entirely on their own with no outside help.
 - d. The classes seem to be constructed around whatever subject(s) are "hot" at the time with little effort to determine if they will be helpful or useful to police officers.
 - e. Other_____.

10. How would you improve police training in your department?
- a. Determine what officers do on a daily basis and have training revolve around those issues.
 - b. Poll individual officer to get their opinion on what subjects they feel they need training in.
 - c. Let the experts designed the training programs, as they probably know best what areas officers need training in.
 - d. I would like the state (TCLEOSE) to get more involved and decide the subjects in which officers should be trained.
 - e. Other_____.
11. Your current TCLEOSE certificate level: (circle) Basic Intermediate Advanced Masters

Thank you for your answers. Please continue to the next page to complete the job/task analysis questions.

<u>Activities</u>	F.R.	C. R.	D.R.	T.R.
<u>Disturbance Activities</u>				
1. Handling disturbances caused by gangs				
2. Breaking up assaults and fights				
3. Disruption of classroom activities.				
4. Disruption of school activities.				
5. Disruption of transportation.				
6. Dispersing and controlling crowds at sporting events.				
7. Dispersing and handling disorderly juvenile groups.				
<u>Service Activities</u>				
8. Answering calls for service.				
9. Investigating lost/found property.				
10. Investigating runaways/missing persons.				
11. Rescuing people (fire, water, etc.)				
12. Assist in school crossing duties.				
13. Advising/mentoring children (on and off campus).				
14. Giving directions.				
15. Patrolling schools and district property.				
16. Notification of criminal activity off campus.				
<u>Traffic and Auto Activities</u>				
17. Investigating traffic accidents.				
18. Issuing parking tickets				
19. Issuing moving violations near school grounds.				
20. Answering calls relating to auto theft.				
21. Answering calls relating to theft from auto.				
22. Assisting in traffic control.				
23. Impounding abandoned vehicles.				
24. Writing traffic related reports.				
25. Assisting motorist on school grounds.				
<u>Sex Offense Activities</u>				
26. Investigating cases involving rape.				
27. Apprehending rapist in progress.				
28. Answering calls pertaining to indecent exposure.				
29. Answering calls pertaining to sodomy (unnatural sex).				
30. Answering calls pertaining to voyeurism (peeping tom).				
31. Answering calls pertaining to indecency with a child.				
<u>Vice Activities</u>				
32. Apprehending juvenile drug users.				
33. Apprehending juvenile drug sellers.				
34. Apprehending adult drug users				
35. Apprehending adult drug sellers.				

36. Answering calls relating to gambling.				
37. Answering calls related to pornography.				
38. Answering calls related to alcohol violations				
<u>Miscellaneous Non-criminal Activities</u>				
39. Participating in surveillance activities.				
40. Improving community relations.				
41. Speaking to parent groups (PTA's, Etc).				
42. Presentations to faculty groups.				
43. Presentations to student groups.				
44. Administering training while on the job.				
45. Receiving training while on the job.				
46. Answering citizen complaints, non-crime related.				
47. Making contact with juvenile offenders.				
48. Making contact with adult offenders.				
49. Handling juveniles with mental problems.				
50. Handling adults with mental problems.				
51. Handling irate parents on school grounds/property.				
52. Assisting/conducting fire drills.				
53. Emergency preparedness drills/training.				
54. Assisting faculty in non-criminal disciplinary actions.				
55. School records checks of students.				
56. Security meetings with faculty.				
57. Enforce student code of conduct regulations.				
58. Hallway security/monitoring				
59. Lunchroom security/ monitoring activities.				
<u>Duties Involving Crime and Crime Related Activities</u>				
60. Writing incident reports.				
61. Investigating crime related activities.				
62. Making arrests of juvenile offenders.				
63. Making arrests of adult offenders.				
64. Crime scene activities (recovery of evidence, etc).				
65. Interviewing juvenile victims of crime.				
66. Interviewing juvenile suspects.				
67. Interviewing adult victims of crime.				
68. Interviewing of adult suspects.				
69. Take juvenile witness statements.				
70. Take juvenile suspect statements.				
71. Firing weapon in line of duty.				
72. Bomb threats calls at school.				
73. Answering burglar alarm calls.				
74. Criminal mischief calls.				
75. Criminal trespass calls.				

76. Terroristic threats.				
77. Evading arrest (foot).				
78. Evading arrest (vehicle).				
79. Investigating robbery complaints.				
80. Auto theft/UUMV calls.				
81. Unlawful carrying of weapons.				
82. Violation of protective orders.				
83. Child custody issues.				
84. Suspicious person's reports.				
85. Assault- class "C".				
86. Assault- class "A", or aggravated.				
87. Warrant arrest.				
88. Child abandonment calls.				
89. Investigate theft complaints: misdemeanor.				
90. Investigate theft complaints: felony				
91. Enforcing juvenile curfew.				
92. Enforcing juvenile truancy.				
93. Recover stolen property.				
94. Domestic disturbances involving parents/teachers/child.				
95. Public intoxication complaints.				
96. Drug usage/overdose-students on school grounds.				
97. Suspicious object (bomb, package, etc).				
98. Arrest due to administrative searches.				
99. Obscene, harassing, threatening phone calls.				
100. Riot				
101. Hostage situations.				
<u>Physical Activities</u>				
102. Scale fence or wall (5 ft. or greater).				
103. Climb through openings (e.g., windows).				
104. Foot pursuit of suspects (short distances).				
105. Drag or pull heavy objects or persons.				
106. Lift and carry heavy objects or persons.				
107. Physically restrain crowds.				
108. Run up stairs.				
109. Walk continuously for more than one-half of shift.				
110. Stand continuously for more than one-half of shift.				
111. Sit continuously for more than one-half of shift.				

APPENDIX B

Survey of ISD Police Departments Administrators in Texas

Thank you for agreeing to be a part of this vital study to determine the training culture and training needs that exists in school district police departments in Texas. Your officers will be asked at a later date to complete a job/ task analysis to determine the job functions that are required of a school district police officer. Their information, along with the information that you provide, will be used to build a model for school district police training in Texas. Please note that all responses will remain anonymous and will be pooled together before any analysis is performed.

Please circle the answer you feel best answers the question, or where indicated by “other” write in your alternate answer. Only one answer per question please.

Preliminary Demographic Questions:

What is your age?

Your Title or Rank: _____

- a) 21-30
- b) 31-39
- c) 40-50
- d) 51 or older

What is your sex?

- a) Male
- b) Female

Number of years in law enforcement:

- a) 1-5 years
- b) 6-15 years
- c) 16-20 years
- d) 21 or more years.

Number of years in present position:

- a) Less than 1
- b) 1-5 years
- c) 6-10 years
- d) 11 or more years.

Highest level of education you have attained?

- a) High School Grad or GED.
- b) Some college work, but no degree.
- c) Associates Degree
- d) Bachelors Degree
- e) Masters Degree
- f) Ph.D.

1. How important is officer in-service training in assisting you in meeting your department's goals and objectives?
 - a) Of primary importance where training issues impacts goals and objectives.
 - b) High importance where training issues impacts goals and objectives.
 - c) Medium importance where training issues impacts goals and objectives.
 - d) Low importance where training issues impacts goals and objectives.
 - e) Other_____.

2. How are training issues currently determined within your agency?
 - a) A job analysis/needs assessment is used to identify training issues.
 - b) A panel decides all training issues.
 - c) My training coordinator makes choices and then I approve them.
 - d) We follow TCLEOSE guidelines and take the required courses. Any other classes are chosen by each officer to meet our minimum mandated hours.
 - e) Other_____.

3. If you perform a job analysis to help determine training needs, are the results:
 - a) A major factor in determining our training content.
 - b) Only one factor that is considered in determining training content.
 - c) N/A, no job analysis is done at this time.

4. Has your department completed a recent needs analysis to determine training issues?
 - a) A needs analysis has been completed within the past year.
 - b) A needs analysis was completed over one year ago.
 - c) The last needs analysis was completed over two years ago.
 - d) Our department does not use needs analysis at this time for training issues.

5. After identifying critical training issues our department:
 - a) Mandates officers are trained in those identified critical areas.
 - b) Finds available classes that best meet these criteria at local training academies or training facilities.
 - c) Appoint someone from within to address the training needs and design our own program.
 - d) Other_____.

6. How would you describe the officer's attitudes regarding training issues within your department?
- a) The majority is highly motivated in training issues and often seeks out opportunities on their own.
 - b) They are moderately motivated and will take classes prescribed by the department and TCLEOSE.
 - c) Most seem to be interested in getting required classes only. They occasionally seek out classes of interest to them in addition to the required hours.
 - d) Most officers' do not like training and feel it is a waste of their time.
 - e) Other_____.
7. How much input is sought from officers in your department regarding training issues?
- a) Officer input is highly valued and is considered in all training decisions.
 - b) Officers are encouraged to give input only if they have relevant knowledge of a specific training area.
 - c) Officer's opinions are not sought because a panel or our training coordinator makes all training decisions.
 - d) Other_____.
8. How many training hours are your officers required to take per year?
- a) State minimum only.
 - b) Eight hours over the state minimum.
 - c) Forty hours a year.
 - d) Exceeds forty hours a year.
9. What percentage of you budget is allotted for officer training per year (percentage only, no dollar amounts).
- a) 5% or less.
 - b) Between 6% and 8%.
 - c) Between 8% and 10%
 - d) Other amount _____ (please give percentage).
10. Who currently conducts the majority of you training classes?
- a) Our own staff conducts all training classes.
 - b) Outside vendors conduct all of our training classes.
 - c) Our own staff does the majority of training with some outside help.
 - d) Other vendors do the majority, but we conduct some classes on our own.
 - e) Other_____.

11. Has there been any civil or criminal liabilities issues (litigation) for failure to train officers in your department?
 - a) Yes
 - b) No

12. How concerned are you that your department could be held liable for a “failure to train” situation involving an officer of your department?
 - a) Very concerned about the liability issue.
 - b) Somewhat concerned, it could become an issue.
 - c) Not concerned at all, I feel we are training our officers sufficiently to avoid litigation.
 - d) Other_____.

13. What do you feel is the best method for determining training needs within your department?
 - a) Job analysis/Needs Assessment.
 - b) An internal panel of expert police officers and supervisors.
 - c) A training coordinator would do the majority of the curriculum planning.
 - d) I make the training decisions with input from my command staff.
 - e) Other_____.

14. What constraints do you see on an administrative level that is impeding your department from maximizing its training potential?
 - a) Administrators (other school officials) who are unfamiliar with officer training needs.
 - b) Funding from administration is not adequate to meet training needs.
 - c) Lack of general support from the administration who view policing as a secondary issue to teaching the students.
 - d) Other external influences_____.

15. What constraints do you see on a departmental level that is impeding most police departments from maximizing their training programs?
 - a) Internal policies and directives of the school district.
 - b) Internal policies and directives of the school district police department.
 - c) Other external influences, such as funding.
 - d) No training unit within the department to plan training needs.
 - e) Other_____.

16. What external constraints do you see on a statewide basis that is impeding police training?
- a) Lack of direction/leadership from TCLEOSE.
 - b) Legislative mandates and requirements take up to much training time.
 - c) No statewide needs assessment specifically designed for school district policing has been completed.
 - d) Other_____.
17. In your opinion, what method(s) do you believe are used by the State Legislature when determining what mandatory classes are required of police officers?
- a) A survey is done of local and state police officers and their input helps determine the type of mandated classes.
 - b) The legislature seeks input from citizens and interest groups with little input from police officers and officials.
 - c) The legislature determines the mandated classes entirely on their own with no outside help.
 - d) The classes seem to be constructed around whatever subject(s) are “hot” at the time with little effort to determine if they will be helpful or useful to police officers.
 - e) Other_____.

NOTE:

Please feel free to write below any additional issues and constraints that you feel may be affecting school district police officer training in Texas.

A copy of the final results of this questionnaire will be provided to every school district administrator to whom a questionnaire is sent.

Thanks again for your time and interest in this study.

APPENDIX C
Unique ISD Police Officer Competencies

Type of Activity and Description of Activity

Disturbance:

- Disturbance of classroom activities.
- Disruption of school activities.
- Disruption of transportation.
- Dispersing and controlling crowds at sporting events.
- Dispersing and handling disorderly juvenile groups.

Service Activities:

- Assist in school crossing duties.
- Advising/mentoring children (on and off campus).
- Patrolling schools and district property.
- Notification of criminal activity off campus.

Traffic and Auto Activities:

- Issuing moving violations near school grounds.
- Assisting motorists on school grounds.

Miscellaneous Non-Criminal Activities:

- Speaking to parent groups (PTA's, etc).
- Presentations to faculty groups.
- Presentations to student groups.
- Making contact with juvenile offenders.
- Handling irate parents on school grounds.
- Assisting/conducting fire drills.
- Emergency Preparedness.
- Assisting faculty in non-criminal disciplinary actions.
- School records checks of students.
- Security meetings with faculty.
- Enforce student code of conduct regulations.
- Hallway security monitoring.
- Lunchroom security monitoring.

Duties Involving Crime and Crime Related Activities:

- Bomb threat calls at school.
- Domestic disturbances involving parents/teachers/children.
- Drug usage/overdose on school grounds.
- Arrest due to administrative searches.

Note: Competencies compiled by the researcher with assistance of a group of subject matter experts (SME's) from Conroe, Houston, Katy and Spring ISD Police Departments.

VITA

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Educational Background

December 2003	Ph.D., Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas Doctor of Educational Human Resource Development
August 2003	M.S., Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas Master of Science in Criminal Justice Management
August 1978	BGS, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina Bachelor of General Studies
December 1975	A.S., University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina Associate in Science in Criminal Justice

Professional Experience

1981-2003	Houston Police Department, Houston, Texas Police Officer (Patrol, Accident Investigation) Sergeant (Patrol, Jail, and Juvenile Division) 2000- Directed Management Project, Effectiveness of Curfew 2001- Statewide Organizational Analysis of ISD Police Administrators 2002- Juvenile Process and Procedures Manual for Texas Peace Officers 2003- Sex Crimes Investigations Training Manual (Houston Police Department Juvenile Sex Crimes Unit)
1978-1981	Richland County Sheriff's Department, Columbia, South Carolina Deputy Sheriff
1975-1978	S.C. Department of Mental Health, Columbia, South Carolina Patrol Division Investigator