Inclusive Component Requirements for Successful Field Training Programs

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My life goals have always included completing a Master of Science degree, yet the road to this achievement has not exactly been the direct route that I would have envisioned. After graduating from college in 1987, normal demands of life took over consuming both financial assets and the precious resource of time. With the seemingly rapid passing of 23 years since college, it was time to be true to my aspirations and return to school to pursue my goal as time, family, career, and finances were all aligned favorably. I have enjoyed this experience and the accomplishment is all the more satisfying with time.

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Abstract

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Statement of Problem

Law enforcement field training is an indispensable component in the preparation of new officers as a bridge from academy training to the realistic expectations and duties needed to effectively function in a particular agency. Two predominate field training models exist that cannot be implemented to address the specific needs of an individual department without adaption to compensate for the impacts on program requirements and resources. Simple adaptation of either training model is not feasible without the consideration of influences originating from the administration, department, community, trainers, and trainees.

Research Methods

This paper will consist of the consolidation of applicable material from a variety of secondary sources including associated textbooks, scholarly journals, and information from government resources. A review of applicable materials will be completed to exemplify the multiple influences on field training program composition and personnel. Theoretical applications to the field training program will be included from established learning theories for instruction and social learning theory for law enforcement culture. Through critical analysis, each of the influences will be incorporated into a set of best practices to be considered when operationalizing a field training program at a law enforcement department.
Summary of Results

Resulting conclusions from this work will establish that there are several essential aspects to consider when implementing or assessing a field training program at a specific agency. Using either of the predominate field training models will require careful examination of the influencing component aspects for a determination of training requirements, resource availability, community service demands, trainer abilities, and trainee needs. Without this examination and subsequent incorporation of findings, the field training program will not meet instructional objectives and will not be relevant to administration, community, or personnel. Ultimately, each individual law enforcement department must conduct an examination to determine how to adjust their field training program to best satisfy all relevant needs.
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Section I: Introduction

Field training programs have been part of the orientation process for new law enforcement personnel for the past four decades. Origins for structured training can be traced to the police department in San Jose, California. The San Jose Police Department began their training program in 1972 as the Field Training Officer Program (FTO), which within a couple years became the standard of new officer training for the entire State of California (Kaminsky, 2002). This method of training is commonly known as the San Jose Model of field training, and has proliferated nationwide to encompass all types of criminal justice agencies. A newer training model emerged in the late 1990’s to address problem-solving needs for community policing, which is known as the Police Training Officer (PTO), or the Reno Model (COPS, 2006a).

Law enforcement agency use of such training programs is commonly associated with issues rising from failing to train new officers or negligent training (Ortmeier & Meese III, 2010). These two aspects are related to the need to assist personnel in acquiring required proficiencies and a need to ensure sufficient standardized training, respectively. Excessive financial liability can befall employing entities who are found deficient in either of the above training areas. Arguably, without the guidance of a suitable training program, new law enforcement personnel are unlikely to assimilate needed abilities and performance goals. Demands on training programs will be viewed for their commonalities under the general mantle of a Field Training Program (FTP) without regard for choosing the methodology of either the FTO of PTO programs implicitly.
Significance of the Study

Law enforcement continues to evolve through community demands, legal requirements, administrative focus, and the composition of personnel currently in the profession. Maintaining a relevant FTP requires constant evaluation of program component parts of the training manual, training personnel, and program leadership (Beaver, 2006). Often, the content and procedures selected for a FTP are the result of a job task analysis (Chappell, Lanza-Kaduce, & Johnston, 2010). Whether done formally or informally, the downfall of a job task analysis is that training approaches are based on past needs and not the more applicable focus of what is needed to train new officers under current and future needs.

Choosing an appropriate FTP is not as simple as merely implementing the San Jose Model or the Reno Model. Much direction will originate from constituent demands as community policing philosophies and problem-oriented policing are embedded as standard practices. Miller and Hess (2008) relate that training is a vital part of any move towards incorporating community policing and remaining effective in necessary problem-solving abilities. Unfortunately, many agencies neglect to capitalize on using a FTP to instill abilities and attitudes essential to function within community oriented policing (Chappell, 2007). Arguably, both the FTO and PTO programs are compatible to community policing ideals with updated education for the trainers coupled with both a legitimate program focus and substantial evaluation of the new officers.

A frequently overlooked aspect of a FTP is the involved personnel which consist of administrators, trainers and trainees. Understanding generational values can give insight to common cohort preferences and values assigned to age groups within an agency. Those groups
can be defined by generation as baby boomers, born 1947 to 1964, Generation X, born 1965 to 1982, and Millennials, born 1983 to 1991 (Werth & Werth, 2011). Each of these groups has different priorities, desires, and motivators that can be directly related to the law enforcement environment (McCafferty, 2003).

Finally, understanding and incorporating learning theories is not a commonly explored aspect in the formation or evaluation of a FTP. Using the most appropriate training style to use in particular situations is crucial for FTP efficiency and effectiveness. Adult learning theory should be an integral component of instruction with an andragogical emphasis that is centered on the needs of the trainee (McCoy, 2006). This approach is particularly applicable to the training needs in a community oriented policing agency that values problem solving and building experiences through learning. Behaviorism learning theory maintains relevance in a FTP through the necessity to train new officers in technical skills, tactical applications, and driving skills (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Other aspects of law enforcement training, including required criminal law topics, patrol techniques, and acquisition of general job knowledge may be best suited for incorporation of a learning theory based on a cognitive approach.

**Purpose**

Combining all component attributes to form a best practices compilation applicable to any FTP is the purpose of this study. Understanding that law enforcement agencies have wide ranging program needs, combined with differing department resources and personnel capabilities, creates a need to apply the best known practices and considerations to any individualized FTP. While this study will examine attributes of both the San Jose Model and the Reno Model, no effort will be made to endorse either version. Thoroughly examining the
concerns common to law enforcement administrations, trainer attributes and abilities, trainee characteristics and needs, and societal expectations relate to building an effective FTP. Combining specialized learning theory to the FTP is intended to add efficiency and effectiveness.

Consideration for all of the component aspects of an FTP is necessary to arrive at a comprehensive exploration of program needs. Previous contributions from the incorporated resources focused narrowly at particular aspects of a FTP to suggest program features that would satisfy those specific requisites or goals. With regard to all component parts of a FTP, an expanded examination incorporating program demands and learning theory with personnel motivations and capabilities will result in a comprehensive contribution to the area of recruit training. With this contribution is also the acknowledgement that there is not a singularly correct way to construct a FTP, leaving individual agencies to construct their programs according to their particular needs and assets. Evaluation recommendations to assess the component aspects of a FTP will be an additional contribution of this study.

Methodology

Information to substantiate the conclusions of this study relies on the use of secondary sources incorporated from scholarly journals, government resources, and associated textbooks. Critical analysis of the incorporated resources is the method of approach in an effort to arrive at essential component understandings that relate to the fundamental needs of an effective FTP. The theoretical and practical findings from the accumulated secondary sources will serve to find solutions to the differing component requirements from community, administration, and personnel, resulting in a cumulative proposal for appropriate training practices.
Limitations

Applying the recommendations presented in this paper will be subject to several inherent limitations that exist in the environment, individual law enforcement administrations, and within the personnel populating the FTP. Environmental limitations can include an influence on the resources available for training, the direction demanded by constituents, or any mandated training requirements from state licensing or statute. Law enforcement administrations commonly have their own distinct vision and mission, which may then directly relate to the content demanded from the FTP. Finally, application of the recommendations is dependent on the competencies, aspirations, and efforts exerted by the personnel in any FTP. These individual contributions from FTP personnel are likely the most crucial link to accomplishing any program goals irrespective of which type of FTP is implemented.

This study is further limited by the availability and content of the secondary sources used for resources and the recommendations of best practices. No original research was conducted and no new data was collected as part of the paper due to the time constraints for the project. The secondary data and incorporated theory used for the composition and conclusions of this study are then dependent on the accuracy of the primary material.
Section II: Literature Review

Introduction

The literature review section will be separated into five sections defining the differing aspects of a field training program (FTP). First, field training history will be examined with additional emphasis on identifying issues with liability related to the training, supervision and retention of new officers. Second, law enforcement officer qualifications, hiring, and academy training will be reviewed. Next, a review of the San Jose Model of field training will be studied for core principles and composition. Fourth, the Reno Model of field training will be considered for program emphasis and structure. The final section will review literature on the generational aspects related to law enforcement personnel.

Field Training History and Liability Issues

The origin for written recommendations regarding the use of a FTP as part of a screening process can be traced to a report in 1967 by the President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Entitled the *Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*, the report details the need for instruction on the use of discretion, community issues, and the function of law enforcement within the criminal justice system. To accomplish the desired instruction objectives, the report recommends the use of a diligently supervised field training program. This would consist of a formalized means of training in a real working environment combined with detailed observations and evaluations of new officers who would remain in a probationary status throughout the training. To prevent unfit officers from continuing in the workplace, the report urges using the evaluations as grounds for dismissal when the new officers demonstrate continual unsatisfactory performance.
Law enforcement agency use of a FTP as a means of training new officers may come from a variety of external pressures and internal preferences. External pressures commonly come from issues related to citizen complaints and civil lawsuits on the actions of law enforcement personnel. Swanson, Territo, and Taylor (2005) identify negligent supervision and negligent training as the top two categories of civil liability for law enforcement, adding negligent hiring and negligent retention as additional areas of liability concern. A survey that exemplifies these concerns found that over 94 percent of responding police departments implemented a FTP to address the need of identifying problems with new personnel through structured training and supervision (McCampbell, 1987).

Liability concerns regarding the training of police personnel are commonly related to the skill areas of the profession (Chappell, Lanza-Kaduce, & Johnston, 2011). Specifically, the high liability areas are associated with training in the use of firearms, emergency vehicle operation proficiencies, physical defense skills, and first responder competences. Law enforcement agency concerns with liability can come from lawsuits originated by the public or by the trainees. Standardization of skill training is a common response to defend against liability by measuring all trainees to the same specifications which are commonly set by state government certification or licensing requirements.

Negligent training can be identified and defined through the United States Supreme Court decision in City of Canton, Ohio v. Harris, (1989). Although this case does not specifically involve a FTP, the concepts from the case directly relate to the causes of civil liability for a police department. The 42 U.S.C § 1983 claim in this case is tied to the concept of deliberate indifference where training deficiencies are intentional by the employer and those training deficiencies would directly and inevitably lead to a violation of Constitutional rights by law
enforcement personnel. While not every action by law enforcement which results in injury to citizens can automatically result in claims of inadequate training, conscious choices by agencies to neglect reasonable training can expose employers to claims of deliberate indifference.

Claims of negligent supervision can be directly related to a FTP through the findings and decision from *Fadhl v. City and County of San Francisco* (1983) decided by the United States Court of Appeals, Ninth Circuit. Employment discrimination is the claim in this case where the former employee, Nancy Fadhl, alleged she was wrongfully terminated from the San Francisco Police Department for variations in the standard evaluation process during training in the FTO program. The court found evidence that Ms. Fadhl’s performance evaluations frequently did not follow grading standards and her evaluations were consistently lower than male trainees who performed comparably or inferior. Further evidence was found in the case which led the court to believe that there was a prevalent bias among the trainers against female officers. Supervision of employees is necessary then to prevent the use of discriminatory conduct and ensure the standardization of training and performance objectives.

Negligent hiring and negligent retention are two areas that can be directly suited for attention from a diligent FTP. Whisenand (2009) states that the FTP phase should be used as a probationary period for new officers who are subject to formalized training to ensure every possible effort has been made to eliminate potential problem personnel as an extension of the screening process. Gaines and Kappeler (2008) add that the FTP is an ideal platform to improve the overall employment assessment process and initiate a valid evaluation procedure to be used for the documentation of employee performance. Properly administered, a FTP should be able to increase the competency of agency personnel, while ensuring the professionalism and adherence to ethical standards demanded in the application of law enforcement duties.
Using a FTP as part of the hiring and retention process will then necessitate viewing the training and evaluation process as a test, requiring the application of program mandated competencies as an appraisal system subject to validity verifications (Kaminsky, 2002). Adhering to guidelines set by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is essential to appraising the requirements of any FTP. Composition of FTP required competencies and behaviors will require an evaluation of realistic law enforcement duties to arrive at the validation (Swanson et al., 2005). To demonstrate an acceptable measure of validation, a law enforcement agency must ensure that the tests or competencies trainees are required to demonstrate are highly related to actual job functions.

**Law Enforcement Officer Qualifications, Selection, and Academy Training**

Entry level officer educational requirements exist in the almost all of the law enforcement agencies nationwide. Reaves (2010) relates that 98% of the law enforcement departments have some type of minimum educational requirements to be considered for hiring, although the level of education varies by the size of the population that the agencies serve. Generally, departments that serve larger populations require more education for their entry level positions with a noticeable increase in required educational levels beyond a high school diploma for agencies serving populations above 25,000. Overall, 6% of the surveyed departments required some college, 9% required a two year college degree, and only 1% required a four year college degree. Hickman and Reaves (2006) found these overall numbers almost identical in their 2003 survey of law enforcement departments.

Officer selection processes often include written examinations, personality inventories or psychological exams, physical fitness tests, and personal interviews. Written tests are part of the
hiring selection process in over 80% of all surveyed law enforcement departments (Reaves, 2010). The use of a written test to select prospective personnel is intended to be an objective evaluation of law enforcement aptitude measurable to each individual candidate (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). Written tests are usually conducted at the beginning of the hiring screening process as a way to economically reduce the total number of applicants to a manageable pool who possess the necessary proficiencies identified for the position.

Reaves (2010) states that 66% of all surveyed departments used some type of personality inventory test to screen prospective personnel. This number has increased significantly from the 46% of all requiring departments found in the 2003 survey. Gaines and Kappeler (2008) relate that when psychological screening is considered either in addition to a personality inventory or as a separate process, the total amount of departments that require some combination of the processes increases to 90%. Further, departments could become negligently liable for not performing some type of psychological evaluations on their personnel in the event that those individuals harm citizens and are found to be psychologically unfit.

Physical agility tests were fairly common as part of the selection process, with 86% of the responding departments using some form of this assessment (Reaves, 2010). A series of fairly recent court cases has specified that any valid physical testing needs to be directly related to actual job functions (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). Physical testing has evolved from previous measurements of minimum height and maximum weight requirements, to physical strength and endurance testing, to more modern efforts to reflect minimum standards achievable by healthy male or female applicants.
Schmalleger (2009) relates that the most frequently used hiring screening process is the personal interview. These interviews are considered a subjective evaluation as interviewers score responses to preset questions based on an assessment of adherence to prearranged evaluation criteria (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). Interviewers commonly include grading on categories of communication skills, application of individual judgment, and the poise of the candidate to arrive at the composite score. The personal interview is usually the last component of the screening process and serves to set the final hiring order of candidates who have passed all of the previous processes.

Academy training can be conducted by area or regional colleges, through state run facilities, or through the department administered schools common in larger law enforcement agencies (Reaves, 2009). Overall, approximately 49,000 new recruits were trained in a law enforcement academy during 2005, which represents a passing rate of 86% of the candidates who began the training. Individual reasons for failing to pass academy requirements were not specified. The average total amount of training hours from the different academy types was 761 hours, with county, municipal, and state employers requiring the highest required totals.

Preconceived notions and anticipatory socialization may affect the passing rates and retention of new recruits. Gaines and Kappeler, (2008) relate that preconceived notions are commonly culled from sources that are made up of fictional accounts of law enforcement, such as movies and television programs, or from the representation of policing in the news media. Anticipatory socialization occurs as recruits attempt to assimilate into their new roles as law enforcement officers, and may include adopting belief structures, labeling of groups or individuals, and assuming communication styles perceived necessary to build job relationships.
(Haarr, 2005). Misunderstandings of these functions or an unwillingness to proceed with unanticipated socialization may cause new recruits to withdraw from the profession.

Curriculums for academy training generally include instruction in the areas of criminal law, firearms and defensive tactics, patrol proficiencies, investigative techniques, and interpersonal communications (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). The authors note that amount of training time tends to favor the physical aspects of the profession by exemplifying training in the State of California which includes 72 hours of weapons training, 60 hours of defense tactics, and 38 hours of combined vehicle skills, while allotting only 8 hours to ethics/professionalism and 6 hours to victimology/crisis intervention. Instructors are required to be certified to teach academy level topics in over 96% of all academies, with the most common form of certifications originating from state licensing entities.

Field training was a required component of the basic training process in an average of 33% of all law enforcement departments that conducted their own academy training in a 2006 Bureau of Justice Statistics survey (Reaves, 2009). When examined by the type of agency, the three types of departments that most frequently required a field training program were county agencies at 79%, municipal departments at 64%, and state police departments at 57%. The average amount of field training hours required by the responding departments was 453 hours, with municipal departments averaging the most required hours with 575.

When field training programs were conducted by a hiring department separate from the academy, the average field training hours were directly related to the size of the population served by the agency. Reaves (2010) found that the surveyed departments serving populations beginning at 50,000 to populations over 1,000,000 consistently had at least 600 hours in their
field training programs. The lowest category in the survey was communities that serve populations less than 2500 which were found to average only 152 hours of field training.

Field training programs vary considerably throughout the nation, with departments commonly incorporating variations of programs to meet their particular organization and purposes (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). Most agencies use some form of the San Jose Model for their FTP needs due in part to the ease that the structure of this program fits in with traditional law enforcement hierarchy design (Chappell, 2007). The San Jose Model is specifically constructed with the ability to be modified, but may inadvertently support the methods of traditional law enforcement due to the evaluation formality of the program.

Community policing training for new recruits in terms of hours spent in training is directly related to the size of the population served by the department. Reaves (2010) does not differentiate between community policing training in the basic recruit academy or training incorporated into a FTP, but finds that the departments that serve the largest populations are the most likely to have this topic in the curriculum. Over 85% of agencies that serve populations over 250,000 include at least 8 hours of community policing training for new recruits. The percentage of departments that include the same amount of training in community policing declines with the size of the population served, with only 25% of the surveyed departments that serve populations of 2500 or less including the training.

**Field Training Model: San Jose**

A standardized training approach is the foundation of the San Jose Model of field training that bridges the gap from law enforcement academy training to realistic job expectations and is operationalized to use documented work performance as an extension of the hiring selection
process (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). This model is purposely designed to exact control throughout the entire program by means of using a detailed process intended to standardize training, equalize trainee opportunities, and minimize unintended outcomes (McCampbell, 1987). Preparing new personnel to function as police officers in their actual work assignments by formalizing training in applicable laws, departmental policies and procedures, and ensuring the ability to perform assigned duties is the definitive objective of this program.

Structurally, the San Jose Model begins with a training program designed to last fourteen weeks and be divided over four steps (Kaminsky, 2002). These four steps consist of a first, second, and third step that last four weeks each and a fourth step that lasts two weeks. The first three steps should include both assignments to a different trainer and rotations to different shifts for each step. Assignment to different trainers facilitates a breadth of evaluations from a variety of experienced trainers while minimalizing possibilities for partiality and interpersonal issues (McCampbell, 1987). If the employing agency is large and diverse, it is also recommended to assign the trainee to differing geographical areas for exposure to various demographical and socioeconomic conditions (Kaminsky, 2002). For the fourth step, the trainee would preferably be assigned back to their trainer from the first step to measure cumulative progress. During the fourth step the trainee is evaluated on their performance as a solo officer, with the trainer acting in only a monitoring capacity while evaluating performance.

At the end of each training day of all four steps the assigned trainer is required to complete a daily observation report (DOR) to document the performance of the trainee (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). Typically, the DOR will contain written documentation of all of the training activities for a trainee on a specific day that relate to performance objectives, knowledge learned, required corrections, and any remedial actions taken by the trainer to improve the trainee
(Kaminsky, 2002). Each DOR has a unique sequential number, provides a numerical score overview in the performance categories, includes the total training time for the day in minutes, and would incorporate documentation of any remediation for unsatisfactory performance. Narratives are also included to denote the activities performed by the trainee during the span of the particular DOR. The DOR should be completed and reviewed with the trainee at the end of each training day.

To promote consistency in the documentation, the written observations on the DOR should be anchored in written standard evaluation guidelines (SEG) that describe desired performance objectives (Kaminsky, 2002). A typical FTP may include numerous SEG categories for evaluation, with the San Jose Model being made up of 29 separate SEG categories. Construction of the content of each SEG may originate from either a departmental survey of needed behavioral attributes and skills or from a job task analysis. Observations documented in the DOR need to be objective in the focus on trainee performance directly tied to the content of the appropriate SEG. Insistence on using the SEG format to evaluate trainees also promotes consistency by reducing the discretion and latitude that may vary between trainers in the application of training criteria (McCampbell, 1987).

The DOR contains a numerical rating on each of the designated SEG categories. In the San Jose Model, the numerical rating is based on a 7-point scale directly tied to the performance descriptions located in the associated SEG (Kaminsky, 2002). This type of scale, rating performance from an unacceptable level of 1 to an outstanding level of seven, provides immediate feedback into the progress and training needs of the particular trainee. Using a graded scale prevents many of the inaccuracies found in systems that grade on a pass/fail approach which include a tendency to focus on passing for marginal performance and a lack of ability to
track performance progress. Using numerical scales is intended to decrease the amount of time necessary to review and comprehend training records to make necessary training adjustments.

At the end of each week, a supervisor is required to complete an evaluation report to document the progress and performance of the previous week (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). The supervisor’s weekly report (SWR) is closely related to the material on the DOR, follows the standardized language contained in each SEG, and includes supervisory narratives summarizing the satisfactory and unsatisfactory performances for the previous week (Kaminsky, 2002). Presentation of the SWR should be done during a meeting between the assigned supervisor, the trainer, and the trainee. These reports, combined with all contributed DOR materials, will determine whether the trainee progresses to solo patrol status.

Supervisors continue to evaluate the officers regularly as they work in a solo capacity after step four until the end of the tenth month of employment, at which time a review board will convene to review all previous documentation and make a recommendation on the officer’s employment status. If training remediation is recommended by the review board, the officer may be granted up to eight more weeks of corrective instruction. At the end of week 52 in the training program, a second review board will meet to make a final determination regarding the officer’s employment status.

The San Jose Model uses a training approach closely tied to the concept of behaviorism. Use of this approach emphasizes observable behaviors, includes specifically detailed objectives, and relies on positive reinforcement for successful performance (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Progress in this approach can be objectively measured and desired behaviors can be precisely defined (Birzer, 2004). When trainers observe performance behaviors by the trainees, instruction
is accomplished by responding to the behavior appropriately, consistently, and immediately (Kaminsky, 2002). Reinforcement for appropriate behavior should then be positive to encourage repetition of the behavior, while undesired behavior should be met with critical evaluations or corrective measures to discourage continued use of the behavior.

Documentation is emphasized throughout the San Jose Model for feedback to trainees and supervisory control (McCampbell, 1987). The documentation also must be completed with a prescribed frequency to ensure relevancy to the trainee and the ability to adapt to training needs by the trainer and supervisor. All written materials contained in the training documents need to be plainly written and follow all documentation guidelines (Beaver, 2006). Inclusion of direct quotes, factual accounts, and nonjudgmental descriptions are the focus of written narratives in the interest of being clear, concise, correct, and complete (Kaminsky, 2002).

Documentation also promotes accountability for supervisors and trainers to ensure that FTP performance objectives are being instructed and completed with consistency according to program standards (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). This becomes increasingly important in the emphasis of using a FTP as a screening process to assess the performance of new officers. In cases where it is necessary to dismiss trainees who are not performing to standards, documentation is then a key aspect in the screening process (McCampbell, 1987). Thorough documentation is then a means to reduce claims of negligent hiring, negligent retention, and wrongful termination.

Evaluation in the San Jose Model is intended to be standardized so each individual trainee has the same impartial expectations and receives equal opportunities to realize program objectives (McCampbell, 1987). The purpose of the extensive evaluation required in this model
is to identify and respond to individual trainee needs quickly and effectively. Evaluation must also be timely to be of use to personnel in the FTP. Completion of daily evaluations by the trainers is necessary to capture relevant details that can become more generalized by waiting additional days or weeks to complete (Kaminsky, 2002). Daily reviews of the evaluations with the trainees to provide immediate feedback are necessary to be most relevant as a learning tool. Evaluations also assist the assigned supervisory personnel in assessing trainee progress, possible performance issues with the trainers, and program effectiveness.

Finding competent personnel to fill the role of trainer in a FTP is essential for the successful delivery of program objectives. Agencies must select their FTP trainers carefully to ensure that only the most qualified personnel fill these positions to convey the appropriate values and attitudes desired by the department (Swanson et al., 2005). Trainer selection on the singular basis of seniority should be avoided and there should be a conscious effort to strive for diversity within the FTP ranks.

Effective selection of FTP trainers can be accomplished through a uniform procedure that may include standardized applications combined with a written test and an oral interview (Beaver, 2006). Equating the selection of FTP trainers to a promotional process emphasizes the importance of the position, and when properly administered, should result in the selection of the most suitable applicants. Additionally, uniform trainer selection procedures should result in an impartial process that encourages applications from the total pool of experienced officers which should translate to a diverse collection of trainers.

A concentrated effort should be made to improve the ethical foundation of personnel who are entrusted to be trainers. The position of trainer in a FTP carries an inherent power over
trainees in the shaping of law enforcement beliefs, outlooks, standards, and ethical aptitudes (Ortmeier & Meese III, 2010). Associatively, the greatest tie between unethical behavior, namely dishonesty, and behaviors displayed by new recruits comes when the undesirable behaviors are exemplified by personnel in power or management positions (Pollack, 2010). Training in ethical applications within realistic situations is necessary to prepare individuals in power positions to be able to manage daily challenges while conveying a teachable means to cope with difficult choices. The FTP trainer is then an important part of the introduction to the law enforcement subculture where they commonly work as both a partner and a person in position of power in their ability to influence which trainees succeed or fail.

In the San Jose Model, the field training officer is a vital part of the training process to both teach and evaluate new officers. After an officer is selected to be a trainer, detailed instruction is necessary to train the officer in evaluation techniques, documentation proficiencies, learning methods, FTP policy and procedure, and specialized program training skills (Kaminsky, 2002). Training in these areas is needed to enable the trainers to not only impart needed job knowledge, but to be able to work independently with new officers in a way that provides meaningful individualized training to meet all departmental program standards. The recommended amount of time for the trainer instructional program is 40 hours that concentrates on combining the above knowledge with competencies emphasizing motivational skills and leadership aptitudes (McC Campaign, 1987).

**Reno Model**

A law enforcement training program that combines problem-based learning with an adult education approach was created through a collective effort of the Community Oriented Policing
Service (COPS), the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF), and the Reno, Nevada, Police Department (Schmalleger, 2009). This method is known as the Police Training Officer (PTO) program or the Reno Model which focuses on community policing objectives in addition to building the problem solving capabilities of the trainees (Chappell, 2007). Learning of desired law enforcement skills in this model is measured on the ability of the trainee to reproduce solutions to tasks through problem solving techniques (Hundersmarck, 2009).

Original concerns that motivated the creation of the PTO program were the lack of any meaningful changes in field training procedures over the past few decades and persistent concerns with training liability (COPSa, 2006). While six agencies became pilot sites for the implementation of the PTO program, the Reno Police Department was the first to test the new program, prompting the use of the Reno Model name for the program. Reconceiving the new officer training process under the Reno Model format began with using a problem-based learning (PBL) method in which trainees solve realistic problems through an evaluated action plan process (COPSc, 2006). This process focuses on the idea that problems are to be solved by thinking systemically while collaborating with both coworkers and the community through communication and resource development (COPSa, 2006).

Introducing community policing philosophies and the building of skills to solve problems is the specific focus of the Reno Model (Chappell, 2007). Indoctrination of the philosophies and skills needed to successfully function within the framework of community oriented policing is at the most critical period during the early stages of a career for law enforcement personnel. As community policing is commonly taught during the law enforcement academy, it would follow that continued training in the topic would be most effective during the FTP period that immediately follows academy training. Further, evaluations must be anchored around
community policing ideals and problem solving skills to be perceived as important to both the trainers and the trainees.

Structurally, the Reno Model is concerned with two training areas that consist of substantive topics and core competencies (COPSb, 2006). Documenting what a trainee has learned, what is left to be learned, and how the trainee will be evaluated is accomplished through the use of a learning matrix form. The learning matrix form contains both the substantive topics and the core competencies that are divided into learning cells to denote the acquisition of mandatory skills, understanding of procedures, acceptance of responsibility, and accomplishment of desired learning outcomes. A journal is kept by both the trainee and trainer throughout the program to document the learning of competences and performance outcomes. Learning is facilitated by dividing the training progression into four phases that include both a mid-term after the first two phases and final examination at the end of all four phases to determine trainee progression to solo patrol or the need for remediation.

Focusing on the process of solving problems is the fundamental basis of learning in the Reno Model where critical thinking is developed enabling trainees to solve problems systemically through exploration and examination (COPSd, 2006). Using PBL, the trainer guides a trainee through a realistic problem called a Problem-Based Learning Exercise (PBLE) in each of the first three phases of training designed to incorporate accumulated knowledge with a need to obtain additional information from a variety of sources including resources from the community. With the combination of known and acquired information that could include laws, community resources, suspect patterns, or investigative information, the trainee creates an action plan to address the problem. The action plan is then evaluated by the trainee under the guidance
of the trainer to become part of a personal portfolio of knowledge to be used in the resolution of upcoming situations.

Weekly Coaching and Training Reports (CTR) are also used to develop trainee critical thinking skills. During the CTR, one incident from the prior training week is selected by the trainer and trainee that would be relevant to the substantive topic appropriate for the particular phase of training (COPSb, 2006). The learning matrix is used to identify the substantive topic and core competency sections applicable to the report. Using information recorded in the journal entries of the trainer and trainee, the trainee is tasked with writing out a summary of the incident, using components of the core competencies, to evaluate what was learned or applied during the incident in addition to what needs to be learned to address future situations (COPSd, 2006). Finally, both the trainer and trainee complete a weekly CTR report form that identifies progress or needs in each of the core competency areas.

Over the course of all four training phases, the trainee is assigned a project called the Neighborhood Portfolio Exercise (NPE) to understand all key areas of the trainee’s assigned community and collaborations as they relate to the problem solving process (COPSc, 2006). Building an awareness of community importance and the ability to assemble community assets is the goal of the NPE (Miller & Hess, 2008). The trainee is responsible for identifying available community assets that could include citizens, businesses, neighborhood groups, and other government resources for collaboration in problem solving efforts (COPSd, 2006). Additionally, the NPE will include an assessment of specific community characteristics relating to quality of life issues, crime problems and trends, geographical and demographical descriptors, and a summary of past efforts to solve problems in the specific community.
Examinations based on outcomes from the learning matrix are conducted twice during the training phases to determine whether trainees will progress, graduate, require remediation, or be designated for other resolutions including dismissal (COPSb, 2006). Each examination period lasts one week and is conducted under the oversight of an independent Police Training Evaluator (PTE) separate from the previously assigned trainers. Successful completion of the examination will require the trainee to apply critical thinking to the 15 core competencies as they relate to specific situations, strategies, or conflict resolution. In each of the core competencies, the trainee is required to self-evaluate the effectiveness of their use of resources or resolutions specific to the needs of the competency requirements.

Evaluations of new officers in the Reno Model are not done daily on a numerical scale, but rather as a combination of the end of week CTR, the end of phase PBLE, the end of training NPE, and the cumulative scores of the mid-term and final examinations (COPSa, 2006). Using the evaluation process to eliminate unsatisfactory officers is not a main program goal, but sufficient documentation is completed to facilitate the termination process when necessary. Training successes are the focus of all of the evaluation types where coaching from the trainers and a learning concept known as falling forward are emphasized to help the trainee advance through the program. Falling forward in this context is used as a means of learning from mistakes made during training, while also gaining an understanding of what actions will not work in realistic settings (COPSb, 2006).

**Generational Aspects of Law Enforcement**

Understanding the generational attributes of personnel who occupy the workplace can assist with comprehending their general characteristics and basic sets of expectations (Werth &
Werth, 2011). Baby boomers (1947 – 1964), Generation X (1965 – 1982), and Millennials (1983 – 1991) all likely exist in the typical law enforcement organizational workforce. A limited amount of weight should be attached to the generational attributes to avoid overly broad stereotyping, but understanding likely tendencies can assist with planning and training. These tendencies are shaped by historical mutual reference occurrences that define the particular generation (McCafferty, 2003). This understanding may also assist in preventing conflict between the generational groups as they bring differing expectations and biases into the workplace (Jensen III & Graves, 2013).

Baby boomers in the field of law enforcement are generally comfortable with the militaristic structure characteristics of traditional police agency configurations (McCafferty, 2003). Authority in organizations occupied by this generation was hierarchal in structure and relied on disciple to maintain order. Attitudes on structure and community relations were strongly influenced by the events of their formative years, in particular the Vietnam War. This generation is frequently labeled as uncompromising and prone to overachieving issues, including spending excessive time at work (Werth & Werth, 2011).

Influences on Generation X in law enforcement include the dramatic growth of violent acts in society, a shift in police focus to the war on drugs, nuclear family degenerations, community deterioration, and instantaneous changes in technology (Fischer, 2002). Popular media has exposed this generation to an exceptional amount of violence and sex on television and in the movies, while also exposing numerous acts of corruption by their political and religious leaders through the news media (McCafferty, 2003). As a group, the author notes that Generation X is highly concerned with their economic future, including retirement possibilities, and half of their marriages end in divorce.
Millennials have been socialized through the educational system and organized activities to value collaboration, and have high levels of self-esteem from the reinforcement received for their participation (Massoni, 2009). Computer technology has always been a part of the lives of this generation, making them more comfortable using electronic means of education through instantly locating virtually any information than by reading books or completing writing assignments (Black, 2010). This reliance on technology has made the Millennials dependent on being constantly connected to friends and family by means of cell phones, the internet, text messages, and online social media sites.

Millennials value the likelihood that their jobs will be fun and also the ability to direct their career opportunities according to their preferences (McCafferty, 2003). On a troubling note, a survey quoted by the author found that the majority of this generation admitted to cheating on tests, and had no issues lying to their parents and teachers, or lying to get a job. Millennials were generally enveloped with constant attention and received continual feedback from their parents, teachers, and coaches, which relates directly to their expectations that their superiors will be constantly accessible and ready to listen (Jensen III & Graves, 2013). Further, Millennials desire to give and receive constant feedback from everyone they encounter in the organization without regard to the established hierarchy structure.

In the workplace, baby boomers now fill most of the top level management positions in law enforcement organizations (McCafferty, 2003). Their tendencies lean towards the traditional militaristic structures of policing with clear lines of authority. Generation X personnel are beginning to join upper management, are willing to operate in the traditional managerial structures, and desire opportunities to further themselves for upward mobility. Millennials may feel a type of entitlement, causing this generation to feel they are deserving of earning
promotions immediately in their careers and placing less significance on to the work previous generations underwent to achieve their positions in the organization (Jensen III & Graves, 2013).

Training, particularly training in a FTP, will need to adjust to meet the needs of the millennial generation (Massoni, 2009). In particular, Millennials generally have difficulties with the idea of working within a rigorously structured program that would be characteristic of the demands of a FTP. Information processing has been found to be different in the millennial generation due to the influence of digital media present during their education (Black, 2010). The availability of endless, instantaneous information may be causative of shorter attention spans and a movement away from a reliance on memorization. Traditional methods of training that rely on incremental learning through observing and repeating behaviors may then be ineffective due to a lack of patience, renouncing of memorization, and aversion to conventional testing methods.

Trainers, who likely are comprised of members of Generation X, bring their own set of needs and expectations to a FTP. Generation X encountered more success in a FTP while they were being trained when they received timely feedback, constructive critiques of both positive and negative content, and concentrated on the importance on innovative, individual achievement (Fischer, 2002). Trainers from Generation X personnel will need to recognize the need of the millennial generation to collaborate and share information, incorporate constant feedback, mediate expectations of immediate gratification and entitlement, and restrict distractions from digital sources, such as text messaging (Black, 2010).

Summary

Clearly, the construction and operation of a FTP relies on a multitude of influences, requirements, and limitations as complex and differing as the field of law enforcement and the
personnel who inhabit the profession. While the examinations of the San Jose Model and Reno Model in their intended states were relatively comprehensive, it is likely that either model would be modified to fit specific circumstances when adopted by a particular agency. Generational characteristics were examined in terms of their common attributes, as a comprehension of the tendencies of agency personnel is necessary to understand changes in the workforce.
Section III. Theoretical Considerations

Understanding the learning processes present within a FTP and the environment where the learning takes place will necessitate the examination of applicable learning theories and the consideration of a theory to explain the complexion of law enforcement organizations. Applicable learning theories normally associated with law enforcement training include behaviorism, cognitivism, and andragogy. Social learning theory is uniquely adaptable to the law enforcement environment for the correlation with the communal associations that are formed between the personnel in the profession and how those associations translate to performance.

Examination of Learning Theories

Behaviorism.

Behaviorism is a study of learning that is reliant on recording observable and measurable occurrences (Schunk, 2008). John B. Watson is commonly regarded as the founder of this learning theory, and he believed psychological studies of this type needed to be grounded in the exacting specifications of physical science. Namely, the main tenant of this theory is that any learning specifications have to be based on reliable observations that are accurately reported. Building the foundation of this theory on the earlier works of Ivan Pavlov on classical conditioning, Watson adds that learning should be understood by focusing on the scientifically compliant measurement of observable behaviors.

Environmental influences, consisting of stimuli and reinforcement, are the primary focus of the behaviorism theory of learning. Stimuli in this sense would be the required knowledge and expected behaviors that are organized and presented in learning situations. Reinforcement of behaviors can be positive for desired behavior, or negative, for undesired behavior, resulting in
the direct influence of future behavioral outcomes. Objectives are clearly set, enabling reinforcement to be directed at the completion of behaviors that are both precisely identified and clearly observable (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001).

Behaviorism applications are highly influenced by the works originated by B.F. Skinner on operant conditioning as it applies to behavioral theory (Schunk, 2008). Conditioning in this context refers to two types of reinforcing stimuli that are either unconditional in the case of a predictable reinforcement, or reinforcements that are consequential as a response to behavior from the environment. The latter is considered a leaning function from performing in an actual working environment. Consequential reinforcements in operant conditioning cannot be prearranged and are specific to the particular times and circumstances of the environment. Positive reinforcements increase the probability that the behavior will be repeated, negative reinforcements increase the probability that the behavior will be avoided, and behavior that is not reinforced at all will tend to decline to extinction.

Operant conditioning uses a sequential method of shaping to enable behavioral changes. Shaping begins with the identification of what a particular individual can perform at the beginning of training, followed by an identification of the level that the individual should perform at the end of training. Next, the learning environment is examined to recognize the reinforcing opportunities that will be present during the training process. Behavior changes are then divided into smaller steps that are designed to be accomplished in sequential order towards the performance goal desired at the end of training. Corrective feedback is given by reinforcement to shape the behavior change during the move from the beginning of the process to the completion of the process.
Generalization is one possible behavioral response from the learner which occurs in situations that the learner has not previously encountered. In these new situations, the learner is prone to perform components of previously learned behaviors in order to arrive at an expected reinforcement outcome. Chaining is another possible behavioral response that would be a desired result of operant conditioning. Combining previously learned skills, or altering the applications of learned variables to upcoming events creates a chaining of learned behaviors to adapt to changes in the environment with the anticipation of receiving a desired reinforcement.

**Application of Behaviorism to Field Training**

Behaviorism is relatable to a FTP through the definitions of observable behaviors and measurable outcomes. Defining observable behaviors begins with the instruction or demonstration of performance objectives that are expected to be repeated by the trainee (Birzer, 2004). This instruction will have a measurable outcome that is made known to the trainee, who will be accountable for performing a behavior to the specifications dictated as necessary to achieve the desired outcome. Using observable behaviors to build desired skill sets enables trainers to measure the progress of a trainee in relation to accomplishing a learning outcome (Birzer, 2003). Functionally, behaviorism uses a controlled stimulus that is directed at a trainee, who will react to the stimulus in a controlled environment to perform a task to a measurable, prescribed outcome.

Reinforced responses are prevalent throughout law enforcement training by the use of behaviorism as a learning method (Birzer, 2003). Technical aspects of skill training, such as weapons instruction, defense tactics, and instruction in the area of emergency vehicle operation and control, are particularly suited to objectively observable numerical performance.
reinforcement. These skill areas predicate effectively to grading that commonly include preset proficiency levels to determine whether a trainee receives positive reinforcement by passing performance objectives or negative reinforcement by failing the performance objectives. The thoughts, emotions, or problem solving processes of the individual trainee are not part of an observable skill set and are therefore not included as relevant to the successful demonstration of desired performance.

Cognitivism

Cognitive learning theory is not attributable to any one individual person, but rather an amalgamation of different viewpoints that attempt to understand how humans acquire and process knowledge (Schunk, 2008). This combination of perspectives includes various aspects of perception, reception obstacles, information storage, and memory retrieval. The main tenants of this theory consider the human mind as a natural collator of knowledge in which a succession of cerebral processes acquire, store and retrieve information.

Within the general definition of cognitivism are a variety of diverse beliefs that attempt to account for how information is manipulated during learning. These differing perspectives are combined in an attempt to understand how individual learners process information from the acquisition stage, to the commitment to memory, to the eventual retrieval of the information in an orderly and meaningful relevance. This theory contrasts with behaviorism by postulating that individuals actively strive to acquire information which they will assimilate with previously obtained information for relevancy, as opposed to the reliance on external environments to provide meaningful stimuli the for reinforcement of learning objectives.
Cognitivism theories are focused on the contributions of teachers to enable learning through inputs that can include explanations or presentations. Environmental concerns in this theory consist of the lesson plans organized by teachers to address the personal attributes of those being taught to facilitate learning. Commonly, the method of teaching in cognitivism is the lecture approach where the information flows in a linear motion from the teacher to the learner (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Information is communicated according to a prescribed plan that is both logical and methodical to help the learners obtain knowledge in an incremental approach intended to build towards a desired competency.

The ability to focus attention is a critical aspect of acquiring information and knowledge (Schunk, 2008). In the lecture format, learners must concentrate on the teacher’s voice and words while ignoring other environmental distractions to receive the full content of the lesson. Further, that content must be accepted by the learner in the order it is presented to form the sequential steps that make up the cumulative desired knowledge of the particular lesson plan. Individual ability to focus attention varies from learner to learner based on factors such as age, intellect, and interest in the material. Other attention skills are needed for acquiring information by reading printed material that include a combination of the ability to read at higher levels in addition to the ability to comprehend and process the information with information obtained from other sources.

Perception is an important aspect of the ability to acquire information and knowledge within cognitivism. Individual attributes, experiences, and preconceived partialities are all part of the process of applying meaning to information. Expectations are another influence that will affect the reception of information in both anticipated sequential and contextual understandings. Teachers, as the distributors of information must then account for differences in individual
perceptions and expectations to facilitate the transfer of knowledge in a way that will be meaningful.

**Application of Cognitivism to Law Enforcement and Field Training**

Law enforcement topics that are taught through a cognitive method ordinarily do not require input from the learner and are a relatively quick way to build a foundation for the underlying principles of the profession (Birzer, 2004). Topics suited for this method commonly include lecture based learning in the areas criminal law, workplace discrimination and harassment, procedural training, investigative search and seizure protocols, and basic report completion (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Lectures on these topics can also be supplemented through the use of classroom tutorials, educational videos, specialized guest speakers, and assigned course materials.

Cognitive learning methods are common in law enforcement academy training. Gainers and Kappeler (2008) state conventional recruit level topics include criminal justice system procedures, introduction to criminal law, and law enforcement administration with the lecture approach being the predominate method of instruction in the academy setting. The lecture approach is prevalent due to issues related to the amount of available time for training (McCoy, 2006). Restrictions in the amount of time devoted for instructional topics commonly results in a necessity to use the more expedient traditional, teacher centered educational techniques.

Legal requirements may direct law enforcement academy training towards the structured delivery of the lecture approach (Hundersmarck, 2009). This type of direction is based on the belief that accountability and legal protections will be met by providing expert instruction intended to deliver standardized subject matter in a linear fashion with the assumption of
complete incorporation by recruit personnel. Traditional methods of instruction in law enforcement academies may also be necessary to conform to training curriculums which are established by state standards (Birzer, 2003).

Learning in a FTP can rely on a cognitive approach to accomplishing training objectives in certain types of law enforcement agencies. Chappell (2007) conveys that traditional hierarchal departments that rely on conventional policing practices and vertical communications may impose militaristic training techniques in the application of their FTP. While not the commonly envisioned classroom lecture approach, training in these situations still flows from the trainer to the trainee. The trainee is expected to learn technical and procedural content from the trainee in the same linear fashion found in the lecture approach.

Specific cognitive learning applications are present in the recommended training methods of the San Jose Model during the stage when new material is introduced. Kaminsky (2002) relates that the aspects of explanation and demonstration are important for conveying knowledge from the trainer to the trainee. This process begins with a lesson plan that consists of material deemed important by the trainer to satisfy the specific needs and progress of the trainee. Next, the trainer presents the material by explanation or demonstration in a way that is clear and accurate. To be effective listeners during the presentation of material such as the lesson plan, the trainee is instructed to focus on the trainer, ignore other interferences, and hold off posing immediate questions and conclusions.

**Andragogy**

Andragogy is a learning theory attributed to Malcom Knowles that distinguishes the educational needs of an adult learner from the needs of a child learner (Birzer, 2004). Knowles
built the foundation of andragogy on the earlier works on humanistic psychology by Abraham Maslow and his apprentice, Carl Rogers. Humanistic psychology proposed that individuals should be the focus of the learning process as self-actualization will direct the individual learner to achieve all of which they are capable.

The basic tenants of andragogy include a concept of leaning as being self-directed, a realization that the experience of the learner is an important inclusion to the learning process, the incorporation of adult social roles to determine a readiness to learn, and acknowledging adult perspectives are centered on problem solving (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Andragogy is a learning theory that focusses on adult students and relies on instruction personalized to the individual learner (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2012). Understanding the adult learner begins with incorporating the psychological definition of an adult which includes the development of responsibility for individual well-being and an assumption that the individual is self-directing. Andragogy is then a contrast to other learning models that tend to be pedagogical in their reliance being subject focused and centered on the teacher (Birzer, 2004).

The theory uses core principles to design a model appropriate for adults which creates a view of learning as a transaction where both the individuality of the learner and the particulars of the learning circumstances are incorporated as important. Core principles consist of the individual learner’s need to know, self-concept, experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning, and impetus to learn (Knowles et al., 2012). The need to know conceptualizes a better facilitation of the acceptance of knowledge when the learner is made aware of the reason that the information is necessary. Teachers play an important part in the need to know by explaining how the information relates to real situations, which should assist the learner in discovering why the information is essential. Second, adult learners bring an individual self-concept to the
educational setting molded by their past experiences. Overcoming issues with self-concept requires an effort by teachers to assist learners become self-directed and not dependent on the determination of others.

Third, andragogy recognizes the importance of experience carried by each individual adult learner. The adult learning environment requires personalization of the instructional plan to incorporate those experiences into a meaningful activity that appreciates the input of the learners by focusing on group dialog, group projects, and peer support. Readiness to learn as the fourth core principle refers to the need to organize learning activities in order of needed growth related steps. Here, the steps should build towards the accumulation of desired knowledge in logical, incremental segments that increase the likelihood that students will be able to learn.

Orientation to learning refers to the need to explain the context where the forthcoming information will be applicable to realistic situations. Connections to real life situations or needs are the most common ways to focus the orientation to learning. These connections work to describe the realistic need and then divulge the skills or knowledge necessary to satisfy the need. Finally, motivation must be appreciated to incorporate the individual drive of the adult learner. Motivation to learn is greater when the internal aspects of fulfillment, self-worth, confidence, and perceived increases in life opportunities are incorporated as a reason to gain knowledge.

Teachers in the andragogy concept are seen as catalysts for learning where the students are moved to learn by their own internal direction (McCoy, 2006). Participation is necessary from the learner to apply their experiences to activities designed by the teachers to solve problems and provide feedback. Adult learning necessitates applications where teachers conceptualize problems intended to allow learners to combine past experience and abilities to arrive at solutions to the problems (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Teachers are then facilitators to
encourage learner collaboration, meaningful discussion, participative probing of issues, and inductive reasoning. To be effective in adult learning, andragogy demands that teachers are able to conceptualize needs and devise instruction to effectively facilitate learning in self-directed adults (Birzer, 2004). Judgment and the ability to use individual ingenuity are goals to be facilitated by the instructor (Chappell et al., 2010).

**Application of Andragogy to Law Enforcement and Field Training**

Law enforcement instruction on problem solving and collaboration necessary for community policing is suited for the learner centered emphasis of andragogy (McCoy, 2006). Essential in the community policing practice are officer attributes of judgment, critical thinking, and leadership that are best enhanced through adult learning. Andragogy is ideal to build the essential skills of critical thinking and judgment to assist learners apply previous experience and acquired knowledge to new situations (Birzer, 2004). Facilitating these skills in andragogy is commonly accommodated by trainers who incorporate inductive scenarios, participatory discussions, directed collaboration, and debriefing assignments. Group discussions and debate to share individual experience and incorporate new knowledge should be self-directed to encourage the transference of needed job related information (Birzer, 2003).

Associating andragogy to a law enforcement FTP on the skills necessary for community policing can be accomplished through the instructional methods of the trainer. The process model of andragogy provides eight elements to assist adult learners develop desired abilities and knowledge (Knowles et al., 2012). Elements in the process model begin with priming the learner to participate and constructing credible expectations for learning. Instructors should set a learning environment that is relaxed and supports collaboration. Planning for course material
should be collaborative between the instructor and learner. Needs should be defined by mutual review of the teachers and learner, while objectives are also defined through similar collaboration. Construction of the learning plans are individualized to the progress of the learner. Learning activities within andragogy are flexible to meet training needs. Finally, evaluation is a collaborative design that includes both instructor and learner input.

**Social Learning Theory**

Social learning theory was originated by Ronald Akers and Robert Burgess to expound on the earlier differential association theory by adding components of the behavioral learning theory (Conklin, 2010). Differential association theory as stated by Edwin Sutherland postulates that the propensity to commit criminal acts is learned by interacting with others who are engaging in unlawful actions. Criticisms of the differential association theory include both a failure to explain why an individual would associate with a criminal element and a reliance on an oversimplification of why that association would automatically translate to criminal behavior.

Akers (1994) relates that social learning theory incorporates all of the premises of the differential association theory and explains individual actions by incorporating behavioral learning theory facets of operant conditioning and the more involuntary aspects of classical behavioral conditioning. In this theory, learning includes all attributes of behavior that encompass how ideas are acquired, how the ideas are both internalized and sustained, and ultimately how the behavior of the individual is modified to enable deviant conduct. The main tenant of social learning theory is that the identical progression of positive social interactions which translate to conforming behavior can also relate to criminally influenced social interactions that result in deviant behavior.
Originally the theory developed by Akers and Burgess contained seven statements of content, which were rearticulated to four concepts in a later version of social learning by Akers (Akers, 2001). Those four concepts incorporate the influences of differential association, differential reinforcement, definitions, and imitation. Beginning with differential association, individuals may be subjected to defining behavior that can be either lawful or unlawful in content. Interpersonal interactions with other individuals who directly display behaviors of influence are one of the two means of impacting differential association. Normative influences as the second means are the principles and opinions of a group that can be transferred to the individual through association.

Differential reinforcement consists of the tangible or perceived rewards and punishments that a particular individual believes will result as a consequence of their behavior. Reinforcement can also arrive as a direct result of either positive reinforcement in the form of a desired reward, or through a negative reinforcement resulting from the reception of something undesirable. In the case of perceived rewards, the individual assimilates a series of previously associated behaviors to arrive at an anticipated result. This type of reinforcement may also come from an individually received reward, such as satisfaction from drug or alcohol use, but the attractiveness of receiving such rewards originates from a learned social tolerance.

Definitions are the meanings that an individual applies to situations that may be influenced by institutionalized values or can be personally rationalized (Akers, 1994). Institutionalized values are the customary beliefs that individuals accept from religion, society, or upbringing that convey behaviors that are positive and socially conforming. Specific definitions consist of the personally rationalized values that individuals apply to situations based on their past experiences. Institutionalized values and specific definitions can combine
collaboratively to discourage individuals from participating in deviance in a way that is positive. Specific definitions can also function as rationalizations to neutralize institutionalized values, thereby promoting deviant behavior.

Imitations are the final concept of social learning theory. Behaviors under the concept of imitation are influenced by the direct observation of comparable behaviors performed by others (Akers, 2001). Directly related to the repetition of observed behaviors are the observed or understood consequences which were clearly associated with the observed behavior. Imitations are commonly more important to the preliminary stages of acquiring deviant or nonconforming behavior than to the latter stages of behavior maintenance when imitation serves mainly to validate continued deviance (Akers, 1994).

Social structure and social learning (SSSL) within social learning theory assumes that positions in social structure and membership in social systems will directly affect differential association, differential reinforcement, definitions, and imitation (Conklin, 2010). Individual influences on the four concepts of social learning are then theorized to be driven by community attributes, individual position and characteristics in social structure, the degree of social organization, and attachment to influential reference groups. Working together, SSSL explicates both positive and deviant behavior as well as changes brought about through behavior maintenance functions, situational adaptations, variability in occurrences, and transformations over time.

**Application of the Social Learning Theory to Law Enforcement and Field Training**

Chappell and Piquero (2004) relate that social learning theory is readily adaptable to the law enforcement environment as all of the concepts of differential association, differential
reinforcement, definitions, and imitation are embedded in the policing culture. Departmental subculture is ideally suited to inhabit the concept of differential association through the conveying of acceptable behaviors, which may be positive or nonconforming. Acclimation to law enforcement subculture is commonly necessary for career sustenance, individual safety, and group acceptance. Further, the authors quote sources identifying police culture as so imminently controlling as to overrule any previous individual beliefs and values. This cultural control imposes a perceptive understanding on the individual creating a law enforcement view of society.

Law enforcement subculture is identifiable and able to be constructed to facilitate positive functions (Ortmeier & Meese III, 2010). Two of the more prominent positive functions of a law enforcement subculture are shared group responsibilities to prevent misconduct and group support to assist fellow officers avoid negative moral dilemmas. Training is then one of the more substantial ways to instill the positive aspects or functions, as the authors note that law enforcement personnel are far more likely to demonstrate ethical behaviors when they are instructed in those expectations. Through training and modeling, law enforcement subculture is able to sustain positive behaviors and positions when presented with challenges to those qualities.

Law enforcement behavior shaped by the prominent department subculture through the social learning theory can be addressed through training applications to countermand negative definitions (Chappell & Piquero, 2004). Positive reinforcement and positive association can be used to promote behaviors that represent equality and impartiality developed through training applications. As part of the study conducted by the authors, a resulting significant correlation between officer attitudes and officer behaviors was found. The authors then recommend the use
of documentation to identify officer attitude issues as these outlooks can readily transfer to actual work performance issues. Training as a means to develop appropriate attitudes may then rely on the operant conditioning aspect of the social learning theory for modeling desired performance and rewarding appropriate behavior typical in the operation of a FTP.

Sun (2003) relates that the trainer in a FTP has a vital role in defining the positive socialization of the trainee. Trainers who regularly demonstrate positive modeling of professional law enforcement roles within a FTP will have a significant influence on the attitudes and professionalism assimilated by the trainee. This may be explained partially by the likelihood that trainees are most concerned with the opinions of their trainers during the early periods of their career. Agencies should take great care in selecting trainers who are proficient and employ appropriate attitudes, which should be followed by providing additional instruction to the prospective trainers to instill essential training attributes.

**Summary**

The examinations of the behaviorism, cognitivism, and andragogy learning theories were not all inclusive, as a full appreciation of the individual theories would be beyond the scope of this work. Incorporation of learning theories is fundamental to operating an efficient FTP that addresses distinctive learning needs during diverse training applications. It is likely that all three theories have a significant place within a FTP as different topics and proficiencies require individualized means of transferring knowledge. Social learning theory accounts for the specialized setting of law enforcement training, which is recognized as encompassing the propensity for positive or negative influences. Trainers in a FTP are uniquely situated to
influence the positive socialization of new recruits, prompting a need for law enforcement administrations to carefully select and educate training personnel.
Section IV: Department, Administrative, Community, Trainee, and Trainer Concerns

Several influences will impact the service delivery abilities of a law enforcement agency which will need to be addressed through adaptation and incorporation by the department FTP. First, administrative resource issues will influence the available pool of personnel who populate agency positions. Departmental concerns include the service obligations and structure of a particular department. Next, legal obligations and community service requirements need to be acknowledged to direct the FTP instructional content. Potential trainee issues include individual personal expectations that may be associated with generational characteristics. Finally, potential trainer issues include instructional style, interpersonal grading errors, and teaching capabilities.

Administrative Resource Issues

A major issue facing law enforcement administrations is the resource of competent personnel needed to fill roles within individual agencies. Acquisition of new recruits generally has moved towards selecting personnel with more education, an emphasis on diverse recruitment, and increasing the flexibility of the initial testing processes (Schmalleger, 2009). Educational achievement is believed to transfer directly to an improvement in interpersonal communication abilities, heightened capacities to work in diverse communities, increased levels of self-initiative, and a more adept use of police discretion. Recruitment has increased the diversity of law enforcement agencies through the inclusion of higher numbers of personnel from different racial groups, in addition to higher numbers of female recruits.

Financial resources available to law enforcements agencies will likely be a concern to sustain training programs while attracting new personnel and retaining current personnel. Jensen III and Graves (2013) identify problems with the economy as potential inhibitors for these areas, including the likelihood that the financial difficulties will not improve in the near future.
Maintaining a congregate of competent personnel may depend on the ability to maintain quality training while holding training functions to economical scrutiny.

Costs to employ officers in the form of salary and benefit packages, will continue to be a concern to law enforcement administrations to both attract new personnel and retain existing personnel. Nationwide, law enforcement agencies paid an average of $116,500 per officer in yearly combined total salary and benefits costs in 2007 (Reaves, 2010). This monetary amount is up considerably from the average $93,300 per year average from 2003 and the $80,000 per year average in 2000 (Hickman & Reaves, 2006).

The costs in terms of salaries and benefits for training personnel to work within a FTP and training new officers in both the FTP and the law enforcement academy will also be a concern to administrators. Both the San Jose Model and the Reno Model recommend 40 hours of instruction to qualify trainers to be proficient in the respective FTP (McCampbell, 1987; COPSb, 2006). Using the average officer salary and benefits costs from 2007 mentioned above, the administrative cost for one 40 hour week of training would average $2,240 for each officer, in addition to potential costs to cover officer responsibilities or staffing during the training week and costs to operate the training course.

Training programs for new recruits in the San Jose Model are designed to last 14 weeks (Kaminsky, 2002). The designed length for training time in the Reno Model is 15 weeks (COPSb, 2006). Using the average officer salary and benefits costs from 2007, the cost to train officers in the San Jose Model would average over $31,000 per new officer and the cost to train officers in the Reno Model would average over $33,000 per new officer. Law enforcement academy costs averaged $16,000 for each recruit who completed the average 19 week training
program in 2006 (Reaves, 2009). This amount can vary widely from highs of $52,700 to lows of $7,400 per recruit depending on the type and size of the academy.

**Departmental Service Delivery Concerns**

Departmental service needs and structure must be incorporated into the construction of the FTP to ensure that the training will not be irrelevant to actual expectations and duties. Miller and Hess (2008) emphasize this concept by stating training efforts alone will not affect the overall delivery of law enforcement services. Without this accord, any intended influence from training will be diminished and inadequacies of the training will be magnified. Training can also be costly, highly involved, and relied on heavily to produce all of the needs of agencies, exemplifying the need to be in concert with realistic expectations.

Structurally, law enforcement departments have responded to demands for community involvement and collaborative problem solving by flattening their hierarchal structures and dispersing decision making authority (Miller & Hess, 2008). This type of response is commonly associated with community oriented policing, which includes the understanding that law enforcement cannot be effective without a collaboration with society. Another major area of problem solving is the ability to use progressive policing techniques and technology to supplement both traditional law enforcement and community policing. The result of these changes in policing has increased the importance of line officer decision making while also increasing the complexity of law enforcement responsibilities.

Operationalizing a FTP will require an aggregate effort to understand what agency personnel will be required to perform as part of the departmental role in society. Gaines and Kappeler (2008) relate that modern law enforcement responsibilities and duties are very complex and would be in need of diligent efforts to train and supervise personnel. Before any attempt is
made to devise an appropriate curriculum for training new recruits, the devising agency must
fully understand both the law enforcement requirements for their community and the specifically
articulated goals of the department. The objective of using a FTP to select and train must then be
to populate the agency with personnel capable of fulfilling designated responsibilities and
desired goals.

Training Concerns for Instruction and Community Service.

Designing the requirements for the instruction and content of an FTP will require an
understanding of the skills and abilities needed to fulfill legal mandates and community
obligations. Using a job description in combination with job specifications should define the
requirements for instruction and content. Ortmeier and Meese III (2010) define a job description
as a written documentation of main positional functions, the scope of authority, and the duties
assumed by the position. Job specifications give a closer look at the needs of the position by
defining particular abilities, aptitudes, and individual requirements needed to adequately fill an
assignment.

Understanding the type of law enforcement that is desired by the particular community is
paramount to devising the curriculum and model of delivery of the FTP. Dunham and Alpert
(2010) relate that diverse types of communities want a wide variety of services and involvements
from their law enforcement agencies. A full understanding of the requirements necessary for the
complete integration of police and community should then be at the forefront of devising law
enforcement services and the training required to provide those services. Departments risk
becoming irrelevant if they do not provide desired services or meaningful social control.

Birzer (2008) states that there is a disconnection between law enforcement agency
requirements for police selection and training with the expectations society holds for police
officer interpersonal characteristics. Law enforcement personnel selection is commonly a formalized process intended to select recruits based on legal obligations and a predetermined attribute profile. Training may perpetuate the disconnection by devoting excessive time and resources to the more traditional aspects of law enforcement, while not spending sufficient instructional time on interpersonal relations and community involvement.

Failing to connect training objectives to community policing philosophies may also continue the disconnections between community service needs and FTP instructional content. Corner (2010) explains the philosophical aspect of community policing entails the consolidation of community understanding, service role, and customized service. Community understanding begins with seeking citizen feedback into the level and type of desired law enforcement services and sustains with continual community engagement. Service role comprehension entails viewing the entire police responsibility beyond traditional focusses on arrests to understandings of duties related to order maintenance, collaborating social resources, and responsibilities to intercede in areas of societal concern. Customized service considers the importance of tailoring law enforcement responses to the involvements deemed important in specific parts of the community.

Chappell (2007) attributes issues with community service disconnect with neglecting to update FTP content, particularly in programs that follow the San Jose Model. While the original structure for the San Jose Model followed the traditional policing practices and philosophies of the time period, the author notes that many programs have not been updated to embrace community policing practices. The design of the San Jose Model does facilitate adaptability and can be used to instruct community policing required skills with evaluation changes, trainer instruction, departmental commitment, and designated training content updates.

**Identifying Potential Trainee Issues**
Millennials are the generation currently beginning to fill the ranks of entry level law enforcement personnel (McCafferty, 2003). Developing training programs for the millennial generation will be the challenge for the Generation X and baby boomer generation personnel currently present in law enforcement agencies (Werth & Werth, 2011). Traditional methods of conducting training will likely present difficulties for millennial generation personnel who desire their work environments to be entertaining and accommodating. Through their educational and socialization experiences, Millennials obtain knowledge differently and resist common training methods, testing procedures, and incremental instruction (Black, 2010).

Operationalizing a training program based on a continual grading system may be problematic for the personal formative experiences of Millennials. Heavy reliance on grading found in traditional training programs built on the San Jose Model were conceptualized to be graded daily in up to 29 evaluation categories which are individually graded on a 7-point evaluation scale (Kaminsky, 2002). Further, the 7-point scale is intended to be objective and performance based, which would commonly result in grades that lean towards the middle of the scale and frequently avoid the top of the scale for all but extremely exceptional performance.

Black (2010) relates that Millennials have been socialized to be self-assured and self-confident resulting in an expectation of loftier grades for their participation. Jensen III and Graves (2013) refer to this type of expectation as a generational attitude of entitlement. The performance based grading in the San Jose Model that gravitates towards the middle of the scoring range will then be a problem for Millennials who tend to insist on receiving only the highest grades on all of their involvements.

Millennials are more comfortable learning in a group setting to interact and network with other students while not favoring learning environments that are centered on the linear
instruction of the teacher (Werth & Werth, 2011). The San Jose Model is structured and closely controlled through standardization and procedure to give each trainee an equal instructional opportunity (McCampbell, 1987). Within this model, the trainer is the most crucial aspect of the FTP, and all lesson plans flow linearly to the trainee. Additionally, training assignments are devised to consist of individual trainees assigned to the same trainer for one month long steps (Kaminsky, 2002).

The Reno Model is also set up to include assignments to singular trainers for prescribed periods of time. During each phase of the training program, the assigned trainer arranges appropriate training material, documents instructional experiences, and acts as a personal mentor (COPSb, 2006). This model does include exercises, namely the PBLE and the NPE, that are designed to encourage collaboration and networking, while daily training does emphasize community policing related problem solving. Ultimately, daily assignments are still focused on learning facilitated by a knowledge transfer from the trainer to the trainee and not formulated to include a constant regimen of group interaction and networking.

Facilitating the millennial recruit need to learn in a group setting and collaborate with peers can be a focus in both academy training and while learning in the FTP. Millennials have received an educational emphasis on group projects and group collaboration during their learning experiences to date which should be continued in ongoing education (Werth & Werth, 2011). While lectures may still be needed to introduce materials, lecture time should be limited and lead directly into some form of group activity. Academy training is part of the ongoing educational experience, and should include the preferred inclusion of group collaboration.

Departments that present their own academies can capitalize on group team building by maintaining the same group of recruits from this period through instruction in the FTP.
Irrespective of where the academy is presented, FTP administrators should include group interactivity and teamwork opportunities in the daily training structure of both the San Jose and Reno Models. Incorporating teamwork capitalizes on the socialization and educational experiences of the millennial generation (Massoni, 2009). When other trainees are available to connect in group activities, a variety of exercises and assignments in either model could be turned into a collaborative opportunity.

Controls applied on the FTP process by both the San Jose Model and the Reno Model that are hierarchal in design may be problematic for the networking tendencies of the millennial generation. Jensen III and Graves (2013) relate that Millennials resist tight controls and rigid structure, preferring to skip vertical and horizontal structural levels. Managerial configurations typical of both training models may not react quickly enough for the networking needs of trainee personnel, causing discords in the way millennial personnel approach the FTP and agency chain of command.

The availability of constant communication through the internet and social media outlets may be problematic due to the millennial generation desire to be continually connected. Millennials are increasingly using technology as an extension of their interpersonal communication needs (McCafferty, 2003). Potentially extensive information on new recruits is available in social media applications in publically accessible areas (Jensen III and Graves, 2013). Broad use of networking capabilities combined with a lack of self-consciousness in posting sensitive information can be extremely damaging to the reputations of law enforcement personnel. Numerous new enticements to engage in undesirable conduct or view unlawful material are also developing with the ease and connectivity of technological innovations.
Generation X personnel may still be entering the law enforcement profession as recruits or may become enrolled in a FTP after being hired from a different agency. The presence of the grading frequency and importance found in the San Jose Model may have both positive and negative ramifications for this generation. Fischer (2002) reports that Generation X personnel value feedback, which can be either positive or negative, as long as the critique is timely. If the evaluation is negative, or punitive, the criticism will still be appreciated as long as the appraisal is constructive. This desire for immediate feedback may stem from a generational feeling of lacking future security (McCafferty, 2003). Constructive feedback is conceptualized as relating an opportunity to improve, develop, and increase individual value within the organization.

Rigid FTP structures found in both training models, and especially the tight controls common in the San Jose Model may be problematic for Generation X trainees. This generation prefers the ability to be individually innovative while being resistive to micromanaging controls (Fischer, 2002). Opposition to program structure and micromanaging supervision may originate from skepticisms learned from observing the decreased job security problems experienced by their parents during formative years. Supplying meaningful challenges is essential, and providing continued development opportunities throughout individual careers is also important to Generation X (Jensen III & Graves, 2013).

Maintaining the interest of millennial personnel in law enforcement employment throughout the duration of training programs and retaining them as permanent employees will be a challenge for a number of reasons. McCafferty (2003) states that millennial personnel want flexibility in shift assignments, wages equal to their expectations, substantial benefit packages, and the availability for compensated continual education. Haarr (2005) noted several personal incompatibility problems as reasons new officers leave law enforcement. The author conducted a
study of personnel who voluntarily left law enforcement and found that more issues originated from contradictory work expectations, unwillingness to accept police culture, dislike of the departmental environment, and personality differences with trainers or coworkers to be more significant reasons for abandoning the profession.

**Identifying Potential Trainer Issues**

The employees who are entrusted with being trainers in a FTP may experience issues common to interpersonal interactions which can lead to negative consequences for a law enforcement agency. Gaines and Kappeler (2008) relate research on FTP problems that may affect trainers including tendencies to focus extensively on the evaluation aspects without providing adequate training, making personal judgments about trainees, rating trainees with bias based on their popularity, and overtraining on the technical aspects of the profession. Additionally, trainers who rely heavily on militaristic expectations may negatively impact the evaluations of certain personnel, especially female trainees.

Trainer issues affecting evaluation outcomes may be amplified in the San Jose Model due to the substantial emphasis on documentation. Kaminsky (2002) notes several evaluation problems including leniency, personal bias, central tendency, related traits, and event bias. Leniency in evaluations results from rationalizations made by the trainer to assess more favorably due to trainee inexperience or the degree of trainee adversity. Personal bias occurs in instances where the trainer views the trainee either more favorably or more unfavorably, resulting in evaluations that are partial to a subjective preference.

Evaluation errors involving central tendencies occur when trainers avoid the highest or lowest ratings on the rating scale. This error may occur for reasons of avoiding extra documentation required for extreme ratings, to avoid disagreement with program management or
trainees, or when the trainer is not sure how to assess the performance. Problems of evaluation associated with related traits occurs when trainers are not familiar with the specific components of a SEG, or when a trainee performs poorly in one SEG category that results in poor ratings in other unrelated SEG categories. Finally, event bias occurs when a trainee performs aspects of a particular incident either so good or so bad as to influence the trainer to give unearned good or bad ratings in all of the other performance categories.

Trainers may run into problematic situations within the Reno Model if program designs that are intended to facilitate optimal learning outcomes are not followed. The first program design is to adhere to a mentoring approach as the desired method of teaching to recognize individual trainee learning tempos, strengths, weaknesses, and talents (COPSc, 2006). Next, trainers are reminded to emphasize the concept of falling forward to conceptualize workable solutions and learn through self-discovery. Finally, trainers must work to build the character of trainees that should result in emotional intelligence and competence in the communication, collaboration, compromising, and accommodation skills that define conflict resolution.

One final issue that can be attributed to trainer deficiencies is the tendency to depend on conventional law enforcement practices and teaching methods. Chappell (2007) asserts that current trainers were probably indoctrinated into their departments through traditional training procedures and attitudes, resulting in an inclination to apply those same methods while instructing new recruits. Teaching methods may also deviate from expected practices due to the use of untrained FTP personnel.

**Summary**

The divergence of several influences will determine whether a FTP will be successful or succumb to irrelevance and ineffectiveness. Identifying challenges with administrative resources,
departmental concerns, training issues and community concerns, and potential issues with trainees and trainers is necessary to understand the origin of FTP influences and the content of the potential problems. Accounting for the needs and potential issues with these influences will assist in directing proper training objectives and methods while avoiding common FTP difficulties.
Section V: Recommendations for an Ideal FTP Program

A number of influences will combine to determine the needs of an individual department FTP, making the application of one universally applicable FTP unrealistic. Several recommendations can be made that can address the specific needs of a law enforcement administration, department, community, trainers, and trainees to create an ideal FTP for the particular agency. Law enforcement administrations can enhance their abilities to hire competent personnel, provide meaningful guidance, and creatively deal with financial difficulties. As a department, special attention is necessary to ensure a culture of ethical values and appropriate socialization through policy and the influence of training personnel.

Community service desires must be measured and incorporated into training objectives to deliver the appropriate type of law enforcement services in the most suitable manner. Trainers entrusted with FTP duties must have the skills and abilities to instruct within the requirements of the selected training model. Additionally, trainers must be proficient using a variety of instructional methods, most importantly the ability to use adult learning techniques. Finally, the needs of the trainees must be incorporated into the FTP to conduct training that is meaningful and is adapted to generational characteristics for effectiveness.

Administrative Recommendations

Law enforcement administrations have several responsibilities in selecting the best possible employees through formalized hiring processes who are more likely to graduate from the FTP and are less likely to abandon the profession for personalized reasons. Training new personnel consumes a substantial amount of departmental resources and personnel involvement (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). Strong motivations are present to select the candidates who are less likely to be terminated for performance deficiencies or resign for personal reasons. Whisenand
(2009) relates that administrations need to have strong selection standards in place prior to the beginning of the selection process. These standards include an emphasis on recruit intelligence, individual character, willingness to work, physical capability, and the ability to empathize.

Administrators should use care in selecting the appropriate combination of hiring mechanisms to ensure that selection standards are being met. Hiring processes usually include some form of written exam, interview, background examination, psychological examination, and medical exam (Reaves, 2010). Written exams are a commonly used, economical method to determine the overall knowledge possessed by a recruit, but have historically eliminated a disproportionate amount of minority candidates (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). A possible solution to the imperfect outcomes of the written test is a newer type of multiple choice test based on video scenarios. This test is able to measure knowledge in addition to partiality, decision making, ethics, personal skills, and use of authorized power. Interview boards are another common selection tool, but administrators should be cautious in using this method without considering the potentiality for subjective outcomes.

Selecting candidates through the use of an assessment center costs more than a written exam, but can provide valuable information into the behavioral aptitudes and communication abilities of the candidate (Swanson et al., 2005). Additionally, using an assessment center can still measure overall knowledge combined with abilities to apply comprehension of law enforcement skills to realistic situations (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). Administrators are able to use a variety of methods in an assessment center to rate candidate aptitudes including realistic role playing, panel presentations, video scenario assessments, and assignments designed to test problem solving abilities.
Enhancing the personnel capabilities of an organization can be accomplished through the efforts of the administration to select the most qualified candidates. A concentrated effort should be made in the training, evaluation, and retention efforts to use of the concept of screening in the most qualified personnel (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). Screening in conceptualized in selection processes refers to relying on the goals and requirements identified by the individual agency as important to be used to select and develop only the most suitable new recruits. This concept is a direct contradiction to a pitfall common to the use the selection process as a means to screen out unsuitable recruits. Screening out does function to remove unsatisfactory personnel, but usually results in the inadvertently keeping some of the remaining recruits who tend to be only marginally qualified.

New officers who voluntarily resign during the training process or after completion of the training process are also costly to the organization (Haarr, 2005). Reasons for resignation may originate from unsatisfied financial expectations or from a variety of stress related issues. Stress related issues are commonly related to individual misconceptions related to the amount of occupational risk, work load, interpersonal relationship issues with coworkers, and misapprehensions about law enforcement socialization and culture. Administrators may be able to eliminate some of the stress related misconceptions by becoming more involved in the orientation process during academy training. Gaines and Kappeler (2008) identify this orientation period of the academy as providing opportunities to give an impression of the organization, to assist personal acceptance of law enforcement duties, and to introduce the recruit to realistic law enforcement socialization.

Administrative personnel have several key roles in the supervision and control of FTP objectives. Beaver (2006) explains that the administrative responsibilities associated with
achieving FTP and departmental goals includes the preparation of an inclusive training manual, selection and instruction of trainers, and the continual oversight of the program. Within the training manual are clearly defined goals and written evaluation guidelines that define required training requirements. Administrators are also responsible to ensure that the manual is current on all procedural and legal conditions. After supervising the selection of only the most suitable individuals, administration is responsible to ensure trainers possess the needed amount of skills, knowledge, and guidance to function in the FTP. Finally, continual oversight is necessary to ensure that FTP directives are being followed and all component personnel of the FTP are being held accountable to their respective responsibilities and duties.

Administrators must acknowledge several factors related to the size of the population their departments serve that will influence hiring selection alternatives, types of officer separations, salary levels, education reimbursement, and community policing emphasis. Beginning with the hiring selection process, virtually all departments used some form of personal interview, but departments serving larger jurisdictions used dramatically more alternatives such as psychological tests, aptitude exams, personality assessments, and polygraph tests (Reaves, 2010). Larger departments are also far more likely to use screening methods to determine community policing attributes such as problems solving skills, cultural understanding, and interpersonal conflict resolution abilities.

The percentage of officer separations due to resignations ranges from 16% in departments that serve populations over 1,000,000 to 76% in departments that serve populations under 2,500 (Hickman & Reaves, 2006). Officer terminations initiated by administration range from 2% in the largest jurisdictions to 15% in the smallest jurisdictions. While the surveys do not indicate
reasons for the resignations or terminations, departments that serve smaller jurisdictions have higher personnel turnover rates.

Administrator abilities to compensate entry level will be influenced by the jurisdictional size. Reaves (2010) reports that entry level officer salaries range from over $78,000 in the largest departments to averages of $30,500 in the smallest departments. An additional influence on salary amounts was the presence of collective bargaining activities. All departments with collective bargaining rights averaged higher total salaries, with the largest departments averaging $6,000 in additional salaries and smaller departments averaging $9,000 in additional salaries. The ability to provide incentives for continued education was reported in over 70% of the jurisdictions serving over 500,000 people, which progressively decreased by population size to only 9% over jurisdictions serving fewer than 2,500 people.

Administrative focus on community policing, training, and engagement also varies by jurisdictional size. Community policing related functions including establishing partnerships to solve problems and garner feedback exists in over 85% of departments serving over 100,000 people while the percentage dips to under 60% for departments serving less than 10,000 people (Hickman & Reaves, 2006). Engaging community citizens through surveys to measure satisfaction, perception, and personal crime familiarity is low nationwide, but generally ranges from 31% in the largest departments to 17% in the smallest departments. Required training of new officers in the FTP in community policing practices follows the same jurisdictional size patterns, with at least 8 hours of required training in all of the largest departments to lows of 37% of the smallest departments (Reaves, 2010).
With the enduring financial concerns, the ability to devote monetary pay for the compensation of trainers may become limited, encouraging other ways for law enforcement agencies to reward training efforts. Kaminsky (2002) explains that a number of alternative methods can provide incentive for the retention of FTP personnel. Issuing predetermined time off for training efforts in the form of compensatory time or extra vacation time are possibilities which do not directly involve the payroll. Perks could be used in the form of rewarding the trainer with a take home patrol squad or preferential admittance to expanded training opportunities. Finally, recognition based items such as issuing FTP insignia or arranging trainer appreciation festivities are relatively low cost ways to encourage continued commitment.

Law enforcement administrators will likely face constraints on their ability to raise salaries in at least the near term, making changes to the hierarchal shift structure and inflexible shift hours a means to distract from stagnating pay packages (Jensen III and Graves, 2013). Agencies can also strive to increase millennial preferences such as continual mentoring programs, involvement in decision making processes, and the ability to earn compensatory off time for extracurricular training.

Departmental Recommendations

Shaping the departmental culture with desired values and attitudes is ideally suited to the conditions of a FTP. Chappell (2007) identifies the training phase when a new officer is assigned to a FTP as the most impressionable period to influence appropriate attitudes towards department values, community policing ideals, and the propensities necessary to engage in problem solving endeavors. Compliant with the social learning theory, law enforcement training provides opportunities to influence new officers through differential association, definitions, reinforcement, and modeling (Chappell & Piquero, 2004). Positive department attitudes can be
shaped effectively through training to influence appropriate behavior and reduce future misconduct.

Improving the departmental cultural acceptance of desired law enforcement principles, convictions, and ethical values is similarly ideally suited to the FTP through the considerable influence of the trainer (Ortmeier & Meese III, 2010). In a FTP, the trainer position possesses a fair amount of control over the trainee through the written documentation process found in both predominate training models. Through this position of power, the trainer is idyllically positioned to perpetuate the value structure of an ethical organization, or to positively change the value structure of organizations with distressed cultures.

Socialization into the norms and values of a law enforcement agency has been firmly associated to the acclimation provided by trainers in a FTP. Sun (2003) identifies several studies that confirm trainer influence on both the formal training process and the informal department cultural indoctrination. The author states that a fundamental departmental responsibility is to carefully select personnel to entrust with training responsibilities and also an essential need to train these personnel in ways to teach new officers to become both become competent officers and reputable employees.

Providing policy definitions to restrict the improper use of technological communications will be necessary to address the millennial generation use of this medium during work hours. Training, specific policy restrictions, and discipline designed to prevent the release of confidential information and curtail opportunities for unlawful conduct are law enforcement management responsibilities (Jensen III & Graves, 2013). Further training may also be valuable
to instruct new recruits on the hazards to professional reputations related to releasing personal information on social media sites.

**Community Service Delivery Recommendations**

Community desires for their law enforcement agencies can be sampled empirically to understand appropriate focuses for service delivery needs. Examining community desires is an attempt to understand how the citizenry want to have their police services delivered as opposed to examining what types of services to provide. Birzer (2008) exemplifies the differing views of society that should translate to adjustments in law enforcement training in a study utilizing a phenomenological method to explore police-minority relations in a particular community. Use of a phenomenological method in this case refers to the attempt to understand viewpoints of the individuals being studied to ascertain their experiences and assessments.

Interestingly, Birzer’s results found that the minority community is his survey attached no importance to officer abilities related to the traditional law enforcement emphasis of crime fighting or making arrests. The most important attributes desired by the minority respondents in this particular community were all related to the desired need to have law enforcement officers possess quality human relation skills. Specifically, the respondents demanded professionalism, by way of being prepared and accommodating, and the need to listen in a fair and decent manor as a fellow citizen. Additionally, the study found that the respondents desired their law enforcement personnel to be knowledgeable about their community and the concerns of the minority citizens.

Miller and Hess (2008) relate the same attributes found in Birzer’s study to the skills and abilities needed to function within a problem-orienting policing approach. Specifically, the authors designate critical thinking, conflict resolution, comprehension of community distinctive
issues, communication skills, and interpersonal relations as essential skills. Training programs will be considerably more effective in building problem oriented policing abilities when the law enforcement administration, department culture, and community are all in agreement on the importance of these skills to collaborative problem solving efforts.

Associating the FTP evaluation emphasis to community policing philosophies and problem solving abilities is vital to stressing the training importance of related proficiencies (Chappell, 2007). Interpersonal skills are a crucial evaluative area where trainers can influence and reinforce the importance of developing communication attributes related to civility, situational appropriateness, and diversity appreciation. Trainers will need to build trainee abilities to communicate with deferent and authoritative communication styles based on the appropriateness of the situation. Deferent communications are associated with interacting with others on an equal basis, which is needed for community collaborative problem solving. Authoritative communications are needed during situations when assertiveness is necessary to control a situation and restore order, but are commonly not appropriate for most daily interactions.

Decision making skills are a second crucial training and evaluative area for the influence on necessary problem solving abilities, especially within flattened hierarchal structures found in community policing. Other training and interpersonal areas involving relationship building, human skills, attitude, self-direction, and innovation are also necessary at the forefront of FTP evaluations to stress the overall importance of community oriented policing competences. Additionally, evaluations of trainee self-initiated activities should stress community problem solving activities over traditional law enforcement strategies focused only on arrests.

**Trainer Instruction Recommendations.**
Trainers require instruction on how to apply program mandates and training initiatives correctly to avoid diversions in the desired objectives of the FTP (Beaver, 2006). In the San Jose Model, trainers require instruction on adult learning methods, evaluative guidelines, documentation structure, remedial solutions, and communication skills (Kaminsky, 2002). Instructional programs for trainers should also explain FTP structure and procedure, provide an ethical training focus, and provide insight on a variety of coaching methods. Additional periodic refresher instruction is also preferred to maintain trainer abilities and provide needed program updates. To be proficient in the required duties of the San Jose Models, trainers should receive at least 40 hours of instruction before assuming training duties (McCambell, 1987).

Trainer instruction is also an important part of the Reno Model. Properly preparing a trainer on needed program abilities requires a certified instructional course designed to last 40 hours (COPSb, 2006). Training includes instruction on the ability to apply problem based learning as a means to develop critical thinking abilities, associate learned proficiencies to upcoming activities, facilitate multiple learning needs, develop strategies to assist trainees, and guide trainees through problem solving exercises. At the completion of training, the trainer is expected to be able to create a proper learning environment for the trainee, complete needed documentation, act dually as a coach and role model, and function within departmental and program specifications.

Behavioral instructional approaches will continue to be an essential trainer skill. The law enforcement academy setting commonly uses behaviorism to test recruit competencies measurable to objective standards to satisfy preset legal requirements. Several law enforcement content areas are suited to use a behavioral approach to teach required competencies such as weapon use, defense and arrest tactics, emergency vehicle operation, and first aid skills.
Behavioral methods are ideal for these required competences to demonstrate proficiency, meet department standards, and qualify to legal accountabilities. FTP instruction in these content areas will likely continue as a means to enhance trainee abilities and satisfy department standards.

**Trainer Instruction in Adult Learning Applications**

Adapting FTP instructional methods to the adult learning based andragogy approach will be necessary to teach contemporary law enforcement applications to recruits with wide variations of experiences, expectations, and values (Birzer, 2004). Specific to adult learning methods applied to law enforcement training is the ability to influence critical thinking skills through collaboration, participation, discussion, and experience incorporation. Engaging the millennial generation of new officers will require this exact rethinking of instructional method that includes the precise conditions of participative training and encouraged experimentation (Black, 2010).

Both the San Jose and Reno training models recommend the use of adult learning methods in the instructional capacities of coaching and mentoring. Kaminsky (2002) explains that coaching in the San Jose Model should be arranged around the concept of teaching adults. Within this concept is the necessity to relate how learning objectives are realistically needed to motivate the trainee, the importance of accounting for the relative experience of the trainee, keeping the training focused on realistic problem solving, engaging the trainee in applying training skills, and the ability to use a variety of approaches to facilitate learning. Although the San Jose Model does operationalize many behavioral learning applications, adult learning methods used in coaching techniques are still recognized as important.
Adult learning methods in the Reno Model are far more prevalent as the basis of problem solving objectives. Adult learning principles developed by Malcolm Knowles are specifically incorporated into the Reno Model concept of PBL (COPSc, 2006). Use of adult learning principles in PBL begins with involving the trainee in developing learning designs and goals. Next, relevancy is integrated into the instructional materials to assist with the association of required knowledge to realistic applications. Trainee experience is integrated into training planning to facilitate meaningful knowledge transference. Additionally, trainers are expected to be able to convey learning objectives in an assortment of contextual approaches.

Trainers using an andragogical approach will require specific developmental education to use adult learning in a FTP. Typically, courses designed to prepare personnel to be trainers in a FTP focus on the technical aspects of police training with little time devoted to andragogy theory (McCoy, 2006). Training in technical aspects is needed to build necessary skills areas in prospective trainers, but to be effective in teaching within adult learning methods requires additional instructor courses designed for the development of abilities to teach in a mixture of training techniques. Instructor development courses can then be used to supplement the recommended training in either the San Jose or Reno Models to enhance trainer abilities to teach in a variety of methods, particularly with adult learning applications.

Operationalizing an andragogy approach to instruction within an FTP will require trainers to possess a particular collection of aptitudes. Trainers using an andragogical approach require exemplary communication skills that perpetuate instructional capabilities of transcending differing perspectives, an ability to convey understanding, and the ability to facilitate learning beyond the scope of the lesson plan (Birzer, 2004). Essential to this process of adult learning is the establishment of a relationship of reciprocal respect and cooperation.
Massoni (2009) lists essential trainer adult teaching skills as the requirement of employing an assortment of training methods, the necessity for mutual communication, the ability to assist trainees associate information, and a need to reinforce learning to ensure comprehension. Trainers must be versed in a variety of training methods to individualize training to the learning needs of the particular trainee. Mutual communication ensures the assimilation of learning materials through trainer dialog with the trainee intended to assess understanding. Assisting trainees associate information requires the relevant combination of previously learned material with new material that results in a greater knowledge base. Trainers are also required to facilitate the reinforcement of learned materials to ensure that subject matter can be applied to necessary training objectives.

Directly associated with the application of adult learning is the need to tailor the instructional content to the needs of the trainee. Chappell et al. (2010) identify a training need to customize training content to the specific abilities of the individual trainee. Fundamentally, trainers must comprehend the learning level and capacity of assigned trainees then adjust all training applications to the circumstances. Additionally, the complexity of modern law enforcement will likely require additional training time to compensate for discrepancies between recruit level competencies and the desired abilities needed to graduate from a FTP.

**Trainee Recommendations**

One initial way to accommodate issues with millennial trainees is to move away from an emphasis on lectures as a means of training (Werth & Werth, 2011). Lecture, as part of the cognitive learning theory, requires the ability to concentrate and eliminate distractions that would impede the content of the instructional presentation (Schunk, 2008). Further, cognitivism requires the individual ability to combine new information with stored information. Millennial
students commonly have decreased attention spans and are not accustomed to the complexity of combining newly learned material with previously learned material or material from other mediums (Black, 2010). Reliance on memorizing and evaluating knowledge is diminished in this generation as technology has created the ability to instantly search and acquire desired information.

Adjusting learning curriculums for effective training of the millennial generation will require a departure from lecture based training and the incorporation of technology (Werth & Werth, 2011). Material changes can include switching from hand written assignments and instructional manuals to keyboard entered documentation and computerized instructional assignments that capitalize on the millennial capabilities to network and search information (Black, 2010). Learning objectives can then capitalize on the ability of the millennial generation to acquire information, focus on the need to supply audio-visual training material, and avoid prolonged training activities that conflict with shorter attention spans. Training activities should provide instant gratification and resemble games instead of work functions.

One possible combination of training and technology is the assimilation of video games to law enforcement training objectives. Video games can enhance training for millennial generation recruits by providing significant opportunities to learn in an accustomed interactive environment that is entertaining and economical (Jensen III & Graves, 2013). Training in video games takes place in a virtual reality based environment that can address instructional content including realistic weapon use scenarios, cultural diversity applications, and interactive interrogation situations. Video game training has the beneficial outcomes of providing immediate gratification for trainees and inclusive documentable feedback for administrators. At present, use
of video game training for law enforcement applications has been implemented by the New York Police Department and the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center.

Harrison (2007) advocates the use of video game based training to effectively engage millennial generation recruits. Citing research on studies correlating millennial generation personnel experience with the use of video games, the author exemplifies the video game attractions of perpetuating a superstar status, ability to be in charge without any personal physical risk, the existence of perfect answers which are found by continual experimentation, and the composition of all interactions incorporating both structure and competitiveness. Enhancing the training of new recruits through video training is then an effective means to associate millennial personnel technological abilities and characteristics to a viable instructional platform.

**Summary**

Combing all of the best practice recommendations for administration, department, community service, trainer, and trainee are necessary to develop and maintain a FTP that will properly prepare law enforcement personnel for service within a specific agency. In addition, using adult learning methods in the FTP should function to engage trainees and instill needed critical thinking skills necessary for modern law enforcement responsibilities. Including updated training applications suited for the millennial generation personnel currently entering the profession should function to enhance effectiveness for the FTP and increase relevance for the trainees. Overall, the FTP should be in a constant state of evaluation to be functional to the needs of all personnel, organization, and community concerns.
Section VI: Conclusions

Operationalizing a FTP in a specific department will require more than the simple incorporation of either the San Jose or Reno training model. Consideration is necessary to integrate the particular influences from administration, department, community, trainers, and trainees. All of the influences will have a distinct effect on the resources, service demands, personnel abilities, and desired outcomes attributed to the FTP. Ultimately, the FTP used at an individual department is then best envisioned as adapting either the San Jose Model or Reno Model, or components of both, to the particular assets and requirements present in a manner that is relevant to the associated law enforcement personnel and the involved community.

The San Jose Model of field training combines specifically trained officers with new recruits during a prescribed instructional period for the purpose of teaching the new officer in actual law enforcement settings (McCampbell, 1987). This program also incorporates evaluations on the performance of new officers that can be used for both retraining purposes and as part of the hiring selection process. Variations of this model are used by the majority of law enforcement agencies in the nation through the designed adaptability to meet particular needs (Chappell, 2007). Without revision to encompass modern law enforcement responsibilities, the program will have a tendency to support traditional policing practices.

A field training program based on community policing problem solving objectives was created by the Reno, Nevada, Police Department (Schmalleger, 2009). This program is built on adult learning methods combined with problem based learning specifically adapted to modern law enforcement applications. The Reno Model has a prescribed structure that includes the presentation of substantive topics and core competencies during specific program phases.
(COPSb, 2006). Structuralized in the model is the use of journal entries, learning exercises, formal examinations, learning activities, and required exercises.

Administration has a considerable stake in both the content and the outcomes of the FTP. Responsibilities attributed to administration include the creation of a comprehensive FTP manual with clear goals and evaluation guidelines to perpetuate training requirements (Beaver, 2006). Overseeing the operation of the FTP to ensure accountability to program objectives, proper trainer selection, trainer preparation, and adherence to legal mandates are also administrative obligations.

Administrators must recognize that the financial costs and deployment of personnel necessary for training functions constitutes a substantial amount of department resources (Gaines & Kappeler, 2008). Jurisdictional size will have a strong influence on the ability to pay personnel, the expanse of hiring selection processes utilized, and the amount of training hours for each new officer in the FTP (Reaves, 2010). The jurisdictional size will also influence service delivery in community policing objectives and the ability to devote time for the training of new officers in community policing related skills.

Departmental influences in the form of structure and culture must be considered when developing and maintaining the content of a FTP. Structurally, departments are organized to deliver service to their constituents through traditional or progressive means. Training within a FTP must then be adjusted to the service delivery needs of the department. Without the comprehension of service needs, any reasonable gains from training efforts will be decreased and service delivery expectations will not be met (Miller & Hess, 2008).
Department culture is also an important part to consider for FTP acceptance and relevance. Incorporating social learning theory into the law enforcement environment is reasonable due to the presence of differential association, differential reinforcement, definitions, and imitation in typical police culture (Chappell & Piquero, 2004). Training is one of the more effective ways to instill positive aspects into the police culture (Ortmeier & Meese III, 2010). Through the FTP, the trainer can have a substantial influence by modeling and reinforcing positive behaviors which will have a long term effect on the desired attitudes and professionalism of the trainee (Sun, 2003).

Community service desires and social control preferences are crucial to understand and incorporate into FTP instructional compositions. Remaining relevant in a community will require a complete comprehension of these obligations as individual communities require distinctive types of law enforcement and desire particular services (Dunham & Alpert, 2010). Instruction in the FTP should be connected to philosophies related to community policing with evaluation guidelines anchored to associated aptitudes (Chappell, 2007). Developing aptitudes related to interpersonal skills and communication proficiencies in addition to a focus on decision making abilities should be a FTP instructional and evaluation emphasis.

Andragogy learning theory as a means of adult learning is important to operationalize as the primary means of instruction in a FTP. Adult learning methods are ideal to incorporate trainee experiences with instruction that emphasizes the relevance of the lesson into realistic law enforcement expectations and the development of critical thinking skills (Birzer, 2004). Millennial generation personnel currently entering the profession will benefit from interactive learning and encouraged collaboration (Black, 2010). Law enforcement service demands
involving the community policing philosophies of problem solving and collaboration are also suited for the learner focused andragogy approach (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001).

Preparing trainers with the necessary abilities to teach within adult learning methods will require additional, specialized training. In addition to the needed instruction on the operational needs of a FTP, trainers should also be provided with instructor development schooling to build necessary adult learning aptitudes (McCoy, 2006). Some of the aptitudes required for instruction within andragogy are communication proficiencies, promulgation of a learning environment, learning enablement, and the ability to teach to trainees with a variety of perspectives (Birzer, 2004).

Monitoring and adapting the FTP to the needs and characteristics of the involved trainees from the millennial generation will be necessary for the continued relevance of the program. Updated training should move away from cognitive learning applications that are contradictory to millennial generation needs and abilities (Werth & Werth, 2011). Incorporation of technological applications in the FTP to build on trainee preferences and abilities can include computerized instructional applications and capitalization on abilities to network as a means of collaborative learning (Black, 2010). Consideration of new training methods, such as instructional video games can serve dual purposes of engaging the trainee and providing documentable performance measures for FTP management (Jensen III & Graves, 2013).
References


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