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Police Education and Training: A Comparative Analysis of Law Enforcement Preparation in the United States and Canada

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POLICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF LAW ENFORCEMENT PREPARATION IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA

by

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ABSTRACT

POLICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF LAW ENFORCEMENT PREPARATION IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA

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Police academy training for newly hired officers varies across locations and regions in regard to both training process and training content. Initial police academy training and education develops the minds, career goals, and attitudes of future law enforcement officers who will be in charge of social order. The needs and demands of modern-day societies have evolved, and it is very important for police training academies to keep up with the practice of the police profession. Higher education adds value to police training as it reinforces the development of critical thinking skills and the necessary values needed to face the needs and demands of society, particularly in terms of accountability, professionalism, and legitimacy. This research presents a case study of two police training academies located in a Canadian urban province and in the Southern United States. These academies have been selected for the difference in the level of education required prior to attending initial police training at each academy.

The aim of this project is to determine similarities and differences in police training orientations across locations, to assess whether required higher education impacts trainee self-efficacy and motivation to learn during initial police training, as well as to identify whether motivation and self-efficacy are differently affected across locations.

Curricula from both locations were retrieved for analysis and comparison, questionnaires were used to examine students' motivation and self-efficacy pre- and post-police academy training, interviews of academy staff were used to understand the context of training, and examine the potential impact of higher education on trainee motivation and self-efficacy as according to instructors' previous experiences.

Findings of this comparative case study present similarities among curricula orientations, and in the trainee self-reported motivation and self-efficacy levels. The effect of higher education on trainee motivation and self-efficacy during initial police training could not be accurately assessed.

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DEDICATION

To my parents, who taught me to be determined, to never give up, and to always strive for success. Thank you for all you have done for me and for giving me the opportunity to accomplish my dreams and continue my education.

To my sisters, Atzin and Cuauhtli, who have always been there for me and encourage me every day to keep going even if it means not seeing each other for long periods of time. Je vous aime.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BA	Bachelor of Arts
BLEOST	Board on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Training
CTP	Cadet Training Program
DEC	*Diplôme d'Études Collégiales*
GED	General Education Diploma
PBLE	Problem Based Learning Exercise
POST	Peace Officer Standards and Training
RCMP	Royal Canadian Mounted Police

CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION

Society has evolved, policing practices have shifted, and the nature of police work has greatly expanded since the 20th century. It is imperative to ask if current law enforcement preparation and education are adequate. In the 21st century, it is essential to have educated and well-trained law enforcement officers capable of adequately performing their duties, taking into account all the changes of society and policing (Haberfeld, 2013; Roberg & Bonn, 2004). Basic training for new police recruits has been a subject of interest to many scholars. Researchers have found that certain factors such as motivation to learn, self-efficacy, and training expectations impacted course outcomes and trainee performance (Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000; Giran, Amin, & Halim, 2014; Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Klein, Noe, & Wang, 2006; Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1991). Tannenbaum and colleagues (1991) demonstrated that fulfillment of training expectations can influence the levels of trainee motivation and self-efficacy during the training period. The purpose of this comparative case study is to understand and describe similarities and differences in initial police training across two specific locations, while also looking at the potential effect of higher education on police cadets' motivation to learn and self-efficacy during the training period.

Police Education and Training

Basic police academy training varies across locations, but the British model of policing established by Sir Robert Peel in England during the 19th century served as the predominant model for policing in many countries such as the United States and Canada. Such policing models were established following the necessities of society at that time and as such they were modeled under a military-authoritarian organizational design

which is still in place in public police institutions both in Canada and the United States (Auten, 1976; Griffiths, Klein, & Verdun-Jones, 1980; Hodgson, 2001; Staufenberger & Stahl, 1974; Swank, 1974).

In 1909, August Vollmer established an ambitious police school program in California with the intent to professionalize and legitimize policing. Vollmer's training curriculum was used by many police departments throughout the United States and abroad; however, reforms to professionalize police training were slow and not always successful as many jurisdictions only provided a brief, basic, and often haphazard training (Haberfeld, 2013). In the United States, the 1967 President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice recommended the creation of a Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) commission in every state to set and implement minimum training requirements for the police profession (Haberfeld, 2013). The main purposes of the POST commissions included setting and approving curricula for recruit and in-service training, setting the required education for instructors, approving police training facilities, and certifying police officers who can "adequately perform the duties of the police service" following training (Haberfeld, 2013, p. 61).

Edwards (1993) conducted a study of basic training programs for state police officers. This study reflected that the variance in training programs was dependent upon the needs and requirements of police agencies. As of 1993, the length of police basic training programs was significantly shorter in terms of training hours compared to the length of other professions such as medicine and law (Edwards, 1993). According to Edwards, the inadequacy of police training programs had been previously observed by a

police scholar who declared: “Doctors bury their mistakes, while lawyers send theirs to jail. Unfortunately, untrained police officers do a little of both.” (Edwards, 1993, p. 23).

Initial police academy training and education develop the minds, career goals, and attitudes of future police officers who will be in charge of law enforcement and social order. Birzer and Tannehill (2001) stated the importance of basic police training as this is where “change, protocol, and philosophy are first introduced to police personnel” (p. 238). Haberfeld (2013) highlighted the importance of initial and continuing education as well as academy and in-service training in preparing law enforcement officers with the necessary “information and skills to meet the demands of the new millennium” (p. 13). Moreover, higher education adds value to police training of officers as it enhances the development of critical thinking skills and value systems fit to the needs and demands of modern-day society, particularly in the areas of professionalism, accountability and legitimacy (Paterson, 2011).

Important distinctions must be made between the concepts and goals of training and education (Chrismas, 2013). Training has been conceptualized by scholars mostly as a period in which trainees acquire and develop job-related skills (Chrismas, 2013). Goldstein and Ford (2002) defined training as “the systematic acquisition of skills, rules, concepts, or attitudes that result in improved performance in another environment” (p. 1). Haberfeld (2013) stated that “[t]he goal of training is to teach a specific method of performing a task or responding to a given situation” (p. 35). Kratcoski (2004) aligned with these definitions and described training as an acquisition of skills necessary for the completion of tasks and goals in policing.

Education, on the other hand, has been defined as a way to develop "the ability to conceptualize and expand the theoretical and analytical learning process" (Kratcoski, 2004, p. 104). Education also furthers the intellectual development of the person by enhancing the knowledge of "concepts, terms, policies, practices and theories" (Haberfeld, 2013, p. 34), and provides critical thinking skills needed in order to successfully and adequately manage different issues and situations (Chrismas, 2013).

Importance of Basic Training for New Recruits

Police academy training is where the immersion into both the police work and the police subculture begins. An example of the police subculture is the gendering cultural practice that has been termed by Prokos and Padavic (2002) as the "hidden curriculum," which is not a part of the curriculum and teachings of the academy per se, but is inherently taught to police recruits (p. 43). Another example of police subculture is the immersion in the "us versus them" mentality, in which the police are perceived as a different entity from society (Waddington, 1999, p. 287). These and other curriculum topics can be influential factors that are absorbed by recruits and appear in the future while in the field after becoming sworn officers. Wilson (1968) stated that beyond what the officer learned in training and his or her personal values, police department policies as enforced by the department administration may affect police officers' attitudes and decision-making while on the job. Therefore, the formal and informal training curricula, as well as officers' perceptions of the academy experience, may potentially affect trainee motivation and confidence, especially during basic training.

Law Enforcement Preparation in the United States and Canada

Police academy training varies across locations and regions with regard to both training process and training content. Depending upon states, provinces, and/or agencies in the United States and Canada, preparation at the police training academy can happen either pre- or post-employment (Lussier, 2004; myPolice.ca, 2014).

In Québec, New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Labrador, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island, the recruit training program must be completed pre-employment. This is also the case for the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) - Canada's national police - which provides federal, provincial, municipal, and First Nations policing services in every province and territory (Yukon, Northwest, and Nunavut territory). Cadets accepted to the RCMP must attend the Cadet Training Program (CTP) at the Depot, which is the RCMP Training Academy located in Regina, Saskatchewan. The CTP is an extensive 26-week training program that must be completed prior to employment with the RCMP (Royal Canadian Mounted Police, 2016).

In the United States, the usual minimum education requirement for entering the police academy is a high school or general education diploma (GED). However, this varies according to the jurisdiction and agency (Decker & Huckabee, 2002; Ho, 2004; Kratcoski, 2004; Roberg & Bonn, 2004). The length of police training also varies by state. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics, as of 2013, basic police training programs had an average length of 21 weeks (or 840 hours) - excluding required field training (Reaves, 2016).

In the Canadian province of interest, recruits must have completed a three year professional collegiate degree in police technology prior to attending the police training

academy. Consequently, it can be said that trainees in the Canadian province selected for inclusion in the current study know what they are getting into and that recruits' levels of motivation to learn and self-efficacy should not have drastic changes during the course of training. However, trainees in the selected Southern United States police academy may not have an idea of what they are getting into, or what to expect at a police instruction facility while attending training. Trainees in the selected Southern state with a post-secondary education might have higher expectations of police training, which, if not met, can affect their motivation to learn and self-efficacy during the training period.

Education, Motivation, Self-Efficacy, and Training

The education level of a trainee is hypothesized to increase recruits' training expectations. The fulfillment of such training expectations has been found to have an effect on trainees' motivation and self-efficacy during training, subsequently also affecting trainees' performance while in training (Tannenbaum et al., 19991). Noe (1986) noted that, if trainees believed in their capacity of learning the training material (self-efficacy) and could expect desirable outcomes from the acquisition of knowledge during the training period, this could influence their "motivation to learn the behavior, knowledge, or skills presented in the training program" (p. 741).

Motivation has been defined by Mitchell (1982) as "the degree to which an individual wants and chooses to engage in certain specified behaviors" (p. 82). Noe (1986) defined motivation to learn as a "specific desire of the trainee to learn the content of the training program" (p. 743). Bandura (1977) defined and theorized the concept of self-efficacy as a personal belief in ones' capability to produce given attainments. Motivation and self-efficacy are two important psychological processes that have been

found to influence training outcomes and performance (Colquitt et al., 2000; Giran et al., 2014; Klein et al., 2006; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). In this particular study, motivation is important as, in accordance with previous literature, it is believed to influence the trainee's perspectives, persistence, and self-efficacy during police training.

Problem Statement

Instruction received at the police training academy is normally the first glance police recruits have at what the law enforcement profession is like. In the United States, trainees without higher education may or may not have previous knowledge on what being a police officer encompasses. Therefore, trainees without a college degree may have different ideas and expectations about police training than trainees with a college degree prior to entering the police academy as those with a higher education may have some understanding of the subject. In the selected Canadian province for this case comparison, trainees are expected to have a degree of understanding of the profession after the required three year collegiate program on police technology and, therefore, should know what to expect at the police training academy. Recruits' education level and instruction during initial police training varies across locations, and this variation could have an impact on trainees' motivation to learn and self-efficacy, which, in turn, could also affect their performance as future law enforcement officers. This case comparison aims to understand and determine best practices in police education and training for law enforcement preparation.

Importance of the Current Study

Scholars have looked at the relationship of several factors such as motivation, self-efficacy, education, expectation, training fulfillment, course outcomes, methods of

instruction, and performance on professional training (Colquitt et al., 2000; Giran et al., 2014; Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Klein et al., 2006; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Researchers have also studied and compared police training across countries (Das, 1993; Haberfeld, 2013; Hodgson, 2001; Paterson, 2011). No research, however, specifically focused on the impact of higher education on motivation to learn and self-efficacy at a police training academy is known to the researcher. The question of such impact is important and must be answered in order to enhance training for future law enforcement officers. Police officers face different types of situations and interact with persons from all walks of life. Law enforcement officers should be trained and educated to adapt and respond adequately to the evolving needs and changes in an ever-growing, diverse, and multicultural society (Frenette, 1991; Haberfeld, 2013). As Hodgson (2001) stated, "Society has changed, but the police have not changed with it" (p. 533). In policing, a combination of education and training would be beneficial not only to police recruits during their initial training, but also in the future as sworn officers, in their relationships with the community, and in their responses when encountering diverse situations.

In comparing initial police training between the selected locations, a Southern state in the United States and a Canadian urban province, the purpose of this comparative case study is not only to identify similarities and differences between initial police training in the selected locations, but also - more importantly - to fill a gap in the literature and demonstrate that holding a college degree prior to completing basic police training may, in fact, affect trainee motivation to learn as well as self-efficacy during initial police training. This study examines if a higher education requirement has differential impacts on trainee motivation to learn and confidence in performing tasks

during initial police training. The psychological measures of motivation and self-efficacy could also affect recruits' performance and understanding while at the police training academy and potentially influence job performance in the future (Colquitt et al., 2000; Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Klein et al., 2006). An important factor to be considered in this study is the appropriateness of initial police training teachings; in fact, scholars have argued that training needs to meet the expectations of trainees in order to be successful, as training fulfillment has been found to influence commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation (Tannenbaum et al., 1991).

It is the aim of this research to answer the primary question of whether higher education impacts police training, particularly motivation to learn and self-efficacy during training at the initial police academy. The conclusions of this study are intended to benefit police training academies by providing insight into practices or standards that could improve recruits' learning experience and post-training readiness to enter the profession.

CHAPTER II – LITERATURE REVIEW

"Society Has Changed, but the Police Have Not Changed With It"

Hodgson stated that "[s]ociety has changed, but the police have not changed with it" (Hodgson, 2001, p. 533). This statement highlights the issue observed by many scholars that police have not kept up with the changes and evolutions of society and the police role, including education of law enforcement officers (Bradford & Pynes, 1999; Chrismas, 2013; Dantzker, 1994; Edwards, 1993; Haberfeld, 2013; Kratcoski, 2004; Roberg & Bonn, 2004). Requiring a certain educational level from police trainees prior to attending initial police training is one of the changes that can be noted in addressing societal demands and the expansion of the police role. The current study will observe the effect trainee education has on initial police training curricula and on their motivation to learn and self-efficacy during training.

Evolution of Society and Stagnation of Policing

During the 20th century, society rapidly evolved, mostly in relation to technology and globalization (Chrismas, 2013; Cordner & Shain, 2011; Haberfeld, 2013; McCoy, 2006). Society's needs and demands have changed; many scholars have highlighted the fact that police practices have not changed along with these advances, but have stuck to a paramilitary structure focusing on the "technical and mechanical aspects of policing" (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010, p. 190). Moreover police training has not fully evolved to embrace and respond to the needs and demands of modern-day society. Focusing on the "technical and mechanical aspects of policing" provides a perfect setting for the socialization of new recruits into a paramilitary structure of traditional policing as well as the furthering of the police subculture (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010, p. 190).

Chrismas (2013) noted that "police work has … become more intellectually demanding" (p. 44), therefore police officers nowadays must be able to show their legitimacy, accountability, and professionalization as well as use critical thinking skills when responding to a variety of situations (Paterson, 2011; Werth, 2011). One way of achieving this is by emphasizing the importance of higher education for police officers. Dantzker (1994) noted that "the complexity of the job, human nature, and the legal system demand a better educated recruit than individuals with a high school education." (p. 217). Scholars have identified many deficiencies in police training as a result of society's evolution and the resulting shift from a traditional policing training model towards a community oriented policing perspective (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Bradford & Pynes, 1999; Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Chrismas, 2013; Cordner & Shain, 2011; Haberfeld, 2013; McCoy, 2006).

Deficiencies in Police Training.

Past research highlights the importance of academy standards on police performance. Bradford and Pynes (1999) discussed deficiencies in police training curricula in the United States by stating that the role of police officers historically expanded from law enforcement to problem-solving, and therefore "training methods and curriculum needs must also be targeted to assist police officers in fulfilling their expanded responsibility" (p. 284). Peterson (1997) noted that "[m]odern policing calls for modern police education" (p. 21) and that applied instruction in research and analysis would be very beneficial for criminal justice graduates and law enforcement officers. Werth (2011) reinforced this statement by suggesting that changes to officer training did not coincide with changes in police practices. Police academy training curricula in the

United States have been observed, discussed, analyzed, and compared (Birzer, 1999; Birzer, 2003; Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Bradford & Pynes, 1999; Chappell, 2008; Haberfeld, Clarke, & Sheehan, 2012; Hayes, 2002; Hundersmarck, 2009; McCoy, 2006). Ideas and tools for a cost-analysis model of police training were presented by Hayes (2002) with the intention of providing police trainers with ideas of the opportunity cost that could come from providing and not providing basic training.

Trainees and Police Training

Police training is important and has been a subject of interest for many scholars. Several questions have arisen regarding police academy training in the United States such as whether police academy training influenced recruits' integrity (Blumberg, Giromini, & Jacobson, 2016), as well as whether personal qualifications could predict performance during training, and if performance at the academy could in turn predict future success as sworn officers (Henson, Reyns, Klahm, & Frank, 2010). Henson and colleagues (2010) looked at recruits' education level as a personal qualification that could influence performance during training, but found that it was not related to the measures used in their analyses when looking at predictors of academy or job success. When computers became widely used among society and law enforcement, authors recognized the need for the integration of computer training in police academies (McCoy, 2006). This showed the importance given to adequate and up-to-date training in policing.

Conditions of training have also been studied and found to influence trainees' experience. Goldstein and Ford (2002) highlighted the importance of motivation to learn and pre-training preparation and noted that "to benefit from any form of training, [trainees] must be ready to learn, that is they must have the particular background

experiences necessary for being successful in the training program, and they must be motivated to learn" (p. 110). Hicks and Klimoski (1987) found that trainees with a realistic preview and who were granted the freedom to choose whether or not to participate in the training profited more, were more committed, and satisfied with the training than their counterparts who did not have the freedom to choose to participate, or who received a more traditional positive announcement of training. Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas and Cannon-Bowers (1991) demonstrated in their study the importance of fulfilling training expectations as this was found to influence trainee commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation.

From Traditional to Community Oriented Policing

Studies focus on the policing shift from the reactive and incident-based traditional teaching approach to the more proactive community policing era emphasizing andragogical methods of instruction, communication, problem-solving, crime prevention, and cultural diversity (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Chappell, 2008). In Chappell's study, curricula from police training academies in Florida were distinguished according to their focus - traditional policing or community oriented policing - and compared to see if the type of curriculum taught affected recruits' academy performance (Chappell, 2008). Chappell first examined if recruits' background characteristics (age, race and ethnicity, gender, education, military experience, special position in the training program, and type of curriculum followed) affected their performance during police basic recruit training under two different models of curriculum. Chappell then analyzed predictors of recruit academy performance depending on the curriculum followed (traditional or community oriented focus) and found that police recruits following a community oriented curriculum

were not more successful at the academy than those under a traditional curriculum. However, recruits with higher education performed better in the community policing curriculum model, which is a more academic environment, than their less-educated counterparts following the same instruction curriculum. Education positively influenced recruits' academy scores in the full sample and the sample consisting of recruits who were taught under the community oriented policing curriculum model. A reason for this was that the community focused curriculum rewarded recruits with skills associated with the community policing approach, and that more educated recruits had higher critical thinking skills, therefore "[making] better decisions and [being] more sophisticated problem solvers and communicators, compared to their less-educated counterparts" (Chappell, 2008, p. 52). Chappell's finding that higher educated police recruits did better in the community policing curriculum than those without a college or associates' degree, demonstrated that higher education is important and goes hand-in-hand with the community oriented policing shift, providing educated and better trained officers with the adequate and necessary tools needed for policing in modern-day society (Chappell, 2008; Chrismas, 2013; Haberfeld, 2013).

Scholars have noted the change of focus in police work from reactive to proactive in order to provide adequate responses to the needs of different communities (Bradford & Pynes, 1999; Oettmeier & Wycoff, 1994). Bradford and Pynes (1999) addressed deficiencies in police training curricula by analyzing and categorizing them as task- or cognitive-oriented according to their content. In their study, Bradford and Pynes (1999) concluded by proposing that "task-oriented training be supplemented with training in problem-solving, decision-making and interpersonal skills to prepare recruits for their

role as community-oriented police officers" (p. 297). This was influenced by the change of perspective in policing from a traditional, reactive, authoritarian, paramilitary organizational training approach to a more proactive approach in line with the shifts in local communities.

Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce (2010) observed recruit training at a police training academy that had newly introduced a community oriented policing curriculum for training. Their results suggested that the lessons learned in a paramilitary bureaucratic organizational environment were strongly embedded in the recruits, despite the philosophical emphasis of the curriculum used in training. This could be related not only to the environment of the training, and the immersion into police subculture, but also to the instructional techniques adopted during training.

Proposed Instructional Techniques for Adult Learning in Police Training

Andragogy vs. Pedagogy in Police Training

Pedagogical approaches are used in many learning environments as an instruction method. However, researchers have explored the effect of other techniques for adult learning such as problem-based learning or *andragogy*. Taylor and Kroth (2009) created a teaching model to "help determine the level of adult learning principles being used by a particular teaching style in a classroom" (p. 53) and determined whether such principles were pedagogical or andragogical. Pedagogical teaching approaches are lecture methods in which students have little input in the learning experience (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001) and assume that the student is dependent upon the instructors' knowledge and experience; whereas andragogical approaches are "an organized and sustained effort to assist adults to

learn in a way that enhances their capacity to function as self-directed learners" (Mezirow, 1981, p. 21).

Birzer and Tannehill (2001) discussed the use of andragogy as a more effective approach for police training in this era of community oriented policing, as a way for trainees to become more active and involved in their learning. This would permit trainees not only to acquire knowledge, but also to conceptualize and understand the teachings. Birzer and Tannehill (2001) discussed the value and benefits of using andragogical teaching approaches in a variety of subjects in the police training curriculum such as interpersonal communications, cultural diversity, problem solving, mediation and conflict resolution, and police-community relations. Birzer (2003) compared the concepts of traditional policing pedagogy and adult-learning andragogy in police training, and concluded that applying the theory of andragogy to police training may improve the learning transaction and can be very beneficial for trainees. Birzer justified this as a police-training approach better suited to the changing police profession in the community policing oriented era. According to Birzer, the use of andragogy in police training is a more effective way of preparing future law enforcement officers in this community-oriented policing era. Supporting the andragogical approach, Birzer and Tannehill (2001) recognized the importance of recruits' engagement during the learning process in order for "effective training to take place" (p. 238). In 2003, Birzer reiterated the usefulness of applying andragogy to police training as an improvement in the "teaching-learning transaction" (Birzer, 2003, p. 38).

Andragogy Instruction through Problem-Based Learning in Police Training

One of the approaches used to apply andragogy in police training in the United States is the use of problem-based learning (Vander Kooi & Palmer, 2014; Werth, 2011). Problem-based learning often utilizes scenario-based training and is seen as a more proactive way of teaching in which lessons are student-centered and instructors are seen as facilitators (Barrows, 1996). The aim of problem-based learning is to enhance trainee skills such as problem-solving, collaboration, and decision-making among police recruits (Werth, 2011). The method of instruction used in basic recruit police training is important as it may play a role in the motivation, self-efficacy, and performance of the trainee during the training period. According to Birzer and Tannehill (2001), the application of andragogy as a police training approach renders police officers more active and involved in the training, as well as more self-directed, therefore increasing the reflection on the trend of community oriented policing. This ensures that trainees not only learn and acquire a specific set of skills and knowledge, but also develop higher-level thinking skills, understanding, and experience different methods of responding to situations. Vander-Kooi and Palmer (2014) found in one of the four modules covered in their study that students who were taught under the problem-based learning methodology were perceived to have acquired higher and improved problem-solving and critical thinking skills compared to students taught under the traditional lecture method. However, the results obtained in their study were mixed and the authors were not able to give major conclusions in relation to problem-based learning methods (Vander-Kooi & Palmer, 2014). Werth concluded that the implementation of a problem-based learning exercise (PBLE) was beneficial for recruits at police training academies as "[s]tudents learn

concurrently the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to be an effective peace officer in a community-oriented and problem-oriented environment" (Werth, 2011, p. 337). The reported lessons learned by staff and students in Werth's study were organization, the creation of a positive learning environment, to be flexible, the importance of communication among program coordinators, facilitators, and role players to make sure that everything was ready and in place before scheduled PBLE events; the importance of realistic training in regards to equipment and possible gadgets needed to mirror real-life situations, permitting recruits to have real experiences instead of imagining them; to expect challenges, to gather student feedback, and the importance of acknowledging learning gaps and how to fix them. Limitations such as the cost of the program, staff commitment, and resistance from students and staff to self-directed learning were also addressed by the author.

Benefits of Andragogy in Police Training

The use of andragogical instruction methods in police training appears to be highly beneficial for trainees not only because it allows recruits to learn to understand the information given to them instead of just mechanically processing it, but also because it allows them to practice and have experience in different areas, as well as to develop critical thinking skills (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Mezirow, 1981; Vander Kooi & Palmer, 2014; Werth, 2011). The use of andragogical methods of instruction could be a beneficial factor to improve or keep high levels of motivation to learn among police cadets during basic recruit police training.

Higher-Education and Police Training

Roberg and Bonn (2004) stated that "[b]eing well versed in the latest crime fighting technology will not suffice, unless it is accompanied by an awareness of social context" (p. 478). One can infer from this statement the importance of higher education in the law enforcement profession. Indeed, police training is where cadets receive instruction in many aspects of policing such as techniques, protocols, rules, and subculture of the profession. Social context keeps changing, the public is more educated, the police role has expanded, and law enforcement officers should be able to manage different situations using analytical thinking skills and becoming "more sensitive to the community in which they operate." (Roberg & Bonn, 2004, p. 478; Chrismas, 2013; Cordner & Shain, 2011; Frenette; 1991; Haberfeld, 2013).

Hodgson (2001) discussed police violence in Canada and the United States and how the "paramilitary organizational structure … permits, propagates, and facilitates the use of violence" (p. 521). Hodgson analyzed public police organizational structures, the implications and dysfunctions of the paramilitary authority structure, the role and function of the public police, the consequences of role confusion and training practices, police subculture, and the legitimization of violence through the police paramilitary structure and the training process, as well as police reforms towards "non-violent crisis intervention and non-lethal response to conflict" (p. 539). Through this assessment, Hodgson revealed that the traditional paramilitary organizational structure of the police along with the traditional curricula of police training, followed an authoritarian ideological structure which does not go hand-in-hand with how society has evolved, and the needs and challenges presented today to police officers. Policing, which has

historically been more centered on a reactive, law enforcement, order maintenance approach, assumed that use of force was somehow less accountable among their activities (Hodgson, 2001). However, society and the challenges facing policing have changed and police services (and police training) should not be stuck in an authoritarian ideology, but rather accept today's society demands and progress accordingly (Bradford & Pynes, 1999). Hodgson (2001) highlighted that the police social service and order maintenance roles need to be recognized and police officers need to be educated "to resolve social conflicts in an effective and efficient way" (p. 534) in order to improve police-community relations. Higher education before training is important in this sense as it will help enhance trainees' thinking skills, problem-solving, race relations, and community-relations. As Hodgson (2001) stated: "[Police] training is not geared to meet the many diverse needs of today's communities. Quite simply, police officers are not often being trained adequately on how to deal with people" (p. 533).

Pichonnaz (2011) studied the obstacles faced by a police school in Switzerland in regards to police-community relations and the traditional perception of the police professional culture by focusing on reforms on teachings of interpersonal and physical-technical skills. The aim of the reform on interpersonal skills teaching discussed by Pichonnaz is to fight against the "us-versus-them" mentality, help future police officers not to profile someone based on racial or ethnical traits, religious convictions, attitudes, and age. Most importantly, Pichonnaz (2011) stated that "l'idée selon laquelle la formation permet d'acquérir des « bases », établit une *continuité* entre la formation et l'entrée dans la pratique du métier" (the idea of acquiring the basic teachings at the police academy establishes a continuity between training and on-the-job performance, p. 339).

Benefits of Higher Education in Police Training

Scholars have raised their voices regarding the increasing complexity of the nature of the police role and the shift towards community policing, calling for the necessity of more educated police officers (Chrismas, 2013; Haberfeld, 2013; Paterson, 2011; Roberg & Bonn, 2004). Scholars have also alluded to the important influence of higher education in police training, specifically with the policing shift towards the community-policing-oriented ideology. The need for college-educated officers to address the demands of this complex modern-day society was made public by the 1967 President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice report, even though such recommendations seem to have been mostly disregarded or maladapted. Roberg and Bonn (2004) noted that in policing, "the initial requirement of a high school diploma … occurred at a time when most of the nation's population did not finish high school. Thus, a requirement of high school education actually identified individuals with an above-average level of education" (p. 469). Radelet and Carter (1994) supported the critical nature of the need of better educated personnel as "the knowledge and skills [learned during training] officers are being asked to exercise in community policing appears to be tailored to college preparation" (p. 156).

Alain and Crête (2009) studied continuous training as a subject of negotiations in public and private policing, but they asserted the importance of training relevance to the job to be performed. When looking at private and public policing, Alain and Crête (2009) reiterated the importance given to specific higher education in the Canadian province of Québec prior to attending the provincial police training academy. Indeed, in this province, "a police officer cannot be sworn without first passing through three years in a

specific college police formation and a mandatory fifteen weeks of final training at the École nationale de police du Québec" (p. 87).

Chrismas (2013) distinguished education and training and affirmed the benefits of higher education for police officers as a means to develop their "mental acuity and awareness, providing the cognitive skills essential for thinking critically and avoiding the pitfalls of tunnel vision and groupthink while respecting and taking advantage of diversity" (p. 113-114). Furthermore, Chrismas recognized that in order to appropriately meet the demands and challenges of modern day policing, specialized training and continuing education are important for police officers. Higher education, or continuing education, provides future recruits with the necessary tools for the demands of modern-day society such as critical-thinking skills, communication, cooperation, and race-relations. Chrismas (2013) also mentioned that "education does not necessarily improve professionalism" (p. 123); "advanced education creates opportunities" (p. 124); and "character and values are more significant in policing than the added skills that advanced education develops" (p. 123).

Ho (2004) examined whether educational disparities in police applicants influenced the police department's recruitment decisions. Ho (2004) found that "the effect of education on police department recruitment decisions was not statistically significant" (p. 23). Therefore, the analyzed police department's decision to hire or not to hire an applicant was not found to be predicted by the applicant's education level. It was also found in this study that character and values were more significant than education in police recruitment. Ho's (2004) analyses showed that the recruitment decisions of the police department studied were "statistically correlated with recruitment-related testing

results, except the written exam" (p. 23). Truxillo, Bennett, and Collins (1998) examined the value of educational measures such as degree earned (associate's, bachelor's, or higher), grade point average, number of years in school, and college credit hours in criminal justice, in regards to job performance (supervisory performance ratings, promotions, salary) in law enforcement over a ten year period. Truxillo and colleagues (1998) found that having a college education was a beneficial and relevant asset in law enforcement, however, it was not found to predict all areas of job performance as higher education had a statistically significant relationship with promotions and supervisory ratings, but results were inconsistent in regards to discipline problems.

Paterson (2011) reviewed current international literature in English on the role of higher education in police training and education in order to assess whether higher education has been found to add value to police training and education. Paterson (2011) looked at different locations including England and Wales, the United States, Australia, India, and the European Union, and remarked that, worldwide, "traditional policing functions have extended beyond the role of peace-keeping and law enforcement to incorporate problem-solving, technological innovations, transnational crimes and crime prevention strategies" (p. 288).

When looking at the United States, Paterson (2011) mentioned two different bodies of literature regarding the benefits higher education brings to police officers. In the 1970s, more advantages than disadvantages were observed by researchers as they found that college educated officers were less cynical, less authoritarian, and had more flexible values – not as a result of a criminology or criminal justice degree, but by their university experiences – as compared to their non-university educated counterpart.

However, the literature from the 1990s suggested a complete shift in the perceptions of college educated officers as they seemed to be more authoritarian, cynical, with lower ethics, and bad public perception (Carlan, 2007; Paoline & Terrill, 2007; Paterson, 2011).

Overall, many scholars have found diverse benefits of higher education for training following the expansion of the police role. These include the development of critical thinking skills, on-the-job performance, professionalism, legitimacy, accountability, creativity, cultural diversity awareness, value systems, and the "appreciation of the importance of global issues and their impact upon crime at the local level" (Paterson, 2011, p. 295; Hodgson, 2001; Roberg & Bonn, 2004; Vander-Kooi & Palmer, 2014; Werth, 2011). Heslop (2011) examined the perceptions of the university subculture on police officers who went back to obtain a higher education after being in service and noted that higher education could be beneficial for police officers in England if it were to happen before service as the university subculture was found to be perceived negatively by the participating officers and counterproductive for the police officers that participated in the study.

Disadvantages of Required Higher Education for Police Training

Some scholars have discussed the possibility of discriminatory practices that could emerge from requiring higher education prior to attending police training. When discussing post-secondary education requirements as a hiring prerequisite in Canada, Chrismas (2013) noted that such practices could end up discriminating against Canadian Aboriginal peoples. Decker and Huckabee (2002) discussed this discriminatory possibility as well, but against women and minority groups in a particular police department in the United States, when assessing the impact raising age and education

requirements for police officers could have. Decker and Huckabee (2002) acknowledged the importance of highly educated police officers, noting that the knowledge learned - and not the degree - is what is important as "not all college educations are created equal" (p. 793). In this study, Decker and Huckabee (2002) found that changing the age requirement would not have a disproportionate effect on women or minorities, and that a higher education requirement would eliminate a large number of successful applicants, having a greater impact on successful black female applicants.

Roberg and Bonn (2004) contended that such discriminatory effects against minorities in the United States could be managed through an "aggressive recruitment strategy" (p. 481), noting that having a "competitive salary scale, good employment benefits and high quality working conditions" (p. 481) would also be helpful recruitment strategies. Roberg and Bonn (2004) discussed a couple of legal cases and sustained that it would be possible to require higher education in law enforcement as "police decision making required an added dimension of judgment" (p. 479), therefore, if the advantages of requiring higher education outweigh the potential discriminatory advantages, then it "would be considered a business necessity, and thus a legitimate requirement for successful job performance" (p. 480).

The Importance of Motivation and Self-Efficacy in Police Training

Motivation to learn and self-efficacy have been found by scholars to be influential factors in training performance and success. Motivation to learn has been defined as a trainee's desire to learn the content of a training program (Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000; Noe, 1986). This desire to learn should in turn be influenced by the degree of commitment the trainee has to learn the material as well as to "try out, practice, and

implement the new knowledge in future settings" (Hicks & Klimoski, 1987, p. 543). Colquitt, LePine, and Noe (2000) conducted a literature search from articles related to training motivation and effectiveness since 1975 and identified several individual and situational characteristics believed to influence individual behavior and training. The individual characteristics identified by Colquitt and colleagues (2000) include personality variables which were referred to as "relatively stable characteristics of individuals (other than ability) that influence their cognition and behavior" (p. 679). Achievement motivation and locus of control were found by other scholars to be wider personality traits linked to motivation to learn and attitudes toward training than those included in the Big Five - openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism - (Colquitt et al., 2000; Mathieu, Martineau, & Tannenbaum, 1993; Noe, 1986). Job involvement, organizational commitment, career commitment, career exploration, career planning, self-efficacy, valence ("individual's beliefs regarding the desirability of outcomes obtained from training" [Colquitt et al., 2000, p. 680]), and demographic variables such as gender, age and cognitive ability were other personality traits linked to motivation to learn and training attitudes. The situational characteristics identified by Colquitt and peers (2000) when looking at previous research were climate ("characteristics of the work environment that influence the use of training content on the job" [p. 681]), manager support, and peer support. Colquitt and colleagues (2000) also concluded by mentioning that "[t]rainers would benefit from using techniques that increase trainee efficacy and emphasize job and career benefits of training" (p. 702). Klein, Noe, and Wang (2006) looked at motivation to learn and course outcomes in relation to teaching methods (in-class versus blended learning) and established the

importance of the perception of the environment and environmental features by students in their motivation to learn. Klein and colleagues (2006), found that students who had a high learning goal-orientation and favorable perception of their learning environment as well as factors associated with it, such as the instruction method used (blended learning versus face-to-face), as enablers rather than barriers to success, were more successful in the outcomes of the courses and had significantly higher motivation to learn.

Locke and Latham's (1990, 2002) goal-setting theory of motivation noted the important relationship between goal setting and performance. According to this theory, goals need to be specific, accepted, challenging, and effective when evaluating performance. Deadlines are also important as they improve goals' effectiveness: having specific and challenging goals with a time limit is better for the person's motivation and performance. The importance of goal specificity in training is reaffirmed by Haberfeld (2013): "the first and most important goal of academy training would be to convey to the 'new believer' an understanding of what police work is all about" (p. 62). This is very important as basic training is usually the first encounter recruits have with the reality of policing, what is expected from them as future sworn law enforcement officers, as well as the philosophical approaches, and protocol to follow (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Hicks and Klimoski (1987) analyzed whether the type of information provided prior to training (realistic or overly positive and optimistic) and the degree of choice to participate in the training program had an effect on learning and training outcomes. They also found that the realism of the information received prior to training did not influence learning, but that participants with higher freedom to participate had higher test scores and reportedly learned more from the training program than those without much degree of choice;

however, no “significant effects [were found] on role playing performance” (Hicks & Klimoski, 1987, p. 548)

Albert Bandura defined self-efficacy as one’s belief in their capability to perform a specific task or “produce given attainments” (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1997; Bandura, 2006, p. 307; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Moreover, Bandura (1977) identified four principal sources of information in relation to self-efficacy: “performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states [or emotional arousal]” (p. 195). Williams, Kessler, and Williams (2014) analyzed the relationship between practice change, motivation, and self-efficacy in regards to continuing medical education activity learning and found that there is a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy, motivation to change, and global intent to change. Indeed, Williams and colleagues (2014) found that high levels of self-efficacy predicted high levels of motivation to change, which in turn were found to also predict intent to change practice patterns in continuing medical education activity learning. Giran, Amin, and Halim (2014) studied the impact of self-efficacy on training motivation in employees at Kolej Poly-Tech MARA Kuantan and found a moderate positive relationship of self-efficacy on training motivation; self-efficacy was found to have an important influence on training motivation.

Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, and Cannon-Bowers (1991) observed the influence of training fulfillment on commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation and studied how pre-training expectations, desires, and future perceptions of training, affected post-training developments in motivation, self-efficacy and commitment. Training fulfillment was conceptualized as “the extent to which training meets or fulfills a trainee’s expectations

and desires" (Tannenbaum et al., 1991, p. 760). The study conducted by Tannenbaum and colleagues (1991) took place in a socialization-type training environment (a U.S. Naval Recruit Training Command) and found that "socialization training can influence trainee's feelings of commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation and that fulfilling trainee's expectations and desires can play an important role in the development of posttraining attitudes" (p. 765).

The findings in Tannenbaum and colleagues' (1991) study demonstrated improvements in trainees' self-efficacy and organizational commitment but reduction in training motivation from the beginning to the end of the training. Training is the first socialization process someone encounters when entering an organization and as such it shapes trainees' perceptions, attitudes, impressions, and values for their future in the workplace. According to these studies, training fulfillment is an important factor for the development of trainees' organizational commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation. As such, training programs should somehow meet trainees' expectations and desires, set explicit goals, show trainees the reality of the work they will be performing as well as the tasks and situations likely to be encountered in the future. This is what makes a successful program, not only benefitting recruits during the training period, but also the organization and the public in the future (Hicks & Klimoski, 1987; Locke & Latham, 1990, 2002; Lunenburg, 2011; Tannenbaum et al., 1991).

The studies aforementioned (Colquitt et al., 2000; Giran, et al., 2014; Klein et al., 2006; Tannenbaum et al., 1991; Williams, et al., 2014) examine the relationship of motivation and self-efficacy in different types of training (students, continuing medical education students, employees) and showed a significant relationship among these two

factors. However, no current research explores the potential effect of higher education on training motivation and self-efficacy.

The Importance of Training Locale

In the United States, law enforcement training is not standardized across the country either in terms of content or required hours for certification (Palmiotto, Birzer, & Unnithan, 2000). Police training programs vary on a state-by-state basis. Haberfeld (2013) presented three types of police training in the United States: in-house, state, and regional, as well as three types of police academies identified as agency, regional, and college sponsored. Haberlfeld (2013) identified the content and relevance of the modules in modern policing as a critical issue in police training today.

Police training requirements and standards in the United States are mostly regulated by state boards, such as the Board on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Training (BLEOST). Standard minimum requirements must be met in order to become a law enforcement officer in all states such as being at least 21 years of age, being a U.S. citizen, and not having a felony conviction. In the Southern state of interest for this study, the educational requirement for applicants is to have a high school diploma or general education diploma (GED).

Law enforcement training also varies from province-to-province in Canada. Despite the nonexistence of a national training standard for Canadian police, there is a method of equivalency between most federal, provincial, and police training institutions (myPolice.ca, 2014). Formal education in policing begins before starting a policing career, including continuous learning after public education or continuous leaning after having completed training at the police academy. The minimum requirements applicants

must meet in order to be potentially hired are established by each province (as in the United States) and vary only slightly. Lussier (2004) stated that the following requirements were included:

> be Canadian citizens or landed immigrants; be of good character and display good habits; not have been convicted of a criminal offence for which they were not pardoned; be physically and mentally suited to performing the duties of a police officer; be at least 18 years of age in certain provinces and 19 in other provinces; possess a valid driver's licence. (p. 152)

The level of education required to attend police training is determined by each province. Some provinces require having a high school diploma whereas others require interested applicants to have post-secondary education or specialized training (Lussier, 2004). Police training in some Canadian provinces occurs post-employment, except for the Royal Canadian Mounted Police whose recruits must complete training before becoming officers of the peace at Depot in Regina, Saskatchewan. In the Canadian location of interest for this study, post-secondary education is mandatory followed by basic/recruitment training in order to be hired (Lussier, 2004). Frenette (1991) explained in detail the history of police training in a specific Canadian province, its content, the particularity of its police technology program, the objectives of the police training and their importance. Frenette (1991) concluded her discussion by stating that policing requires a special, polyvalent, and up-to-date training as police officers serve a public more informed and educated, therefore they must satisfy their expectations and necessities (p. 455). This is valid not only for Canadian policing, but for worldwide policing.

As can be seen from the reviewed literature, studies have addressed the important relationship of motivation to learn, self-efficacy, training fulfillment, training outcomes, performance, education, instruction methods, curriculums used in police training, and other variables.

Present Study

This case comparison is unique in that it intends to fill a gap in the literature by examining and analyzing the potential impact of education on trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy during basic recruit police training, while also observing the interaction of these variables (education, motivation, and self-efficacy) in two different locations.

The present study analyzes and compares police training academy curricula in two specific locations: a police training academy located in the Southern United States and a police training academy located in a Canadian urban province. Comparing two different criminal justice systems' police training curricula provides a comparative view of the impact of education on course content and trainee engagement.

This comparative case study explores if higher education, signified by a bachelor's degree or Canadian equivalency (diploma of collegial studies in this case), impacts the contents of academy curricula as well as trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy, both measurements of psychological processes that indicate a trainee's engagement in their preparation during initial police training. Trainees with a higher education degree may have higher expectations on what law enforcement initial preparation is like and what is taught at the police training academy than their less-educated counterparts. Training expectations are envisioned to differently influence recruits' motivation to learn and self-efficacy depending on their educational level.

CHAPTER III - METHODOLOGY

Previous training evaluation research has found relationships among certain factors such as trainees' expectations of training, motivation to learn, self-efficacy, instructional method, outcomes, and performance in training (Birzer, 2003; Birzer, & Tannehill, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2000; Giran et al., 2014; Goldstein, & Ford, 2002; Klein et al., 2006; Tannenbaum et al., 1991; Taylor, & Kroth, 2009; Williams et al., 2014). Using andragogical methods of instruction in police training has been found to be beneficial for trainees with a higher education diploma, particularly when following a community policing oriented curricula as it provides trainees with knowledge, methods, and a set of skills that will be highly beneficial in the future such as analysis and decision making skills (Birzer, 2003; Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Chappell, 2008; Taylor & Kroth, 2009). The instructional methods could in turn affect trainees' motivation to learn: Klein and colleagues (2006) found that motivation to learn was significantly related to course satisfaction and other outcomes such as metacognition and grades obtained during training. Tannenbaum and colleagues (1991) also noted that expectations of training were shown to have an influential role on motivation, development of commitment towards the organization, and self-efficacy. Giran and colleagues (2014) found a moderate relationship of self-efficacy on motivation of employees in a training program. Importantly, Goldstein and Ford (2002) noted that in order to benefit from training, trainees must be prepared accordingly prior to attending the program, and be motivated to complete said training. However, no formal research has been done specifically analyzing if higher education has an effect on motivation to learn and self-efficacy during basic recruit training at a police training academy. This research attempts to address this gap in

the literature by conducting a comparative case study of two training programs in the United States and Canada in order to compare the factors affecting trainee motivation and self-efficacy.

Problem Statement and Description

As previously mentioned, law enforcement preparation varies in content and methods of instruction across locations. Even though police academies must comply with curriculum requirements dictated by jurisdictional law, methods of instruction differ from one academy to another, particularly across countries. The aim of this comparative case study is to compare, understand, and determine best practices regarding police education and training during law enforcement preparation at selected police training academies.

This research is a comparative multi-site case study, bounded by time (three months for data collection). The selected sites for this comparison case are a police training academy in the Southern United States, and a police training academy in a Canadian urban province. The police training academy selected in the United States is one of seven full-time academies in the chosen Southern state. There are also 14 part-time police training academies in the selected state. There is only one academy that prepares future law enforcement officers in the selected Canadian province. The minimum educational requirement prior to attend initial police training at the American academy is a high school or GED, whereas in the Canadian academy it is required to have completed a three year professional degree in police technology prior to initial police training.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This research will demonstrate the effect of having prior higher education such as a bachelors' degree (BA - United States) or a *Diplôme d'études collégiales* (DEC - Canada) preceding attendance at a police training academy may have on training content, and motivation and self-efficacy of trainees throughout the training. This comparative case study answers four questions in relation to police training:

1. *How different or similar are initial police training curricula across locations?*

   H_{1a}: Trainee educational level required prior to attending police training will have a positive association with the content of initial training curricula

   H_{1b}: The relationship between trainee educational level required prior to attending police training and the content of initial training curricula will vary across locations.

2. *What effect does higher education have on trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy during initial training at the police academy?*

   H_{2a}: Higher education degrees will positively affect trainee motivation to learn during police training.

   H_{2b}: Trainees with higher education degrees will have higher self-efficacy than their less-educated counterparts.

   H_{2c}: Recruits' educational level of police will affect their training expectations, motivation and self-efficacy levels.

3. *How does trainee motivation to learn vary during the training period at the police training academy?*

H_{3a}: Motivation to learn will increase during the training period for American trainees without a higher education.

H_{3b}: Motivation to learn will decrease for American trainees holding a higher education diploma.

H_{3c}: Canadian trainee motivation to learn will not decrease as a result of the educational level required.

4. *How does trainee self-efficacy vary during training at the police academy?*

   H_4: Trainee self-efficacy will increase during basic recruit police training for all recruits in both locations.

In order to answer these questions, dependent and independent variables were chosen, curricula of institutions was examined, questionnaires were administered to recruits, and instructor interviews were conducted. In order to respond to these questions more appropriately, the fulfilment of training expectations was also assessed within the survey questionnaires.

Sampling Procedure

In this case comparison, a cross-sectional criterion convenience sample of academy instructors and two cohorts of police trainees graduating from basic recruit police training during the summer of 2016 at specific locations was used. The locations of interest for this study were a police training academy located in the Southern United States, and a police training academy located in a Canadian urban province. The locations were conveniently selected by the researcher to gather information of two different models of police training. One of the locations requires the completion of a specialized higher education program prior to attending police training at the academy. At the other

location, police agencies may or may not require a higher education, therefore trainees at this police academy may have a college degree, a high-school, or general education diploma. Potential changes in trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy during the training period at the training academy were analyzed.

This was a comparative, multi-site, instrumental case study in which cross-academy embedded analysis was done, particularly by describing training at both academies, looking at the curricula of the courses offered in each academy by analyzing the themes presented. Questionnaire responses of surveys administered to trainees were also used to assess levels of motivation and self-efficacy throughout the training period at the different locations. Instructor interviews were used to contextualize training as well as the potential effect of higher education on initial police training, and on trainee motivation and self-efficacy from the instructors' perspective (Creswell, 1998; Stake, 1995, Yin, 1989).

Data Collection

Basic academy training hours required for certification in the selected Southern state of the United States were verified with the Professional Certification Policy and Procedures Manual published by the state's Board on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Training (BLEOST). For further comprehension of the trainees' knowledge from the selected Canadian urban province prior to attending their police training academy, the researcher also examined the courses offered at the various police technology programs from the same province. Curricula for the programs offered at the selected locations in the American Southern state and the Canadian urban province were retrieved, and their content was analyzed and compared by looking at the courses

included in the program. The curricula analysis was done in order to find themes, course orientations (task-oriented or cognitive-oriented as distinguished by Bradford and Pynes in 1999), number of hours spent per course, and length of the training. Shapiro and Markoff (1997) defined content analysis as "any methodological measurement applied to text (or other symbolic materials) for social science purposes" (p. 14). Haberfeld (2013) established that curricula were not just content that only represents knowledge that should be acquired by trainees, but rather are a value system in which knowledge and how presentation of that knowledge will occur. Identification of the required courses for completion of the training program permitted to discern patterns or approaches in the core curriculum (Chu, 2006), and to classify them either as task-oriented or cognitive-oriented (Bradford & Pynes, 1999). These curricula were examined for similarities and differences looking at both latent and manifest content. This assessment was done by identifying the verbs used in the course objectives to be attained such as *identify, understand, demonstrate, recognize, or procedures* - among others - (manifest content analysis), as well as by looking at the underlying meaning of the themes of the courses offered (latent content analysis) (Babbie, 1986). The foci of the curricula were consequently categorized either as task- or cognitive-oriented (Bradford & Pynes, 1999). The identification of verbs and adverbs or expressions in the course objectives was also used to attempt to indicate the type of instruction delivery method employed (pedagogical or andragogical) - if not explicitly mentioned in the curriculum - as discussed by scholars such as Birzer (2003), Birzer and Tannehill (2001), Chappell (2008), Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce (2010), and Taylor and Kroth (2009).

Courses were classified as task-oriented if - through their latent and manifest content - they were found to only focus on teaching skills necessary to do something, as well as if they did not present any critical thinking elements, or were found to prepare recruits to be "report taker[s] and enforcement officer[s]" rather than problem solvers by instructing trainees with "basic repetitive skills and conditioned responses" (Bradford & Pynes, 1999, p. 288). It could be argued that technically all curricula from the basic police training programs are task-oriented as they intend to teach the recruit how to respond and how to do specific tasks relative to the law enforcement profession. However, courses considered to be cognitive-oriented went "beyond the skill or task … and focuse[d] on an awareness of the process [establishing] correct and valid thinking patterns" therefore enhancing recruits' problem-solving capabilities (Bradford & Pynes, 1999, p. 288). Courses in which the acquired knowledge was deemed to be put into practice and demonstration as well as courses teaching trainees the process surrounding the law enforcement profession - such as law enforcement history, criminal law, or civil liability - were categorized as cognitive-oriented. Even if some of those courses did not really provide trainees with decision-making skills they are believed to provide recruits with essential knowledge of the profession, which is why they were categorized as cognitive-oriented. If courses had components of both task and cognitive orientations, they were placed under the most appropriate category depending on the main orientation of the course (task or cognitive). Some courses were found to equally encompass task and cognitive orientations, and were therefore classified in both categories. Courses meeting the criteria for both cognitive and task orientations include *Police defensive tactics*,

Criminal investigation, *Crisis intervention*, or *First responder in an active shooter situation*.

The task-oriented versus cognitive-oriented distinction may be considered very subjective. What the researcher interpreted as task- or cognitive-oriented might be interpreted by other researchers as belonging to another category. It is important to note that this classification has been made with the information received by the researcher from the academies; the results could have been different if observations during training were made or if more information on the instruction method was provided. If more information was needed to understand the latent content, the researcher contacted the person granting authorization from each institution either via email or phone. The purpose of gathering the curricula from the selected police training academies was to give the researcher an idea of the contents of the training. This was intended to describe initial police training curricula across locations and assess whether course curricula are affected by academies' educational requirements in an effort to help explain motivation and confidence in completing required tasks, therefore assisting in the determination of the effect of higher education in motivation and self-efficacy during police training.

Secondly, the researcher assessed trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy using questionnaires that were disseminated to trainees (Giran et al., 2014; Klein et al., 2006; Tannenbaum et al., 1991; Williams et al., 2014). The questionnaires were intended to be administered both at the beginning and end of the training period in order to compare the results regarding the dependent variables at the pretest and posttest stages (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). As Tannenbaum and colleagues (1991) noted, the sooner the pretests are administered, the better it is to ensure that the responses given are not

influenced by previous training experience but rather are "antecedent to the training" (p. 762). However, the researcher was not able to gather information from recruits at the beginning of their training period due to logistical research challenges. The researcher contacted the police training academies in the selected locations and submitted electronic versions of the survey for them to distribute to trainees that had completed the training. Through the questionnaires, the researcher gathered information related to trainee motivation and self-efficacy during the training as well as prior expectations regarding police training. Along with the questionnaire, a cover letter explaining the purpose of the project and confidentiality of the answers was provided to the participating respondents. The cover letter informed the trainees that by participating in the study, voluntary and implied consent was given to the researcher to analyze the data collected. The questionnaires included 15 items and were made using motivation and self-efficacy scales using guidance from previous literature (Bandura, 1977, 1997, 2006; Van der Bijl & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002). Such perception items were measured using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree), to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Interviews of academy staff were conducted to examine their impressions of the potential impact of education on motivation and self-efficacy during police training. The aim of these interviews was to obtain instructors' perceptions on trainees' motivation, self-efficacy, and performance based on their experience across cohorts. Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce (2010) conducted an observational study, in which interviews or interactions with students and training staff during basic police training were beneficial to assess and understand trainees' perceptions of training in regards to their expectations, motivation, and self-confidence.

Variables

Dependent Variables

Motivation to learn and self-efficacy were the dependent variables selected for this study. Training fulfillment, defined by Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, and Cannon-Bowers (1991) as "the extent to which training meets or fulfills a trainee's expectations and desires" (p. 760) was also taken into account as according to the literature, training fulfillment is positively related to self-efficacy and motivation (Tannenbaum, et al., 1991).

Following the literature, *motivation to learn* was defined in this study as a trainee's specific desire driving "the direction, intensity, and persistence of learning-directed behavior" in a training program (Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000, p. 678; Kanfer, 1991; Noe, 1986). Colquitt and colleagues (2000) identified several individual and situational characteristics as predictors of training motivation, learning levels, and transfer and job performance. The individual predictors mentioned were age, gender, valence, cognitive ability, conscientiousness, locus of control, self-efficacy, organizational commitment, career commitment, and job involvement (Colquitt, et al., 2000). Situational characteristics referred to aspects of the environment that affect the use of what has been learned in training on the job (Colquitt et al., 2000). The researcher took into account Colquitt et al.'s (2000) individual and situational predictors as constructs to measure motivation to learn during police training.

Self-efficacy was defined as self-confidence in performing specific tasks (Bandura, 1977; Goldstein, & Ford, 2002). Bandura (1977) identified four sources of self-efficacy: performance attainments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and

physiological states (p. 191). Self-efficacy can be measured using magnitude (difficulty level identified), strength (confidence in oneself to perform at different difficulty levels), and generality (generalization of the expectation across situations) scales (Van der Bijl, & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002).

Motivation to learn and self-efficacy was assessed using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree", based on statements of trainees' perceptions of basic recruit police training using constructs identified by scholars such as Bandura (1977), Van der Bijl and Shortidge-Baggett (2002), and Colquitt and colleagues (2000) to have an effect on the desired variables. The questionnaires were made up of 15 items of which five statements were related to training expectations of the police training such as "The police training academy is physically and psychologically demanding", "Firearms training will be a big part of the program at the police training academy", or "I will be trained in how to use critical thinking skills to resolve conflicts." The other ten statements were intended to measure trainees' pre- and post- training perceptions of motivation and self-efficacy. These statements were made using constructs identified by Bandura (1977), Van der Bijl and Shortidge-Baggett (2002), and Colquitt and colleagues (2000). Some of the motivation-related statements included "I want to become a police officer", "I will learn as much as I can from this training", and "It is important to me not to fail in the police academy". Statements concerning trainee self-efficacy included "It is easy for me to accomplish goals I set for myself", "I can successfully complete the police training academy", and "I am confident I can deal with unexpected events at the police training academy."

Independent Variables

Gender, age, and education were the three independent variables analyzed in this study. Gender was dichotomously measured as either male or female. Age was measured using ordinal scales ranging from 18 to more than 70 years of age. Education level prior to entering the police training academy was the main independent variable of interest in this study. Education was measured using ordinal scales with attributes including a general education diploma, high school diploma, bachelor's degree or diploma of collegial studies, diploma of professional studies, an associate degree, master's degree, and higher than a master's degree. The scale for education was tailored according to the degree titles from the respective locations. In Chappell's (2008) study, age, gender, and education level as well as other demographic characteristics such as ethnicity and location were also considered. Race and ethnicity were excluded from the current study as even though it is normal in the United States to inquire about these characteristics, such questions are not usually included on Canadian surveys and on the rare occasion that they are included, respondents are asked to identify themselves as a visible minority rather than a particular race or ethnicity. The location of survey provenance was determined by the language in which questionnaires were received (English or French).

The operationalization of the variables selected for this comparative case study are included in Table 1.

Table 1

Operationalization of Variables

Variable Type	Variable Name	Variable Source	Potential Responses	Level of Measurement
Independent	Gender	Gender	Male, Female	Nominal
	Age	Age	18-19, 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69, 70+	Ordinal
	Education	Education	High School Diploma, General Education Diploma, Diploma of Collegial Studies, Associate Degree, Bachelor's Degree, Master's Degree, > Master's Degree, Other	Ordinal
	Location	Determined by language of survey.		Nominal
Dependent	Training Expectation	The police training academy is physically and psychologically demanding. The police training academy requires good physical training Firearms training will be a big part of the program at the police training academy.	Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree	Ordinal

Table 1 (continued).

Variable Type	Variable Name	Variable Source	Potential Responses	Level of Measurement
Dependent	Training Expectation	I will learn and be trained in how to manage different situations using community policing principles. I will be trained in how to use critical thinking skills to resolve conflicts.	Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree	Ordinal
	Motivation	I will learn as much as I can from this training. It is important for me not to fail in the police academy. If I begin to struggle during the police academy, I will try harder. I want to become a police officer. I like what is taught at the police training academy.	Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree	Ordinal
	Self-Efficacy	It is easy for me to accomplish goals I set for myself. I am confident I can deal with unexpected events at the police training academy. I am confident I can accomplish the tasks given to me by my instructors at the police academy. I can successfully complete the police training academy.	Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree	Ordinal

Table 1 (continued).

Variable Type	Variable Name	Variable Source	Potential Responses	Level of Measurement
Dependent	Self-Efficacy	I have the knowledge needed to successfully complete this training program.	Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree	Ordinal

CHAPTER IV – FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Initial police training is where recruits gain knowledge and immersion into the police profession. Even if the law enforcement profession seeks to accomplish similar goals internationally, police training differs across locations. When looking at initial recruit training in a Canadian province and a Southern state of the United States, similarities and differences were observed. The Canadian curriculum will be described first, followed by the American curriculum. Discussion will then compare both curricula and discuss the first research question which intends to assess how different or similar are the initial police training curricula in the two selected locations.

Curricula Presentation

The Canadian Curriculum

Initial training at the selected Canadian police academy lasts 15 weeks and comprises 482 hours and 30 minutes of teaching. During the 15 week training period, recruits go through 11 courses that are intended to satisfy proficiency in five skills during the Patrol and Policing Initial Training Program. The five abilities that must be mastered by the end of the training program are policing activities, police technology, tactical intervention, crowd control, and commitment to training. Courses taught in the selected provincial academy revolve around the aforementioned five skills.

The curricula retrieved from the Canadian province of interest were very detailed and descriptive. Each course curriculum had seven sections describing in great detail every aspect of the course, such as a formal presentation of the course, generalities of the class (pre-requirements, instructors, to whom is the course directed at, length of the course, number of students per class, and instructor-student ratio for some activities),

course objectives and standards (skills to be acquired and elements of proficiency for each), thorough course contents, instructional methods, teaching and learning activities, and testing system. The curricula in this academy is updated on a continuous basis. One of the interviewed instructors commented on the fact that the training program and course curricula were regularly updated in order to offer future law enforcement officers with adequate and up-to-date training. Some of the curricula may have been under revision during the data collection period. Three course curricula were last reviewed in 2013, two were last reviewed in 2015, and the remaining six were reviewed between April and July 2016.

The American Curriculum

Initial recruit training at the selected American police academy is 11 weeks long and comprises 15 courses, and is taught over a period of 480 hours at the police training academy. Course curricula from this academy are not as detailed as the retrieved Canadian curricula. Each course curriculum presents an instructional goal, and course objectives. There are also sections for the instructional methods, instructional equipment used, and duration of instruction and testing system, however, those sections did not provide the researcher with the necessary information to understand the teaching and learning contexts of the courses. The duration of the courses was determined from a document listing all courses offered at the selected southern police training academy. This document indicated that the curriculum was adopted in July 1981, and has been reviewed six times since, the latest review conducted in March 2015.

Curricula Analysis and Comparison

Course Orientation Analysis

After examining the latent and manifest content of the gathered curricula, it was found that police training in both locations was mainly task-oriented. Table 2 presents the courses offered during the Patrol and Policing Initial Training Program at the Canadian province of interest and their classification into task-oriented or cognitive-oriented following Bradford and Pynes (1999). The Canadian course *Vehicle or pedestrian pursuit and high risk interception of a vehicle* was classified as task-oriented even though the curriculum stated that the course emphasized risk analysis and safety in order to always prioritize life in the executions of high risk pursuits and interceptions.

Table 2

Initial Training Curricula Classification from a Canadian Police Academy

		Course orientation	
Courses	Time	Task	Cognitive
Situation response	171h45min	x	
Strategic patrolling of an intervention sector	43h45min	x	
Physical intervention	68h	x	
Firearms proficiency	39h30min	x	
Operating a law enforcement vehicle	36h30min	x	
First responder triage	16h30min	x	
First responder in an active shooter situation	8h30min	x	
Vehicle or pedestrian pursuit and high risk interception of a vehicle	16h30min	x	
Risk intervention analysis system (SAIR)	12h		x
Crisis intervention as a member of a section and/or a platoon during a crowd control operation	20h	x	
Commitment to training and the profession	49h30min		x
TOTAL	482h30min	421h	61h30min

Table 3 presents the categories of training taught during initial training at the American location of interest and their distinction as either task- or cognitive-oriented. Two courses from the American training academy were classified into both categories since some of the topics included in the courses were found to belong in both categories.

Table 3

Initial Training Curricula Analysis from an American Police Academy

Course	Time	Course orientation	
		Task	Cognitive
Orientation	5h	x	
Introduction to Law Enforcement	20h		x
State Vehicle Law and Enforcement	57h	x	
Police Defensive Tactics	92h	x	x
Human Relations	16h		x
Firearms	52h	x	
Investigative Practices	16h	x	
Emergency Vehicle Operation	36h	x	
Organized Crime/Drugs	10h	x	
Criminal Law and Procedures	44h		x
Criminal Investigation	46h	x	x
Report Writing	16h	x	
Patrol Operations	50h	x	
Homeland Security	2h	x	
Administrative	18h	x	
TOTAL	480h	336h	144h

Note: The specific number of hours spent in each course was used to determine how many hours were to be classified as task- or cognitive-oriented in the subjects of Police Defensive Tactics and Criminal Investigation

Table 2 and Table 3 reveal that a great majority of initial police training is task-oriented. Specifically, in the Canadian province of interest, 421 hours (87%) were spent on task-oriented training. This can be observed when looking at the skills recruits must learn in order to successfully complete the program - policing activities, police

technology, tactical intervention, crowd control, and commitment to the training and profession. In the American police training academy, 336 hours (70%) of the 480 hours of training were classified as task-oriented. Some of the courses taught in this location were categorized both as task- and cognitive-oriented because they were found to provide trainees with the necessary skills to accomplish something, and to have a cognitive dimension – either through promoting decision making or critical thinking skills, or by providing the recruit with the possibility of solving a problem through the demonstration of its capacity and application of knowledge acquired. It is important to note, however, that even if the quasi-totality of the training seems to be task-oriented, the instruction method also plays an important role in the orientation of the curriculum and the program.

The number of hours spent per course, as presented by the curricula from the academies, is not reflective of the actual contents and quality of the teachings in each course. Instructional methods and learning activities are an important factor that influence the quality of the course and the learning experience of trainees. For example, the Canadian curriculum states that 16.5 hours are spent in the *First responder triage* course, whereas in the American curriculum 16 hours are devoted to *Investigative practices*. Both courses have approximately the same length and should cover similar subjects, however the instructional methods used by the instructors as well as the learning activities are different, therefore the quality of the courses cannot be gauged only by observing how much time is spent on each course.

Following Bradford and Pynes' (1999) curricula orientation distinction, it was surprising to see that curricula from the Canadian training academy were mostly task-oriented rather than cognitive-oriented. Canadian curricula were expected to be

predominantly cognitive-oriented by providing recruits with learning activities that would encourage them to become problem solvers rather than just enforcers of the law. Courses offered at the Canadian initial police training program were categorized as task-oriented because they provide trainees with basic essential skills needed in the policing profession. The instructional method of the courses – as explicitly stated by the academy – is predominantly cognitive-oriented in that trainees are put in real-life situations and scenarios in which they need to use critical thinking skills and apply the knowledge they have acquired from the academy and the three-year collegiate program in police techniques. The binary Bradford and Pynes (1999) curricula classification is not adequate in this instance as instructional methods are an important factor to acknowledge when determining the orientation of a course curricula. On the other hand, as it was demonstrated and validated in Table 3, initial police training in the American police training academy was predominantly task-oriented, as expected. Nonetheless, no specific information on the learning activities or instructional methods were provided in the curricula obtained.

Looking at both manifest and latent content of the curricula from the Canadian police training academy, curricula could be classified both as task-and cognitive-oriented. As a matter of fact, the content of the courses is predominantly oriented to teaching the recruits the skills needed to accomplish tasks such as crowd control, crisis intervention, first responder duties or physical intervention (task orientation). However, it is explicitly stated that the instruction methods used in this program seek to immerse recruits in the activities by using simulated scenarios and placing them in real-life work situations in which they interact with persons needing help such as in domestic violence interventions,

or learning how to protect a crime scene, evaluate situations, and detain (cognitive orientation). This hands-on training method is intended to make police recruits aware of real-life situations they might encounter as sworn police officers.

Keyword Analysis

The keyword analysis was carried out by specifically identifying the verbs and expressions used in the instructional goals and course content from each curricula rather than by counting how many times specific words were used.

In the American police training academy, there was no mention of the instructional method. The manifest content of the curricula gathered from this initial training program seemed very basic and pedagogical in its approach. The primary verbs used to determine the instructional goals were: *identify*, *define*, *demonstrate*, *understand,* and *recognize*. The majority of the statements from the American curricula implied the identification, understanding or recognition of concepts or procedures by the trainees. In contrast, the expressions used to describe the instructional goals and content of the courses in the Canadian police training academy were more complex (i.e. "proper intervention planning according to the situation, the trainee's perception and tactical considerations"). There were no verbs that were overwhelmingly used to describe the objectives and instructional goals in the Canadian curricula, but the words and statements used were found to encourage reasoning and the use of critical thinking skills by the recruits. Some of those verbs and expressions included but are not limited to *evaluate*, *analyze*, *execute*, *understand*, *interpret*, *demonstrate*, *proceed*, *justify*, *plan*, *consolidate*, *articulate one's decision making process*, and *measure one's progression*.

Bloom's revised taxonomy distinguishes educational goals into six categories: remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating (Anderson, Krathwohl, Airasian, Cruikshank, Mayer, Pintrich, Raths, & Wittrock, 2001). When comparing the verbs used in the American and Canadian curricula with Bloom's revised taxonomy, it is possible to see that the majority of verbs used throughout the American curricula (previously mentioned) can be classified in the three lower categories which are remembering, understand, and applying. Contrariwise the verbs and expressions used in the Canadian curricula can be mostly classified in the higher categories of applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating knowledge.

The complexity of the verbs and expressions used could be seen as a cultural difference, however, it should be recognized that such difference in the statement of the instructional goals might be in part acknowledging the educational level expected of trainees. Nowadays more American trainees have a college degree, however the minimum educational requirement to attend basic police training in the United States is generally a high school diploma or GED, whereas in the selected Canadian province, the minimum educational requirement is the completion of a three year collegiate degree in police technology. This, in turn, has an impact on the initial police training content.

Thematic Analysis

The researcher classified the courses offered by the two selected police training programs into four categories by looking at the manifest and latent content of the gathered curricula. Such thematic distinction was made using four of the five skills around which the Canadian curricula revolves as they applied to themes taught at both initial training programs. These abilities to be attained by the Canadian recruits were

policing activities, police technology, tactical intervention, crowd control, and training and professional commitment. The four themes selected for classification of curricula were policing activities, police technology, training and professional commitment, and tactical intervention. Most of the courses were categorized into one of the four classifications, except five courses from the American training program, and one course from the Canadian police academy. The courses which did not seem to share themes with other courses or with courses from either of the institutions were *Human Relations, Homeland Security, Organized Crime/Drugs, Criminal Law and Procedures, Orientation,* and *Crisis intervention as a member of a section and/or a platoon during a crowd control operation*. The thematic category *Tactical Intervention* was created even though only courses from the Canadian academy were included because the courses under this category share the same theme, and it is one of the five important skill categories stated by the Canadian academy.

Initial police training across the two selected academies was found to be predominantly task-oriented, according to the Bradford and Pynes' (1999) distinction. The latent content of the curricula seemed to be somewhat similar across locations. In essence the majority of courses offered for completion of initial police training at the selected police training academies in Canada and the United States fall into one of the four categories identified. Table 4 presents the thematic grouping of courses offered across locations during initial police training. It is possible to observe in this table that a few courses appear to be the same across locations. This is the case particularly for the law enforcement vehicle operation, and firearms classes placed under the *Police Technology* theme.

Table 4

Thematic Analysis of Curricula Across Locations

Themes	Courses
Policing Activities	Situation response (CA)
	Strategic patrolling of an intervention sector (CA)
	State vehicle law and enforcement (US)
	Investigative practices (US)
	Criminal investigation (US)
	Report writing (US)
Police Technology	Physical intervention (CA)
	Firearms proficiency (CA)
	Operating a law enforcement vehicle (CA)
	Police defensive tactics (US)
	Firearms (US)
	Emergency vehicle operation (US)
	Patrol operations (US)
Tactical Intervention	First responder triage (CA)
	First responder in an active shooter situation (CA)
	Vehicle or pedestrian pursuit and high risk interception of a vehicle (CA)
	Risk intervention analysis system [SAIR] (CA)
Training and Professional Commitment	Training and professional commitment (CA)
	Introduction to law enforcement (US)

Note: The country of origin from each course is abbreviated as (CA) for Canada, and (US) for United States.

Both academies instructed trainees in themes essential to the profession. Table 4 presents the majority of the courses offered at both locations. Table 4 presents the different classes offered in each program classified by theme or skill intended to be attained by the trainee. This classification was realized through latent and manifest content of the curricula. It is possible to observe that even though both academies include teachings from each of the four themes identified, the classes offered are different and

may or may not include the same lessons. The impact of the instructional approach and methods plays an important role on the trainees' learning experience.

The amount of time spent on each theme per academy can be determined by looking at how much time was spent per course (as reported in Tables 2 and 3). In the selected academy in the Southern United States, 230 hours out of 480 are spent on police techniques, whereas in the Canadian academy 144 hours of 482.5 hours are spent on the same theme. Regarding policing activities, 135 hours are spent on this category at the American academy, and 215.5 hours are spent here by the Canadian academy. Training and professional commitment is limited to 20 hours in the United States academy, and 49.5 hours in Canada. The Canadian curricula also provides 53.5 hours on tactical intervention training.

Curricula Comparison and Discussion

Curricula from two initial police training programs in different locations were analyzed and compared using a course orientation analysis, keyword analysis, and thematic analysis. The findings from these analyses demonstrate that the curricula of initial police training programs had approximately the same length (around 480 hours of instruction), were predominantly task-oriented, and followed similar themes across locations. The main difference between the two selected initial police training programs rests upon the manifest content of each curricula, and the instructional methods.

A striking difference in the gathered curricula from both academies was the format of the curricula, the detail in the description of the course objectives, course contents, instructional approach, and teaching and learning methods used. The content of the Canadian curricula were more descriptive than their American counterpart in terms of

latent and manifest content. Course curricula from the selected American police training academy mostly presented general and vague course objectives and instructional goals, composed mainly of simple sentences. A curriculum example from the Canadian and the American academy can be found in the appendices (Appendix E and Appendix F respectively).

The instructional methods are clearly stated in all of the Canadian curricula. It is stated in each curricula gathered from the Patrol and Policing Initial Training Program at this location, that the academy encourages teaching and learning methods that will enhance recruits' professional competences. This is accomplished through hands-on experiences, reflection of their actions, and simulated scenarios, among other methods. The learning approaches at the selected American police training academy are unknown, as they are not specifically stated in the curricula, but are dependent upon the instructors' discretion. Another observable difference found when comparing the contents of initial police training in this two locations, is that at the American academy, trainees have law and human relations courses that the Canadian trainees do not have during their initial training. The reason for this, according to Canadian instructor interviews, is that trainees entering the Patrol and Policing Initial Training Program are expected to have already acquired that general, theoretical knowledge during the three-year collegiate professional program in Police Technology. It can therefore be said that American trainees have some theoretical and practical training during their initial law enforcement preparation at the academy, whereas their Canadian counterparts from the selected location focus more on practical training during their initial training at the academy.

The first research question of this case comparison asked how different or similar curricula for initial law enforcement preparation were across locations. It was expected that the themes covered in the course content would be influenced by the educational requirement prior to attending the police training academies. Curricula for initial law enforcement preparation were similar in the orientation and the themes (latent content) taught in both selected locations. The course content (manifest content) however differed across locations. Classes offered for the completion of initial police training also differed across locations.

Looking back at Tables 2 and 3, where all courses offered at each academy are presented, it can be observed that initial law enforcement preparation at the selected Canadian academy is largely practical and teaches recruits essential skills for the profession. The five essential skills recruits are expected to be proficient in by the end of the Patrol and Policing Initial Training Program are policing activities, police technology, tactical intervention, crowd control, and commitment to training and the profession. Proficiency of these five skills is achieved through the series of instructional approaches used, and hands-on experience using a police station model for realistic training. American trainees at the police training academy of interest seem to have a broader training experience – according to the courses offered in the curricula – during initial training. The extent of their learning and practical experience, however, cannot be assessed as the methodological and instructional methods are unknown to the researcher.

Trainees' experience during initial police training is important as it may shape their understanding of the law enforcement profession (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Haberfeld, 2013). Through analysis and comparison of the curricula from the selected

academies, as well as by using the information gathered from instructor interviews, it appears that initial police training at the Canadian location of interest is more centered on practical training than the American initial training program. Police training in the selected Canadian province is a consecutive and complimentary learning process between a three year collegiate program in police technology and the completion of initial police training. During the police technology program, students learn and acquire general police training skills as well as specific skills that are the basis of police technology. The police technology programs provide students with knowledge in policing, criminology, law, communication techniques, sociology, psychology, observation methods, community policing, crisis intervention, preventive driving, physical education, first aid/emergency treatment, and in some programs the completion of an internship is offered as well. The Canadian Patrol and Policing Initial Training Program puts recruits in real-life situations, providing them with the skills necessary to assess and adequately respond to a variety of situations, using a diversity of instructional approaches as well as use of a school structure inspired from a police station facility allowing recruits to put themselves in real life situations, requiring them to think, analyze, and decide how to solve a variety of situations. All courses from the American location of interest are important for recruits, however, it is impossible for the researcher to know the extent of hands-on experience or learning by the recruits during their initial training. Looking only at the manifest content of the American course curricula, it is clear that the majority of the courses offered employ a pedagogical teaching approach as compared to the stated andragogical approach used in the selected Canadian academy.

The Canadian curriculum is oriented towards hands-on training by instructing police trainees via patrol activities, simulation activities, online courses to prepare for certain modules, thematic workshops regarding social realities recruits might encounter as sworn officers, and instructor and social worker feedbacks. This is demonstrated in the thematic analysis and course orientation distinction. Courses at the Canadian academy were found to be predominantly task-oriented, even though the latent content of the thematic analysis identified the courses as cognitive-oriented. A reason for this may be that recruits enter initial police training with an acquired theoretical background from their police technology program (or a bachelor's degree) and are expected to put into practice said knowledge during the police training program. Therefore the courses offered at the Canadian police academy can focus on hands-on training and simulations of potential real-life situations that may be encountered in the future as law enforcement officers. The curricula from the American academy cannot be discussed in as much detail as the Canadian curricula because the manifest content of the former does not provide as much information as the latter, and the instructional methodology is unknown to the researcher. Present study logistics prevented observations which would clarify instructional methodology.

Recall that H_{1a} asserted that recruits' minimum educational level requirement will have a positive association with themes in course content. Based on the findings of the curricula analysis and comparison from the two selected locations, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and cannot accept the aforementioned alternative hypothesis. Both initial training programs, regardless of minimum educational requirement, were found to prepare trainees in three different skills (policing activities, police technology,

training, and professional commitment) even though the courses and their manifest content was different. H_{1b} asserted that the relationship between trainee educational level required prior to attending police training and the content of initial training curricula will vary across locations. Given the previous discussion from the qualitative analysis, the null hypothesis is rejected and H_{1b} is accepted as the alternative hypothesis.

Survey Analysis

Implementation of the Survey

The purpose of the survey instrument was to acknowledge, assess, and compare trainee levels of motivation and self-efficacy during initial police training in two specific locations. Surveys used in this study can be found in Appendices G and H of this thesis. The survey was electronically distributed to trainees that had completed initial training at the selected academies via contacts at the academies who served as gatekeepers. The gatekeepers from each academy were asked to distribute the link for the electronic survey to recruits who had recently completed their initial police training program. There were three requests made to distribute the survey, in order to encourage responses from trainees. Physical surveys were also administered to recruits who were about to complete their training at the American training academy of interest as the electronic response rate from this location was extremely low. Neither the researcher nor the researcher's contact at the Canadian academy were able to administer physical surveys at this location or keep encouraging recruits (after the third follow-up) to participate because the targeted population from this location had already completed their training and were no longer at the academy. After reviewing all returned electronic and physical surveys from both locations, only surveys without missing data were included in the analyses.

Descriptive Statistics

The number of trainees contacted by the academies' gatekeepers is unknown to the researcher, therefore the total sample and the response rate cannot be determined. A total of 55 surveys were returned to the researcher; 18 from Canada, and 37 from the United States (13 electronic surveys and 24 physical surveys). The total sample was reduced to 46 as some questionnaires were incomplete – either the participants stopped responding at a certain point, or did not complete one of the questionnaire sections. As can be seen in Table 5, the majority of the respondents were American participants (n=32, 70%). From the total sample (N=46), the majority identified as male (n=36, 78%), and between 20 and 29 years of age (n=32, 70%). Only 33% of the participant population had an education level of high school or GED, whereas the remaining 67% of the respondents had a higher education degree.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of Police Recruits from Selected Locations in the United States and Canada

Characteristics	n	%
Age		
20-29	32	70
30-39	10	22
40-49	2	4
50-59	2	4
Gender		
Male	36	78
Female	10	22
Education Level		
High School – GED	15	33
Diploma of Collegial Studies	13	28
Associate Degree	7	15
Bachelor's Degree	10	22
Master's Degree	1	2

Table 5 (continued).

Characteristics	n	%
Country		
United States	32	70
Canada	14	30

Frequency Analysis

Total Sample Frequency Analysis. The researcher ran frequency analyses with the survey data collected across locations in order to assess police recruits' perceptions of training expectations, motivation to learn, and self-efficacy before and after completion of the initial police recruit training program. The frequency for the total sample is presented in Table 6, the frequency analysis for trainees' perception questionnaire across locations is presented in Table 7.

Table 6

Full Sample Frequency Analysis

	Total	
Variable	N	%
Physical and psychological demand of the academy.		
Pre-Training		
Disagree	2	4
Neutral	3	**7**
Agree	17	37
Strongly Agree	24	52
Post-Training		
Neutral	2	4
Agree	17	37
Strongly Agree	27	59
Physical fitness requirement.		
Pre-Training		
Disagree	5	11
Neutral	5	11

Table 6 (continued).

	Total	
Variable	N	%
Physical fitness requirement		
Agree	20	43
Strongly Agree	16	35
Post-Training		
Disagree	5	11
Neutral	5	11
Agree	14	31
Strongly Agree	21	47
Importance of firearms training.		
Pre-Training		
Strongly Disagree	1	2
Disagree	3	6
Neutral	5	11
Agree	15	33
Strongly Agree	22	48
Post-Training		
Disagree	7	15
Neutral	4	9
Agree	16	35
Strongly Agree	19	41
Instruction of community policing principles.		
Pre-Training		
Disagree	2	4
Neutral	6	13
Agree	24	52
Strongly Agree	14	30
Post-Training		
Disagree	4	9
Neutral	2	4
Agree	20	43
Strongly Agree	20	43
Instruction of critical thinking skills to resolve conflicts.		
Pre-Training		
Disagree	2	4

Table 6 (continued).

	Total	
Variable	N	%
Instruction of critical thinking skills to resolve conflicts.		
Neutral	4	9
Agree	26	57
Strongly Agree	14	30
Post-Training		
Disagree	1	2
Neutral	2	4
Agree	21	46
Strongly Agree	22	48
Motivation to learn.		
Pre-Training		
Disagree	1	2
Agree	16	35
Strongly Agree	29	63
Post-Training		
Agree	12	26
Strongly Agree	34	74
Important not to fail at the academy.		
Pre-Training		
Disagree	2	4
Agree	7	15
Strongly Agree	37	80
Post-Training		
Disagree	3	6
Neutral	1	2
Agree	2	4
Strongly Agree	40	87
Motivation to keep trying even in case of struggle.		
Pre-Training		
Neutral	1	2
Agree	11	24
Strongly Agree	34	74
Post-Training		
Neutral	1	2

Table 6 (continued).

	Total	
Variable	N	%
Motivation to keep trying even in case of struggle		
Post-Training		
Agree	9	20
Strongly Agree	36	78
Motivation to become a police officer		
Pre-Training		
Agree	8	17
Strongly Agree	38	83
Post-Training		
Neutral	2	4
Agree	4	9
Strongly Agree	40	87
Enjoy teachings of the training.		
Pre-Training		
Neutral	5	11
Agree	18	39
Strongly Agree	23	50
Post-Training		
Disagree	1	2
Neutral	3	6
Agree	17	37
Strongly Agree	25	54
Confidence in goals accomplishment.		
Pre-Training		
Strongly Disagree	1	2
Disagree	1	2
Neutral	6	13
Agree	26	57
Strongly Agree	12	26
Post-Training		
Disagree	2	4
Neutral	3	6
Agree	22	48
Strongly Agree	19	41

Table 6 (continued).

	Total	
Variable	N	%
Confidence dealing with unexpected events.		
Pre-Training		
Neutral	4	9
Agree	24	52
Strongly Agree	18	39
Post-Training		
Disagree	1	2
Agree	18	39
Strongly Agree	27	59
Self-efficacy in accomplishing tasks.		
Pre-Training		
Neutral	4	9
Agree	19	41
Strongly Agree	23	50
Post-Training		
Disagree	1	2
Neutral	1	2
Agree	9	20
Strongly Agree	35	76
Confidence successful completion of training.		
Pre-Training		
Neutral	3	6
Agree	11	24
Strongly Agree	32	70
Post-Training		
Agree	3	6
Strongly Agree	43	94
Confidence in knowledge to successfully complete training program.		
Pre-Training		
Disagree	3	7
Neutral	5	11
Agree	14	30
Strongly Agree	24	52

Table 6 (continued).

	Total	
Variable	N	%
Confidence in knowledge to successfully complete training program.		
Post-Training		
Agree	5	11
Strongly Agree	41	89

Note: Some percentages only add up to 99% instead of 100% because they were rounded to the nearest decimal.

Following the frequency analysis presented in Table 6, respondents regardless of their location were predominantly positive regarding their training expectations, motivation to learn, and self-efficacy both pre- and post-training. Responses ranged from *Disagree* to *Strongly Agree*, however, the majority of recorded responses were *Agree* and *Strongly Agree* for all three dependent variables chosen for this comparison study.

Regardless of their location, the majority of police recruits expected initial training at the academy to be physically and psychologically demanding pre-training (37% agreed, 52% strongly agreed), and post-training (37% agreed, 59% strongly agreed). Recruits also expected the police academy to require good physical fitness pre-training (43% agreed, 35% strongly agreed), and post-training (31% agreed, 47% strongly agreed). Pre-training, 81% of trainees expected firearms training to be important (33% agreed, 48% strongly agreed); post-training, 76% agreed to firearms being an important part of the program (35% agreed, 41% strongly agreed). Eighty-two percent of trainees expected to be trained on the use of community policing principles to manage different situations pre-training (52% agreed, 30% strongly agreed), and 86% held the same expectations post-training (43% agreed, 43% strongly agreed). Eighty-seven

percent of recruits expected to be trained in critical thinking skills for conflict resolution pre-training (57% agreed, 30% strongly agreed) while 94% of recruits expected to receive such instruction post-training (46% agreed, 48% strongly agreed).

Respondents' level of motivation and self-efficacy were high and stayed approximately at the same level. Ninety-eight percent of trainees were motivated to learn as much as possible pre-training (35% agreed, 63% strongly agreed), while post-training, 100% of the participants reported to be motivated to learn as much as possible from the program (26% agreed, 74% strongly agreed). Ninety-five percent of respondents pre-training reported that it was important for them not to fail at the academy (15% agreed, 80% strongly agreed), 91% reported the same post-training (4% agreed, 87% strongly agreed). Ninety-eight percent of respondents' pre- and post-training responses reported that they were motivated to try harder in case they struggled during the program (24% agreed and 74% strongly agreed pre-training while 20% agreed and 78% strongly agreed post-training). When asked about their motivation to become a police officer, 100% of the respondents expressed their desire to do so pre-training (17% agreed, 83% strongly agreed) while 96% of respondents stated their willingness to become law enforcement officers post-training (9% agreed, 87% strongly agreed). Lastly, when recruits were asked whether they liked the teachings of the training, 89% of the respondents stated they liked the content of the program pre-training (39% agreed, 50% strongly agreed) while post-training, 91% of the respondents reported to enjoy the teachings of the training (37% agreed, 54% strongly agreed).

Relating to self-efficacy statements, 83% of respondents stated that it was easy for them to accomplish goals set by themselves pre-training (57% agreed, 26% strongly

agreed) while 89% of respondents reported similar results post-training (48% agreed, 41% strongly agreed). Ninety-one percent of respondents agreed with their confidence of dealing with unexpected events pre-training (52% agreed, 39% strongly agreed) while 98% agreed with such confidence post-training (39% agreed, 59% strongly agreed). When asked about their confidence in accomplishing tasks given to them by their instructors, 91% of respondents agreed with their self-efficacy to do so pre-training (41% agreed, 50% strongly agreed) while 96% agreed with this statement post-training (20% agreed, 76% strongly agreed). Ninety-four percent of trainees stated their pre-training confidence in successfully completing the training (24% agreed, 70% strongly agreed) while 100% of respondents reported their confidence to do so post-training (6% agreed, 94% strongly agreed). Regarding the knowledge needed to successfully complete the training program, 82% of respondents expressed their pre-training confidence in the knowledge acquired (30% agreed, 52% strongly agreed), and 100% of respondents expressed the same confidence post-training (11% agreed, 89% strongly agreed).

Regardless of the training location, respondents' expectations of training, their motivation to learn, and their self-efficacy levels were high and remained approximately the same pre- and post-training. Putting together the values for *Agree* and *Strongly Agree* in responses, trainees' expectations of training increased post-training, except for the expectation of the importance given to firearms training (81% pre-training, 76% post-training). The statements provided to assess motivation to learn also increased post-training, except for the statement expressing trainees' willingness to become police officers (100% pre-training, 96% post-training), and the statement reporting the

importance given by recruits not to fail the training program (95% pre-training, 91% post-training).

Frequency Analysis across Locations. Table 7 presents the descriptive frequency analysis ran for each question included in the survey, distinguishing respondents according to the location of the police training program attended.

Table 7

Frequency Analysis Across Locations

	Canada		United States	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Physical and psychological demand of the academy.				
Pre-Training				
Disagree			2	6
Neutral			3	9
Agree	8	57	9	28
Strongly Agree	6	43	18	56
Post-Training				
Neutral	1	7	1	3
Agree	7	50	10	31
Strongly Agree	6	43	21	66
Physical fitness requirement.				
Pre-Training				
Disagree	2	14	3	9
Neutral	2	14	3	9
Agree	9	64	11	34
Strongly Agree	1	7	15	47
Post-Training				
Disagree	3	21	2	6
Neutral	4	29	1	3
Agree	7	50	8	25
Strongly Agree			21	66

Table 7 (continued).

	Canada		United States	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Importance of firearms training.				
Pre-Training				
Strongly Disagree	1	7		
Disagree	2	14	1	3
Neutral	3	21	2	6
Agree	6	43	9	28
Strongly Agree	2	14	20	62
Post-Training				
Disagree	6	43	1	3
Neutral	3	21	1	3
Agree	5	36	11	34
Strongly Agree			19	59
Instruction of community policing principles.				
Pre-Training				
Disagree	1	7	1	3
Neutral			6	19
Agree	11	79	13	41
Strongly Agree	2	14	12	37
Post-Training				
Disagree	2	14	2	6
Neutral	1	7	1	3
Agree	9	64	11	34
Strongly Agree	2	14	18	56
Instruction of critical thinking skills.				
Pre-Training				
Disagree			2	6
Neutral			4	12
Agree	11	79	15	47
Strongly Agree	3	21	11	34
Post-Training				
Disagree	1	7		
Neutral			2	6

Table 7 (continued).

	Canada		United States	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Instruction of critical thinking skills.				
Post-Training				
Agree	10	71	11	34
Strongly Agree	3	21	19	59
Motivation to learn.				
Pre-Training				
Disagree			1	3
Agree	5	36	11	34
Strongly Agree	9	64	20	62
Post-Training				
Agree	5	36	7	22
Strongly Agree	9	64	25	78
Important not to fail in the police academy.				
Pre-Training				
Disagree	2	14		
Agree	2	14	5	16
Strongly Agree	10	71	27	84
Post-Training				
Disagree	3	21		
Neutral	1	7		
Agree	2	14		
Strongly Agree	8	57	32	100
Try harder in case of struggle.				
Pre-Training				
Neutral			1	3
Agree	3	21	8	25
Strongly Agree	11	79	23	72
Post-Training				
Neutral			1	3
Agree	4	29	5	16
Strongly Agree	10	71	26	81

Table 7 (continued).

	Canada		United States	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Motivation to become a police officer				
Pre-Training				
Agree	2	14	6	19
Strongly Agree	12	86	26	81
Post-Training				
Neutral	1	7	1	3
Agree	1	7	3	9
Strongly Agree	12	86	28	87
Enjoy teachings of the training.				
Pre-Training				
Neutral	1	7	4	12
Agree	4	29	14	44
Strongly Agree	9	64	14	44
Post-Training				
Disagree	1	7		
Neutral	1	7	2	6
Agree	4	29	13	41
Strongly Agree	8	58	17	53
Confidence in goals accomplishment.				
Pre-Training				
Strongly Disagree			1	3
Disagree			1	3
Neutral	2	14	4	12
Agree	10	71	16	50
Strongly Agree	2	14	10	31
Post-Training				
Disagree	1	7	1	3
Neutral	2	14	1	3
Agree	9	64	13	41
Strongly Agree	2	14	17	53

Table 7 (continued).

	Canada		United States	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Confidence dealing with unexpected events.				
Pre-Training				
Neutral			4	12
Agree	10	71	14	44
Strongly Agree	4	29	14	44
Post-Training				
Disagree	1	7		
Agree	6	43	12	37
Strongly Agree	7	50	20	62
Self-efficacy in accomplishing tasks.				
Pre-Training				
Neutral			4	12
Agree	6	43	13	41
Strongly Agree	8	57	15	47
Post-Training				
Disagree	1	7		
Neutral	1	7		
Agree	4	29	5	16
Strongly Agree	8	57	27	84
Confidence successful completion of training.				
Pre-Training				
Neutral			3	9
Agree	1	7	10	31
Strongly Agree	13	93	19	59
Post-Training				
Agree	1	7	2	6
Strongly Agree	13	93	30	94
Confidence in knowledge to successfully complete training program.				
Pre-Training				
Disagree			3	9
Neutral	1	7	4	12

Table 7 (continued).

	Canada		United States	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Confidence in knowledge to successfully complete training program.				
Pre-Training				
Agree	6	43	8	25
Strongly Agree	7	50	17	53
Post-Training				
Agree	2	14	3	9
Strongly Agree	12	86	29	91

Note: Some percentages only add up to 99% instead of 100% because they were rounded to the nearest decimal.

Training expectations pre- and post-training differed across locations. Canadian expectations on initial police training decreased post-training, whereas expectations from American recruits increased post-training. Pre-training, 100% of Canadian respondents expected the police training academy to be physically and psychologically demanding (57% agreed, 43% strongly agreed) while post-training, 93% of respondents agreed with that statement (50% agreed, 43% strongly agreed). Before attending training, 87% of American participants expected initial training to be physically and psychologically demanding (28% agreed, 56% strongly agreed), by the completion of the training, 97% of the participants agreed with that expectation (31% agreed, 66% strongly agreed). Seventy-one percent of Canadian trainees expected the academy to require good physical fitness (64% agreed, and 7% strongly agreed pre-training), after completion of the training program, only 50% of trainees agreed with that physical fitness expectation. Eighty-one percent of American trainees expected a good physical fitness requirement pre-training (34% agreed, 47% strongly agreed). Post-training, 91% of the American

trainees stated that initial police training required good physical fitness (25% agreed, 66% strongly agreed). When asked about their expectation of the importance given to firearms training, 57% of Canadian respondents agreed with that statement pre-training (43% agreed, 14% strongly agreed), post-training, that number dropped to 36%. On the other hand, 90% of American trainees expected firearms training to be an important part of the curriculum pre-training (28% agreed, 62% strongly agreed), post-training 93% of recruits held that same expectation (34% agreed, 59% strongly agreed). Ninety-three percent of Canadian recruits pre-training expected to learn and be trained in the use of community policing principles to manage situations (79% agreed, 14% strongly agreed), whereas 78% of American recruits held that expectation pre-training (41% agreed, 37% strongly agreed). Interestingly, those numbers changed post-training. 78% of Canadian trainees agreed with that expectation (64% agreed, 14% strongly agreed), whereas 90% of American trainees agreed with the statement that initial police training would teach them how to manage situations with community policing principles (34% agreed, 56% strongly agreed) post-training. One hundred percent of Canadian trainees expected, pre-training, to be trained in using critical thinking skills in conflict resolution (79% agreed, 21% strongly agreed), and 92% of them expected so post-training (71% agreed, 21% strongly agreed). In comparison, 81% of American trainees expected to be instructed in using critical thinking skills pre-training (47% agreed 34% strongly agreed) while 93% concluded so post-training (34% agreed, 59% strongly agreed).

Motivation to learn among Canadian trainees remained the same throughout the training period. One hundred percent of recruits at this academy were determined to learn as much as possible from the training pre- and post- completion of the program (36%

agreed, 64% strongly agreed pre- and post-training). 96% of American trainees stated to be highly motivated pre-training (34% agreed, 62% strongly agreed), post-training 100% of the American trainees expressed high motivation to learn (22% agreed, 78% strongly agreed). Eighty-five percent of Canadian respondents reported that it was important for them not to fail in the police academy (14% agreed, 71% strongly agreed), post-training, that number declined to 71% (14% agreed, 57% strongly agreed). American respondents stated that not failing at the academy was important for them (16% agreed and 84% strongly agreed pre-training, 100% strongly agreed post-training). When faced with the statement *If I begin to struggle during the police academy, I will try harder*, responses from both locations remained the same pre- and post-training: 100% of Canadian respondents agreed with the statement (21% agreed and 79% strongly agreed pre-training, 29% agreed and 71% strongly agreed post-training), and 97% of American respondents agreed as well (25% agreed and 72% strongly agreed pre-training, 16% agreed and 81% agreed post-training). One hundred percent of trainees from both academies were motivated to become police officers pre-training (Canada: 14% agreed, 86% strongly agreed; United States: 19% agreed, 81% strongly agreed). Post-training, 93% of Canadian trainees agreed with this statement (7% agreed, 86% strongly agreed), and so did 96% of American trainees (9% agreed, 87% strongly agreed). When asked whether they liked the teachings of the training, 93% of Canadian trainees reported that they did pre-training (29% agreed, 64% strongly agreed), 88% of American trainees also reported they like the academy teachings pre-training (44% agreed, 44% strongly agreed). Post-training, 87% of Canadian respondents expressed their enjoyment of the

training teachings (29% agreed, 58% strongly agreed), as well as 94% of American trainees (41% agreed, 53% strongly agreed).

When asking about trainees' self-efficacy in goal accomplishment, 85% of Canadian recruits pre-training agreed that it was easy for them to accomplish goals set by themselves (71% agreed, 14% strongly agreed), 81% of American trainees also agreed with this statement (50% agreed, 31% strongly agreed). Post-training, 78% of Canadian respondents reported their confidence in accomplishing goals set by themselves (64% agreed, 14% strongly agreed), and 94% of American respondents stated the same confidence (41% agreed, 53% strongly agreed). Regarding trainee confidence in dealing with unexpected events, 100% of Canadian trainees reported to agree with said confidence pre-training (71% agreed, 29% strongly agreed), whereas 88% of their American counterparts presented such confidence (44% agreed, 44% strongly agreed). Interestingly, post-training, 93% of Canadian trainees reported that confidence in themselves in dealing with unexpected events (43% agreed, 50% strongly agreed), whereas 99% of American trainees were confident in dealing with such events post-training (37% agreed, 62% strongly agreed). Similar responses can be observed in regards to trainees' self-efficacy in accomplishing tasks given to them by their instructors: pre-training 100% of Canadian trainees (43% agreed, 57% strongly agreed) and 88% of American trainees (41% agreed, 47% strongly agreed) reported to be confident in this category, post-training 86% of Canadian trainees agreed with that statement (29% agreed, 57% strongly agreed) as well as 100% of American trainees (16% agreed, 84% strongly agreed). One hundred percent of Canadian recruits expressed self-efficacy in successfully completing the initial police training program both pre- and

post-training (7% agreed and 93% strongly agreed pre-and post-training). Ninety percent of American trainees expressed such confidence pre-training (31% agreed, 59% strongly agreed), and 100% of the American respondents agreed with being able to successfully complete the training post-training (6% agreed, 94% strongly agreed). When asked about their confidence in having the necessary knowledge to successfully complete the training program, 93% of Canadian recruits responded to do so pre-training (43% agreed, 50% strongly agreed), and 100% of Canadian respondents stated they had the necessary knowledge post-training (14% agreed, 86% strongly agreed). Seventy-eight percent of American trainees agreed to having the necessary knowledge pre-training (25% agreed, 53% strongly agreed), compared to all 100% American respondents who reported to do so post-training (9% agreed, 91% strongly agreed).

Survey Comparison and Discussion

The hypotheses for this comparative case study revolved around the potential effect of higher education on trainee self-efficacy and motivation to learn. Specifically, the researcher expected to find relationships between higher education and motivation to learn, as well as higher education and self-efficacy. Motivation was expected to increase for American trainees who do not hold a higher education degree. Motivation to learn was not expected to decrease for Canadian respondents. Lastly, it was hypothesized that self-efficacy would increase among trainees regardless of their educational level and their training location. Due to the low survey response rate, the researcher could not adequately answer research questions three and four (i.e. assessing the effect of higher education on trainee self-efficacy and motivation to learn during initial police training).

After analyzing and comparing the survey data collected from the two selected locations (using the findings reported in Tables 6 and 7), the researcher observed that respondents predominantly agreed with the statements presented to them regarding training expectations, motivation to learn, and self-efficacy regardless of training location. Self-efficacy is a psychology proxy measure for confidence in performing tasks which is challenging to measure as self-reports of self-efficacy during police training can be different from what can be found if trainees where observed performing tasks for which they are not trained. Surprisingly, when distinguishing responses by location, it was observed that Canadian recruits' levels of motivation and self-efficacy decreased throughout the training period, except for trainee willingness to learn as much as possible from the training, the motivation to try harder in case of struggle, and the confidence in the necessary knowledge to successfully complete initial police training. The decrease in motivation and self-efficacy, as well as in training expectations, from Canadian respondents was not drastic, however it is worth acknowledging. On the other side, American trainees' self-efficacy and motivation levels increased during the training period, except for the motivation to become a police officer (which decreased by 4%) and the importance given to succeeding in training and the willingness to try harder if facing obstacles during training (which were reported to have stayed the same throughout the training period). Training expectations of Canadian recruits' are believed to not having been met according to what was reported in the surveys, particularly regarding the good physical fitness requirement of the training academy, the importance given to firearms training during the Patrol and Policing Initial Training Program, and the instruction and training on the use of community oriented principles for situations management. It

appears that American trainees' expectations were met, particularly regarding the physical and psychological demands of initial police training, and the instruction and training in community oriented principles for situation response. An interesting finding of these frequency tables was that the importance attributed to firearms training in the United States seemed to increase during the training period (went from 90% pre-training to 93% post-training), whereas Canadian recruits expectation on the importance of firearms training was not only lower than that of American recruits, but also drastically decreased post-training (from 57% to 36%). Such different expectations on the importance of firearms training across locations are an important finding of this study. This finding could be allocated to societal differences, but is also important in showing how police recruits are trained during initial police training and should be addressed in future research.

Trainee participants were also given the option to respond to whether they felt prepared to enter the police profession after completing the training program, and whether they believed more training was necessary. The responses gathered varied, however, with all American trainees and the majority of their Canadian counterparts expressing feelings of readiness to enter the law enforcement profession with the initial training received at their respective academies. Police trainees from both locations stated that the initial police training program was a basic foundation that adequately prepared them to begin their law enforcement career. All trainees, regardless of their training location, recognized the need for up-to-date and continuous training during their law enforcement career, acknowledging changes and evolutions of society and the law

enforcement profession. The importance of in the field experience and training was also a recurring theme in the respondents' answers across locations.

Interestingly, American trainees seemed to convey more feelings of excitement, and had more positive reviews of their training than their Canadian counterparts who responded. Canadian trainees were satisfied with their training – except for a few participants who believed their training was accelerated or not varied enough– however, concerns related to losing the knowledge acquired during initial training were also made. A potential reason for trainees' excitement to enter the profession versus the fear of losing knowledge may be that recruits from the selected Canadian academy are not guaranteed employment post-training, whereas their American counterparts are.

Survey Limitations

In light of the low response rate (N=46), it was not possible for the researcher to construct valid statistical models or perform advanced analyses to appropriately respond to the research questions of this comparative case study. Findings from the survey analysis are primarily limited by the sample size and the response rate of participants. The data collection method could also be a limitation for survey findings. The researcher acknowledges logistical research challenges, therefore the distributed questionnaires were formatted as retrospective post-tests. Using this format may not have been the best option to collect accurate perceptions of psychological measures such as self-efficacy and motivation to learn.

The limited number of surveys collected does not allow for the requisite statistical analyses to be conducted to address specific research questions presented earlier in the current study. The second, third, and fourth research questions were intended to be

answered with the survey responses, however, in light of the limited number of questionnaires collected, these cannot be used to answer the research questions aforementioned. Instructor interviews collected from both training academies, however can partially address research questions two through four.

Instructor Interviews Comparison and Discussion

Instructor interviews were conducted with the intention of enhancing the researcher's understanding of the initial police training context at the selected locations, and the effect of higher education, or the lack thereof, on trainees' self-efficacy and motivation to learn during training based on the instructors' experience. The questionnaires used to conduct the interviews can be found in Appendices I (Canada), and J (United States). Once again, instructor interview data varied across locations as limited data was received; seven interviews were collected from training instructors at the American academy, and three were collected from the Canadian initial training program. The retrieved interviews varied in their specific responses, however, general themes were discussed by the instructors when responding to the interview questions.

Interviews from the selected initial police training academy in the Southern United States presented different perceptions regarding the influence of higher education on trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy. Most instructors from this academy were not knowledgeable of the educational level of their trainees, however, they generally noted that educational level was not a predictor or factor of influence on trainee levels of motivation to learn and self-efficacy. The majority of responding instructors from the United States reported that motivation to learn and self-efficacy among recruits were subjective to each trainee, and mostly relied on life experience and desire to serve.

Canadian instructors reported that motivation to learn is subjective and depends on recruits' commitment to the profession and fulfilment of training expectations. American respondents reported that the environment of the training program was conducive to motivation as it engaged trainees in participating, and that trainee motivation increases as the training progresses through competition and attrition. One of the Canadian instructors did not report much change in trainee motivation during the training period, but attributed this to the fact that some trainees know that successful completion of the program does not ensure them a job post-training. The other interviewed instructors from the Canadian police academy expressed seeing positive changes in trainee motivation to learn throughout the training period as trainees come in contact with the reality of police training and the profession, however this is subjective as some recruits might be more motivated after experiencing practical training, whereas others might be concerned with whether or not they made the right career choice.

American instructors stated that trainees holding a college degree were reported to have higher motivation since they had invested in a degree for the profession, to be better prepared, and to be more prone to be confident in academic activities. Instructors from the American academy also indicated that recruits' self-efficacy tended to increase during the training period when attaining goals and successfully performing tasks. Few instructors, however, observed that self-efficacy remained static throughout the training period in addition to a lack of trainees' self-confidence. In terms of activities involving skills performance, self-efficacy levels were reported to be similar across recruits regardless of educational level attained prior to entering the police academy in the United States. All interviewed instructors from the Canadian police academy reported variations

in trainee self-efficacy. Two of the Canadian instructors stated that self-efficacy individually fluctuated along with the challenges faced during the learning experiences and the training period, particularly when facing obstacles or successfully performing tasks or simulations without any prior policing experience. The other instructor reported that failure experiences had an important effect on certain trainees. Recruits admitted into the initial police training program usually had great grades during their police technology program, therefore discouraging trainees who repeatedly experienced failures. The environment of the police academy in Canada was reported to possibly affect trainee self-efficacy as well since it provides a new environment to which some recruits might not be used to and therefore find difficult to adapt at first. Instructors remind trainees that they are still in a training period, and encourage them to keep going despite challenges encountered.

Instructors from the American initial police training program had different perceptions regarding whether the training was more oriented towards an audience with a high school diploma or a college degree. Several instructors stated that police training in this academy was designed for all recruits to succeed regardless of educational level as it was set in accordance with state required standards. Some instructors expressed that the curricula were oriented towards a higher educated audience while others noted that the curricula were oriented towards recruits with a high-school or GED educational level. This could account for the lack of detail in the curricula of this academy in contrast to the more descriptive Canadian curricula. Canadian recruits are expected to enter the academy with a theoretical foundation that permits them to focus on task-specific practical training, whereas trainee educational level varies among American recruits, therefore

instructors might have to adapt their curriculum to meet the needs and understanding of the recruits.

Having a higher education degree related to the profession prior to attending police basic training in the Southern United States academy was reported by the majority of instructors to be beneficial for the recruits. Indeed, instructors stated that such pre-training instruction would benefit trainees in their preparedness for courses with an academic emphasis (such as legal and policing courses), by providing recruits with a "holistic understanding of the criminal justice system, in order to help them better address crime and social problems in their respective agencies", by giving trainees the base knowledge that would permit the academy setting to "serve as a reinforcing view of the material", and also in light of the discipline necessary to earn a college degree regardless of its specialization in criminal justice, police technology, or another area. Two of the three interviewed Canadian instructors estimated that the Diploma of Collegial Studies in Police Technology benefitted trainees during initial police training as the collegial professional degree provided trainees with the theoretical foundations necessary for successful completion of the Patrol and Policing Initial Training Program which implements practice of the previous acquired knowledge, particularly in law and problem solving areas. The other instructor believed that the three-year collegial formation did not affect recruit motivation and self-efficacy. Contrary to this belief, the other Canadian instructors stated that higher education in police technology positively influenced recruits' motivation and self-efficacy during initial police training.

The three-year collegial instruction in police technology complements the police initial training offered by the Canadian academy, and has been reported to be a very

important factor in trainee motivation, self-confidence, and performance by the interviewed Canadian instructors. Interviewees also expressed their belief that without the required theoretical collegial education, basic police training would not be limited to 15 weeks, but rather between six months to a year. Canadian instructors generally perceived motivation and self-efficacy to remain static throughout the practical training offered at the police academy. Initial police training at this academy provides recruits with the understanding of the reality of police work and situations they might encounter, therefore allowing trainees to acknowledge the importance of the profession and the fact that sometimes they will be facing situations in which they will have to make important decisions.

Across locations, instructors agreed that motivation and self-efficacy are not influenced by the educational level attained by the recruits prior to attending initial police training. Instructors from both academies stated that life experience added great value to trainees' motivation to learn, performance, and success during basic training. Adaptation to the academy and training environment was reported to induce motivation to learn and self-confidence among trainees from both locations. Higher education was reported to benefit trainees across locations in laws, policies, and important theoretical and basic knowledge relevant to the profession. Self-efficacy was found to increase during training in the two compared academies when trainees successfully accomplished tasks, or attained goals. The reported perceptions are subjective to instructors' own experiences, and their interactions with the recruits during the training program.

Insight on Research Questions and Hypotheses

The first research question of this case comparison study regarding differences and similarities of initial police training curricula across locations was answered in the discussion section of the curricula. The first hypothesis (H_{1a}) stated that themes in the course content would be influenced by the required level of education prior to attending basic police training. After analysis and comparison of the curricula from an initial police academy program in the Southern United States, and the curricula from a Patrol and Policing Initial Training Program in a Canadian urban province, the themes of the curricula were found to be similar, whereas the course content and courses offered in each program differed across locations. This validates the second hypothesis (H_{1b}) which asserted that course contents of initial police training differ according to the required educational level prior to attending training.

The qualitative self-reported information gathered from the limited instructor interviews collected gives an insight into research questions two through four and their respective hypotheses. The second research question asked what effect does higher education have on trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy during initial police training. It was hypothesized that higher education would positively impact trainee motivation to learn during training (H_{2a}), and that trainees with higher education would demonstrate higher self-efficacy levels than their less-educated counterparts (H_{2b}). The analyses conducted on the survey data do not provide sufficient information to answer this question, however, instructor interviews reported that higher education did not influence trainee motivation to learn - even though earning a higher education degree in a law enforcement related area showed trainee initiative and commitment to the profession.

Instructors' perceptions varied regarding whether higher educated trainees had more self-efficacy than their counterparts, however, across locations, instructors reported that higher education was not a strong factor of trainee self-efficacy during training, since self-efficacy was considered to be influenced by recruits' "street" experiences. Higher education was found by some instructors to enhance trainees' confidence in the basic knowledge of the profession, and in cognitive-oriented course settings and activities.

This case comparison also intended to answer the question of how motivation to learn varies during the training period. Hypotheses for this question stated that American recruits without a higher education degree would experience an increase in motivation throughout the training period (H_{3a}), that motivation to learn for American trainees with a college degree would decrease during training (H_{3b}), and motivation to learn would not decrease pre- and post-training for trainees at the Canadian academy selected for comparison (H_{3c}). No analyses were made distinguishing trainees with and without a higher education degree, therefore survey responses cannot be used to accurately assess the effect of higher education on the dependent variables. Survey and instructor interview responses showed that motivation to learn changed throughout the training period, however, trainees' education level did not affect their motivation to learn. Canadian recruits' motivation had small percentage declines pre- and post-training, except in trainee motivation to learn and motivation to try harder when facing challenges which remained static. Their American counterparts demonstrated increases or stability in motivation to learn in all assessed categories except in the commitment to become law enforcement officer, which declined by 4%. Consequently, the current study failed to

reject the null hypotheses related to the alternative hypotheses connected with the third research question (i.e., H_{3a}, H_{3b}, and H_{3c}).

The fourth research question asked how does trainee self-efficacy vary during training at the police academy? The hypothesis for this last question stated that self-efficacy for all trainees would increase in both locations, regardless of educational level (H_4). According to the trainee questionnaires received, self-efficacy levels of American recruits increased post-training. Canadian recruits' reflected declines in self-efficacy levels post-training except when asked about their self-confidence in successfully completing the training program – self-efficacy levels stayed at the same level – and about their confidence in having the necessary knowledge to complete the training – self-efficacy levels were up and rose to 100%. Given that only the American respondents' self-efficacy increased while the Canadian respondents' self-efficacy decreased during basic recruit police training, the current study failed to reject the null hypothesis associated with H_4 as this particular hypothesis asserted that both American and Canadian recruits' self-efficacy would increase during basic training. Some of the variance may have been caused by the relatively low number of Canadian respondents.

CHAPTER V –CONCLUSION

The purpose of this comparative case study is to fill a gap in the literature regarding law enforcement education and training preparation, particularly in regards to the potential effect of higher education on trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy during basic training at the police academy in two different locations. This study intended to assess differences and similarities between two specific basic police training programs in different situations, the Southern United States and Canada looking at curricula from the training programs, trainee motivation and self-efficacy through questionnaires, and instructor interviews.

It is unknown whether recruits had previous knowledge on the contents of the initial police training program before entering the police academy. The effect of higher education could not be adequately assessed in this comparative study. Instructor interviews from the selected locations revealed that higher education did not have a huge impact on recruits' self-reported motivation to learn and self-efficacy. American recruits with a higher education degree were reported by their instructors to perform better in cognitively oriented courses and activities.

Training instruction methods and learning activities are important variables that can affect trainee motivation and self-efficacy. For example, the use of andragogical methods of instruction, such as the ones used at the Canadian police training academy, have been reported to influence trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy (Birzer, 2003; Birzer & Tannehill, 2001).

Curricula from both police training academies selected for comparison were found to share themes of instruction such as policing activities, police technology, and

training and professional commitment. The initial police training program at both academies was found to be predominantly oriented towards the teaching of skills necessary in the law enforcement profession, even though each initial police program differed in terms of the specific courses taught.

Differences in program curricula and courses offered may be due to the minimum educational requirement set by state or provincial standards. For example, Canadian recruits are expected to have a certain knowledge foundation before beginning training at the police academy. In the case of this particular academy, instruction is predominantly focused on practical aspects. Such practical focus should increase trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy, psychological measures chosen for this study, during the initial training period. Surprisingly, motivation to learn and self-efficacy were found to remain stable or decrease slightly among recruits of the Canadian academy. Reasons for the decline in trainee motivation and confidence, as instructors observed, could be the fact that trainees have no guarantee of employment post-training, and repeated failure experiences.

In the selected Southern United States police training academy, there are no expectations of recruits having attained a certain degree of education prior to entering the police academy. Instructors mentioned that police training at this particular academy is designed for all recruits to succeed as long as they put in the necessary effort to do so. The fact that most police trainees at this academy are sponsored and employed by police departments prior to beginning basic training, is reflected in their rising levels of self-efficacy and of motivation to learn as reported post-training.

It was interesting to see that motivation and self-efficacy levels of Canadian recruits declined during the training period, except in regards to their motivation to learn the contents of the training, to keep trying harder in case of obstacles encountered, confidence in successfully completing the training program, and confidence in having the knowledge necessary to complete the program. American trainees reported increases in self-efficacy and motivation to learn as the training program continued, except regarding their willingness to become police officers – which decreased –, and their motivation not to fail the training program and to try harder in case of adversity.

Initial police training curricula and standards are set by state and provincial standards (depending on the location). Recruits' experiences of initial police training varied across locations in terms of training content, learning experience, and motivation to complete training. In the locations selected for this study, more similarities than expected were found in police training programs. Even though minimum educational requirements are different in the selected locations, and instructional approaches also seem to vary, recruits reported higher motivation and self-efficacy during training, initial police training at these specific locations is task-oriented, existence of a specific focus on skills necessary for the profession, and preparing police recruits for the challenges they will face as sworn officers in light of the evolution of both the police role and society.

CHAPTER VI –LIMITATIONS AND PROMISING PRACTICES

The current study collected data obtained from a two-site survey, training curricula, and instructor interview protocol to determine the impact of higher education on trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy levels during initial police training. This data collection process included writing and distributing a survey, local and international communication, cooperation, and collaboration with police training academies, academy instructors, and recruits from the selected police training academies. During this process, multiple challenges emerged such as authorization processes, communication issues, data collection, response rates, and deadline constraints. Limitations for this comparative case study and important strategies for future successful survey research are discussed below.

Limitations of the Present Comparative Case Study

Limitations for this case comparison must be mentioned. The current study had a limited sample size which was so low that it prevented the generalizability of findings. Response rates of trainee surveys restricted the statistical findings since advanced analyses could not be performed.

Regarding the measures used to collect data, more specific questions on trainee surveys would have been helpful in assessing trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy during initial police training, as well as the potential effect of higher education on such psychological measures. A logical and important question that trainees should have been asked is why did they decide to attend initial police training? What was their motivation to do so? Answers to this question might have shed insight on trainee motivation to learn. Age categories on the survey items should have been more specific; instead of separating

age groups by ten-year intervals, the researcher should have divided them by five-year intervals in order to better assess the age groups being surveyed.

Another limitation of this study relates to data collection. Physical observations of training would have given better understanding of the different contexts of training across locations, as well as the instructional methods used, and trainee experience. Physical access to respondents for survey data collection across locations would have probably enhanced the sample size of this comparative case study as well. It is important to keep in mind the possibility of the surveys' self-reported data not being correct regarding pre- and post-training perceptions since respondents were only surveyed post-training, therefore trainees' perceptions before entering the initial training program may not have been accurately reported. Survey fatigue is another limitation to be considered regarding self-reported data. Physical observations and physical survey data collection (in one of the academies) could not be done due to logistical research challenges.

Lastly, this study was not able to respond to the second, third, and fourth research questions because of the limited data collected. Specifically, this case comparison was not able to assess if there was a relationship between higher education pre-police basic training and trainee levels of motivation and self-efficacy, which was one of the study purposes.

Project Strengths and Shortcomings: Better Practices for Future Research

Future research is encouraged to replicate this study, taking into account the limitations and challenges faced by the researcher in the present case, and to conduct a longitudinal study assessing multiple cohorts' perception on motivation and self-efficacy, and the effect of higher education on those measures, using physical observations and

physical data collection to bring more accuracy and reliability to the results and conclusions of this comparative case study. Better practices discussed in this section relate to authorization processes, communication issues and data collection, response rates, and time constraints.

Authorization processes

Some academies may have regulated authorization processes, such as the Institutional Review Board at The University of Southern Mississippi. Inquiring about such processes beforehand would have been useful in order to get the research process started, particularly if there are time constraints – as was the case in this instance. For example, the researcher was unaware that in one of the selected locations the research proposal had to be evaluated and approved by a research committee for which a research proposal form was required. Even though this may or may not have had an impact on the findings – in terms of time constraints and data collection – this is something important to be learned from, and that overall, thanks to good communication with the contact at that facility, the data collection process was not so negatively affected.

Communication issues and data collection

When dealing with different geographical locations, communication is an important factor to keep in mind. Indeed, during the entirety of the research study, the researcher should communicate with the police academy administrators or contact person, to be able to collect data. Establishing communication with gatekeepers from each police training academy is important to enhance the collaboration between parties, as well as the data collection. In this case, it was very important to establish a good communication relationship with the Canadian site as the researcher was unable to be

present to collect data physically. Two main issues were encountered regarding communication with the academies. At first the researcher was unable to communicate with one of the academies via phone to better explain and discuss the research project, however this was fixed and the procedure to keep working on the study continued without further incident. The other issue faced was that the researcher stopped receiving communication from one of the academies during the data collection process. To face this obstacle and continue with the study, the researcher reached out to acquaintances so as to get back in touch with facility administrators, or to ask for help through snowball sampling.

Response rates

Unfortunately, response rates for this project were low, however, they still allowed the researcher to assess the reality of initial police training in two different locations with different educational requirements. The researcher was dependent upon others to be able to gather the necessary data, which made the data collection more difficult and tedious. If the researcher had the opportunity to conduct this study again, inclusion of more questions would permit a better assessment of the situation, and data collection would occur in person rather than depending on third parties for data so as to improve response rates. This could have substantially increased the response rates and allowed for more in depth analyses. The main reason why this was not possible was due to time constraints. The research was conducted and the collected data permitted an assessment of similarities and differences in initial police training across locations, and if a higher education requirement prior to attending a police training facility had an impact on police trainees' motivation to learn and self-efficacy during their training period.

Time constraints

As presented in the aforementioned limitations section, a longitudinal study would have brought more reliability and accuracy to this study, however, this was not possible in the present case. Time constraints were a major issue as everything had to be done in order to meet specific deadlines, however, in light of the circumstances it is believed by the researcher that everything that could be done to accomplish the research adequately was done. When facing time constraints it is important to strategize in order to be able to make the most out of ones' research. This can be done by effectively communicating with the participant academies, collecting data personally when possible, as well as realizing when help is needed; to be persistent in accomplishing study objectives.

APPENDIX A – IRB APROVAL LETTER

THE UNIVERSITY OF
SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
118 College Drive #5147 | Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001
Phone: 601.266.5997 | Fax: 601.266.4377 | www.usm.edu/research/institutional.review.board

NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months.
  Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 16071208
PROJECT TITLE: Police Education and Training: A Comparative Analysis of Law Enforcement Preparation in the United States and Canada
PROJECT TYPE: New Project
RESEARCHER(S): Citlali Deverge Talavera
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Science and Technology
DEPARTMENT: Criminal Justice
FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedted Review Approval
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 07/19/2016 to 07/18/2017
Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX B – IRB MODIFICATION APPROVAL LETTER

THE UNIVERSITY OF
SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
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NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

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- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months.
  Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: CH16071208
PROJECT TITLE: Police Education and Training: A Comparative Analysis of Law Enforcement Preparation in the United States and Canada
PROJECT TYPE: Change to a Previously Approved Project
RESEARCHER(S): Citlali Deverge Talavera
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Science and Technology
DEPARTMENT: School of Criminal Justice
FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedited Review Approval
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 08/22/2016 to 08/21/2017
Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX C – RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER (CANADA)

[redacted]

Le 5 juillet 2016

Madame Citlali Dèverge
Graduate Assistant
School of Criminal Justice
The University of Southern Mississippi
Arthell Kelley Hall (AKH), 123
118 College Drive, Box #5127
Hattiesburg (MS) 39406

Objet : **Autorisation de collecte de données :**
« Police education and training: A comparative analysis of law enforcement preparation in the United States and Canada »

Madame,

Suite à votre demande, il me fait plaisir de vous informer que le comité consultatif en recherche de [redacted] consent à ce que vous réalisiez votre collecte de données auprès d'aspirants policiers et d'instructeurs, et ce, en fonction des modalités suivantes :

1- Vous devez nous faire parvenir un lien vers votre questionnaire électronique, que nous transmettrons aux aspirants de la 171e cohorte. Toutefois, nous ne pouvons vous garantir un nombre minimum de répondants. Leur participation demeure volontaire;

2- Suite à l'envoi de votre grille d'entrevue, nous vous mettrons en contact, par courriel, avec 3 à 5 instructeurs de [redacted]

Veuillez noter que nous vous donnerons également accès aux plans de cours du Programme de formation initiale en patrouille-gendarmerie.

Espérant le tout conforme, je vous souhaite du succès dans votre projet de recherche.

Veuillez agréer, Madame, l'expression de mes meilleurs sentiments.

[redacted]
Directeur du développement pédagogique et des savoirs

[redacted]

APPENDIX D – RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER (UNITED STATES)

[redacted]

June 29, 2016

Citlali Dèverge
Graduate Assistant
School of Criminal Justice
The University of Southern Mississippi

Dear Ms. Dèverge:

As Director of [redacted], you have permission to do your research for your thesis. We will accommodate you as best we can and if you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Sincerely,

[redacted]
CEO/Director

APPENDIX E –EXAMPLE OF CANADIAN CURRICULUM

Firearms proficiency

Presentation

Presentation and purpose of the course.

Overview

- Prerequisite
- Staff instructors
- Target audience
- Length

Objectives and standards

Skill statement	**Context of implementation**
Use a handgun in a defensive shooting situation	- This section states the context of learning activities and equipment used in this course. -

Skill elements	**Performance criteria**
Apply manipulation techniques	-Proficiency criteria-
Perform defensive shooting with a handgun	-Proficiency criteria-
Perform handgun maintenance	-Proficiency criteria-
Appreciate one's shooting performances	-Proficiency criteria-
And for all the course	-Proficiency criteria-

Training contents

Technical abilities associated to the use handguns

- Manipulation techniques

- Handgun defensive shooting
    - Precision shot (20 meters)
    - Barricaded shooting (15 meters)
    - Reactive shooting (1, 3, 5, and 7 meters)
    - Reactive shooting with one hand and in low light circumstances
    - Shooting in prone position
    - Tactical principles associated with a shooting situation
- Firearm maintenance

Didactic approach

- An active role for police recruits
- A coach and facilitator role for the instructor

Teaching and learning activities

No	Activity title and learning objectives	Length	Skill elements

Evaluation

- Step 1: Barricaded shooting (16 bullets)
- Step 2: Reactive shooting (34 bullets)
- Step 3: Transfer, securement and maintenance of the handgun

Success threshold and conditions for the second attempt

Grading scale

%	Grade	Skill proficiency level	Definition
96.3-100	A+	**SUPERIOR**	The student exceeds distinctively and unambiguously the threshold required for the criteria associated with the competence.
92.7 - 96.2	A		
89.1 - 92.6	A-		
85.5 - 89	B+	**VERY SATISFACTORY**	The student convincingly attained the criteria associated with the competency.
81.8 - 85.4	B		
78.1 - 81.7	B-		
74.5 - 78	C+	**SATISFACTORY**	The student acceptably achieved the criteria associated with the skill. Its performance in certain criteria will have to me improved in a refining perspective.
70.9 - 74.4	C		
67.3 -70.8	C-		
63.6 - 67.2	D+	**MINIMAL**	The student minimally performed the criteria associated with the competence. Its performance will have to me improved in a refining perspective
60 - 63.5	D		
0 - 59.9	E	**INSUFFICIENT**	The student did not acquire the knowledge and skills targeted by the course. One or more criteria were not achieved. This grade results in failing the course; retaking the course must be considered.

APPENDIX F –EXAMPLE OF AMERICAN CURRICULUM

Course Title: <u>FIREARMS TRAINING</u>

Instructional Goal

Course Objectives

Identify safety rules associated with firearms and the firing range.

Identify various types of police firearms.

Define the general nomenclature of various firearms.

Demonstrate proper firearm safety procedures.

Demonstrate proper procedures to:

a. Load and unload various types of firearms and department assigned weapons under normal and stress conditions.
b. Disassemble, clean and reassemble department assigned weapons.
c. Perform a function check of assigned weapon after the weapon has been reassembled.
d. Clear and render service weapon(s) to a safe condition.
e. Perform the proper drawing sequence of a service weapon.
f. Assume proper shooting positions.
g. Clear a malfunction.
h. Combat reload and clear a malfunction with one hand/both hands.
i. Utilize proper cover and concealment/ Roll Out Techniques.
j. Engage multi-adversaries.

k. Score and analyze targets.

l. Assume the correct defensive stance for maximum protection capability of soft body armor.

m. Protect against “ricochet/skip” shooting.

n. Remove and replace shotguns/rifles from weapon holders in law enforcement vehicles.

o. Approach and control a potential assailant in close quarters.

Explain the difference between concealment and cover.

Demonstrate proper way to conduct serviceability checks.

Identify the five (5) steps involved in shooting.

A. Proper grip

B. Proper stance

C. Trigger control

D. Sight alignment & sight picture.

E. Breathing and follow through.

Demonstrate competence with service weapons by shooting a course of fire at a level of proficiency deemed appropriate by the BLEOST.

Demonstrate the skill in use of firearms in night fire and low light circumstances.

Demonstrate ability to make proper shoo/no shoot decision.

Demonstrate techniques related to firing weapon while holding flashlight.

Demonstrate capacity to properly utilize firearms in stressful circumstances.

Identify the various types of ammunition, penetrating power, and shot spread.

APPENDIX G –SURVEY (CANADA)

[redacted]

Questionnaire sur la Motivation et Auto-Efficacité Durant la Formation Policière
Enquête Rétrospective Après-Formation 2016

Vos réponses à ce questionnaire resteront confidentielles et seront gardées par Citlali Dèverge, étudiante responsable de cette recherche. Les réponses seront collectées afin d'observer des changements potentiels dans les niveaux de motivation et auto-efficacité des recrues pendant leur formation à l'école de police. Merci d'avance pour votre participation dans cette étude, ainsi que pour la sincérité de vos réponses.

*1ère Partie: Évaluez les affirmations ci-dessous de la manière suivante : Indiquez avec un **X** la case qui correspond le mieux à vos impressions AVANT d'avoir complété votre formation à* [redacted]*, et APRÈS avoir complété votre formation policière selon votre degré d'accord : Tout à fait d'Accord (**TA**), d'Accord (**A**), Ni en accord ni en désaccord (**N**), en Désaccord (**D**), Tout à fait en désaccord (**TD**).*

Affirmation	Je pensais ceci **AVANT** d'avoir complété ma formation policière.					Je pense ceci **MAINTENANT** que ma formation à l'école de police est terminée.				
	TD	D	N	A	TA	TD	D	N	A	TA
L'école de formation de police est physiquement et psychologiquement exigeante.										
L'école de formation de police exige une bonne condition physique.										
La formation aux armes à feu occupera une grande partie du programme à l'école de police.										
Je serais formé(e) et apprendrai comment gérer différentes situations en utilisant des principes de la police de proximité.										
Je serai formé(e) sur la façon d'utiliser des compétences de raisonnement critique afin de résoudre des conflits.										
J'apprendrai le plus possible lors de ma formation policière.										
Ne pas échouer à l'école de police est important pour moi.										
Si j'éprouve des difficultés lors de ma formation à l'école de police, je redoublerai d'efforts.										

Je veux devenir policier/ policière.										
J'aime ce qui est enseigné à l'école de formation de police.										
Il est facile pour moi d'atteindre les buts que je me fixe.										
Je suis persuadé(e) de ma capacité à faire face à des événements imprévus à l'école de police.										
Je suis convaincu(e) que je peux accomplir ce qui m'est demandé par mes instructeurs à l'école de formation de police.										
Je peux terminer avec succès ma formation policière.										
J'ai les connaissances nécessaires pour réussir cette formation policière.										

2ème Partie: Veuillez répondre aux questions démographiques ci-dessous afin de permettre l'observation des différentes perceptions en matière de motivation et auto-efficacité. Veuillez cocher la/les réponses adaptée(s). Répondez aussi clairement et précisément que possible.

Sexe:
☐ Masculin ☐ Féminin

Âge:
☐ 18-19 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60-69 ☐ 70+

Education:
☐ Education secondaire ☐ Diplôme d'études professionnelles ☐ Diplôme d'études collégiales
☐ Baccalauréat ☐ Maîtrise ☐ > Maîtrise
☐ Autre: _____

Après avoir complété votre formation de police à [redacted], vous sentez-vous prêts à entrer dans la profession policière? Pensez-vous avoir besoin d'être mieux formé? Si oui, expliquez.

APPENDIX H –SURVEY (UNITED STATES)

[redacted]

Motivation and Self-Efficacy during Police Training Survey
2016 Retrospective Post-Training Survey

Your responses to this survey are kept confidential by student researcher Citlali Dèverge. The responses will be aggregated in order to see potential effects on motivation and self-efficacy during the police training period. Thanks for your participation in the study, and thank you for your candid responses.

*Part 1: Evaluate each line item presented below in the following manner: Place an **X** mark in the box that best describes how you felt BEFORE attending police training at* [redacted]*, and AFTER your participation in the training is completed according to your agreement to the following statements: Strongly Disagree (**SD**), Disagree (**D**), Neutral (**N**), Agree (**A**), or Strongly Agree (**SA**). Please do not leave any items unanswered.*

Statement	I thought this **BEFORE** I completed my training at the police training academy.					I think this **NOW** that my training at the police training academy is completed				
	SD	D	N	A	SA	SD	D	N	A	SA
The police training academy is physically and psychologically demanding.										
The police training academy requires good physical fitness.										
Firearms training will be a big part of the program at the police training academy.										
I will learn and be trained in how to manage different situations using community policing principles.										
I will be trained in how to use critical thinking skills to resolve conflicts.										
I will learn as much as I can from this training.										
It is important for me not to fail in the police academy.										
If I begin to struggle during the police academy, I will try harder.										

I want to become a police officer.										
I like what is taught at the police training academy.										
It is easy for me to accomplish goals I set for myself.										
I am confident I can deal with unexpected events at the police training academy.										
I am confident I can accomplish the tasks given to me by my instructors at the police academy.										
I can successfully complete the police academy training.										
I have the knowledge needed to successfully complete this training program.										

<u>Part 2: Please answer the following demographic questions in order to see how different persons feel about what is being examined.</u> Please select the one appropriate answer. Answer as clearly and accurately as possible.

Gender:
☐ Male ☐ Female

Age:
☐ 18-19 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60-69 ☐ 70+

Education:
☐ High School Diploma ☐ General Education Diploma ☐ Bachelor's Degree
☐ Associates' Degree ☐ Master's Degree ☐ > Master's Degree
☐ Other: _____

Now that you have completed the police training program at the academy, do you feel ready to enter the police profession? Do you think you need more training? If yes, explain.

APPENDIX I –INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE (CANADA)

Questionnaire Portant sur la Motivation et Auto-Efficacité Durant la Formation Policière
The University of Southern Mississippi / [redacted]
Été 2016

AVIS DE CONSENTEMENT

Une étudiante de maîtrise de The University of Southern Mississippi distribuera et récupèrera un questionnaire mesurant les perceptions de motivation à apprendre et l'auto-efficacité (confiance en soi dans les performances) d'une cohorte de recrues de [redacted]. Participer et répondre à l'entrevue est volontaire et aucune information permettant d'identifier les participants ne sera utilisée pour associer les réponses aux participants. Votre participation est entièrement confidentielle.

Objet de la recherche
Ce projet pose des questions relatives à l'effet potentiel du niveau d'éducation sur la motivation et l'auto-efficacité des aspirants pendant la formation policière à [redacted] de police. Afin de mesurer ceci, des questions générales portant sur la motivation et l'auto-efficacité des recrues sont posées.

Vous avez la possibilité d'accepter de participer ou non aux entrevues écrites
La participation aux entrevues est volontaire. Votre participation dans ce questionnaire qui porte sur la motivation à apprendre et auto-efficacité des recrues afin de voir si elles ont changé pendant leur période de formation à l'école de police, n'est pas obligatoire. En participant à cette étude, vous donnez à l'enquêteur votre consentement. Vous pouvez arrêter de répondre au questionnaire à tout moment sans sanction, préjudice ou perte de bénéfices. Vous pouvez changer d'avis sur votre participation à tout moment pendant l'entrevue, et votre questionnaire sera retiré. Vous êtes libre de répondre ou non à certaines questions spécifiques. Votre décision de participer ou ne pas participer ne sera pas divulguée à l'École de police.

Risques associés au remplissage du questionnaire
Le questionnaire ne contient pas d'informations permettant de vous identifier. Étant donné que les entrevues sont confidentielles, il y a très peu de risques de divulguer les révélations de vos impressions concernant la motivation et auto-efficacité des aspirants pendant la période de formation policière.

Information de contact en cas de questions ou commentaires
En cas de questions ou préoccupations sur ce projet de recherche, tels que problèmes scientifiques, comment répondre aux questions, ou pour signaler un problème, veuillez contacter par mail l'étudiante responsable de ce projet, Citlali Déverge, à citlali.devergetalavera@eagles.usm.edu. Vous pouvez également contacter son conseiller académique, Dr Charles Scheer (charles.scheer@usm.edu), pour plus d'information.

Documentation de consentement libre et éclairé
En raison de la nature confidentielle du sondage, votre signature n'est pas requise. ***En complétant le questionnaire attaché vous indiquez votre consentement volontaire à participer dans ce projet de recherche.***

Questionnaire d'entrevue aux instructeurs

Merci de bien vouloir participer à cette étude. Le but de cette recherche est d'examiner l'effet du niveau d'éducation des aspirants policiers (obtention d'un diplôme en techniques policières avant la formation policière) sur leur motivation à apprendre et efficacité personnelle (confiance en soi dans leur performance) durant la période de formation à [redacted]. Vos réponses me permettront de comprendre l'effet du niveau d'études des aspirants sur la motivation à apprendre et l'auto-efficacité du point de vue des instructeurs. Votre contribution dans cette recherche est très importante car, en tant qu'instructeur, vous êtes plus familiarisé(e) avec les groupes d'aspirants qui ont complété leur formation policière à [redacted]. Vous avez probablement noté des changements en termes de motivation et efficacité personnelle des aspirants durant leur période de formation, ce projet de recherche permet d'observer si le niveau d'études des recrues avant leur formation est lié à ces changements. Votre participation est volontaire et confidentielle. En répondant aux questions ci-dessous vous indiquez votre consentement volontaire à participer.

Veuillez répondre aux questions suivantes aussi clairement et précisément que possible de votre point de vue en tant qu'instructeur à [redacted].

1. En tant qu'instructeur à [redacted] avez-vous noté des changements dans la motivation à apprendre des aspirants durant leur formation policière ? Veuillez expliquer.

2. Avez-vous observé des changements dans les niveaux de confiance en soi des aspirants par rapport à leur performance pendant la formation policière à [redacted] ? Veuillez expliquer.

3. Selon votre expérience, y a-t-il des aspirants qui démontrent **plus de motivation à apprendre** lors de la formation à [redacted]? Si oui, qui? Pourquoi?

4. Croyez-vous qu'avoir un diplôme en techniques policières avant de compléter la formation policière à [redacted] bénéficie les aspirants policiers durant leur formation ? Veuillez expliquer.

5. Diriez-vous qu'être titulaire d'un diplôme en techniques policières rend les aspirants plus confiants dans l'accomplissement des tâches qui leur sont données? Veuillez expliquer.

6. Pensez-vous qu'être titulaire d'un diplôme en techniques policières a un effet sur la motivation à apprendre des aspirants lors de leur formation à [redacted]? Comment?

7. Pensez-vous que la formation policière à [redacted] répond aux attentes des aspirants policiers? Comment?

8. D'après vous, est-ce que l'exigence d'avoir complété des études en techniques policières avant de commencer une formation policière à [redacted] bénéficie les aspirants policiers lors de leur formation? Comment? (motivation, confiance en soi, performance, résultats…)

Avez-vous d'autres commentaires ou information que vous souhaiteriez partager?

APPENDIX J –INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE (UNITED STATES)

Motivation and Self-Efficacy during Police Training Survey
The University of Southern Mississippi / [redacted]
Summer 2016

NOTICE OF CONSENT

A graduate student from The University of Southern Mississippi will be distributing and collecting questions measuring perceptions of trainee motivation and self-efficacy during police training at [redacted]. Participation in the interview is voluntary, and no identifying information will be used to link responses to participants. Participation is confidential.

What the research will do
The research asks questions about whether or not education level affects police trainees' motivation and self-efficacy levels during training at the police training academy. To measure this, general questions about trainee motivation and self-efficacy are asked.

Your rights to participate, or say no to the written interview
Participation is voluntary. You do not have to participate in the interview which is simply asking if you have observed whether trainee motivation and self-efficacy levels changed during the training period at the police training academy. By participating in this study, you are providing the researcher with your voluntary and implied consent. You can stop answering this questionnaire at any point without any penalty, prejudice or loss of benefits. You may change your mind about participation at any time during the interview, and your questionnaire will be withdrawn. You may choose not to answer specific questions. Information about your participation will not be disclosed to the police training academy.

Risks of filling out the interview questions
There is no identifying information on the questionnaire about you. Therefore, because the interviews are confidential, risks of your disclosing your impressions of motivation and self-efficacy during training are minimal.

Contact information for questions or comments
If you have concerns or questions about this project, such as scientific issues, how to do any part of it, or to report an injury, feel free to contact the student researcher Citlali Déverge via email at citlali.devergetalavera@eagles.usm.edu. You can also contact her faculty advisor Dr. Charles Scheer (charles.scheer@usm.edu) for more information.

Documentation of informed consent
Because of the confidential nature of the survey, your signature is not required. ***You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate in this research project by completing the questionnaire attached***.

Instructor interview questions

Thank you for considering participating in this study. The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of education on police recruits' levels of motivation and self-efficacy during basic recruit police training. Your responses will allow the researcher to understand the effect of education levels on trainee motivation to learn and self-efficacy from the instructor's perspective. Your input is very important in this project because, as an instructor, you are more familiar with the cohorts of recruits that have gone through basic police academy training at [redacted]. You are more likely to have noticed trends in trainee motivation and self-efficacy during training, as well as in trainee education and whether said educational levels influenced trainees' motivation to learn and self-efficacy. Participation is voluntary and confidential. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by answering the following questions.

Please answer these questions as clearly and accurately as possible from your perspective as an instructor at SRPSI. Please do not leave any questions unanswered.

1. As a police academy instructor, have you noticed changes in recruit motivation to learn during training at the academy? If so, explain.

2. Have you noticed changes in recruits' self-confidence in performance during their training at SRPSI? If so, explain.

3. In your experience, is there a **difference** in terms of motivation to learn and self-efficacy **between** recruits with a high school diploma or GED, **and** those with a college degree? How?

4. Would you say that trainees **with** a college degree are more confident when accomplishing the tasks given to them?

5. Would you say that trainees **without** a college degree are more motivated to learn than those with a college degree?

6. Do you believe that having a specialized higher education in criminal justice or police techniques prior to attending basic recruit police training would be beneficial for police recruits during training? Please explain.

7. Do you believe that training at [redacted] fulfills recruits' expectations of police training regardless of their educational level?

8. Would you say that police training at [redacted] is more directed towards an audience with a high school diploma or a college degree? Why?

9. Based on your experience and observations, who shows **more motivation to learn** at the training academy: trainees with or without a college degree? Why?

10. Based on your experience and observations, who shows **more self-confidence in performing tasks** given at the police training academy: trainees with or without a college degree? Why?

Do you have any other comments or information you would like to share?

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