

**Michigan Commission on
Law Enforcement Standards**

**A Training Program For
Military Police Veterans**



VALIDATION REPORT

2012

Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards

The Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (MCOLES) is authorized by statute to promulgate rules establishing compulsory standards for the selection, employment, and training of law enforcement officers in the state of Michigan (MCL 28.601-616). The Commission's statutory responsibilities include the authority to promulgate medical and non-medical standards for the law enforcement profession. Seventeen commissioners all serve either by virtue of their position or by appointment to a term of office by the Governor. The Commission membership is diverse. It consists of representatives from the Michigan Association of Chiefs of Police, the Michigan Sheriff's Association, labor organizations, prosecution, defense, the State Police, the Detroit Police Department, and the Attorney General's Office. Executive Order No. 2001-5 (MCL 28.621) gives increased responsibility to the Commission in the area of in-service training and continuing education.

Executive Director
David Harvey

Deputy Executive Director
Hermina Kramp

Career Development Section

Wayne Carlson, Section Manager
Joyce Nelson, Lead Investigator
Danny Rosa, Analyst
Patrick Hutting, Analyst

www.michigan.gov/mcoles



Table of Contents

Executive Summary.....	1
Background.....	3
Terminology.....	5
Job Task Analysis.....	7
Congruency Study.....	11
Best Practices.....	13
Site Visits.....	14
Testing and Evaluation.....	16
A Model Program.....	21
Conclusion.....	25
References.....	27
Appendix	31

Executive Summary

In 2011 President Barack Obama signed the federal VOW Act, which provides support for military veterans to secure employment in the civilian sector. With this legislation as a backdrop, and based on several meetings with the military, the MCOLES Executive Director assigned staff the responsibility to create a military training program that would be unique to military police veterans. The goal was to create a process whereby those with military police experience could transition more quickly and effectively into civilian policing and eventually become licensed law enforcement officers in Michigan. The full technical report documents the process used to establish validity and reliability for Michigan's military training program, which supports entry requirements, training content, testing, and classroom delivery techniques.

The staff gave full consideration to the essential job tasks performed by Michigan law enforcement officers, prior military police training and experience, academic research, and input from a professional advisory panel. These efforts culminated in a training program and curriculum for Commission review and consideration. Insofar as proper decision making is such a crucial component of today's policing efforts, the staff identified training strategies specifically designed to create competency in both skills and judgment.

The MCOLES staff created a 240-hour military law enforcement training program, which includes time for administrative matters, testing, and performance evaluations. The staff established a set of entry requirements for admission into the program is recommended as well.

1. Entry Requirements

Those seeking entry into the military training program must: a) pass the MCOLES physical fitness test (exit standard), b) pass the reading/writing examination, c) meet current medical and

non-medical standards, and d) submit required documentation and application materials to MCOLES and/or the training site for verification and evaluation. Applicants must:

- a. have performed as a military police officer for a minimum of 2080 hours in a specified law enforcement occupational specialty (MOS);
- b. have satisfactorily completed military police training at a federal service school;
- c. possess an honorable discharge from the Armed Forces or be currently serving; and
- d. have discontinued employment in the specified law enforcement MOS for no more than five (5) years prior to the start of the program.

2. Training Content

The Table below displays the functional training areas for the 240-hour military training program, which shall be delivered at MCOLES-approved regional training sites.

**Table
Proposed 240-hour Military Training**

Area	Hours	Percent
Administrative time	7	3
Investigation (legal matters)	70	30
Patrol procedures	26	11
Detention and prosecution	5	2
Police skills	92	38
Traffic	30	12
Special operations	10	4
Total	240	100

A Training Program for Military Police Veterans

Background

In November 2011 President Barack Obama signed the bipartisan Veterans Opportunity to Work to Hire Heroes Act (VOW Act), which provides support for military veterans to secure employment in the civilian sector (38 U.S.C. §§ 4100-4114 (2011)). The Act has two underlying premises: a) post-9/11 veterans should be recognized for their service and sacrifice to their country, and b) military veterans possess a wide array of skills and abilities such as leadership, integrity, and interpersonal skills, which make them well suited for civilian employment. In April 2012 Mr. David Harvey, the Executive Director of the Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (MCOLES), accompanied Major General Nelson Cannon, US Army retired, to Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri to obtain an onsite overview of basic military police training and to observe live classroom instruction. The purpose of the site visit was to obtain a detailed understanding of military law enforcement training and its potential relevance and applicability to civilian law enforcement in Michigan.

Upon his return, Mr. Harvey assigned the MCOLES staff the responsibility to create a logistically achievable training program for military police veterans, one accessible to all five service branches of the Armed Forces. Shortly thereafter, we on the Commission staff began the initial planning, which eventually culminated in a model program for Commission review and consideration. The assignment was to establish a training program unique to military law enforcement veterans that would lead to licensure as a law enforcement officer in Michigan. The goal was to create a process whereby those with military police training and experience could transition more quickly and effectively into civilian policing. The challenge was to identify job

related training content, reliable assessment criteria, and establish procedures that would be practical and valid.

The purpose of this report is to document evidence of validity and reliability for the military training program, which supports training content, performance outcomes, and instructional delivery methodologies. To establish both content and construct validity, it was necessary to connect the curriculum in the military training program to patrol officer job tasks, professional best practices, state statutes, and the academic research in criminal justice and military policing. As the project progressed, we determined how best to combine the overall objectives of the federal VOW Act yet maintain minimum requirements and standards necessary for licensure as a law enforcement officer in our state. The focus was somewhat narrower than that of VOW insofar as we considered a program for military police veterans rather than all returning veterans. Contrary to popular assumptions that there are many conceptual similarities between military policing and civilian policing, enough distinctions exist to require a unique program that would adequately prepare veterans for the policing profession (Cowper, 2000; IACP, 2010; IACP, 2009). More importantly, it is crucial that those graduating from the program possess a minimum level of competency as they enter the law enforcement profession in Michigan.

Training for military law enforcement veterans, as for all candidates, must be contemporary and accurately reflect the content domain of the policing profession. Additionally, the training must be delivered in an abilities-based learning environment where teaching techniques include real world context and address transition issues unique to the military experience (IACP, 2010; IACP, 2009). From the outset, we used established organizational protocols and procedures to guide our research activities to ensure project goals accurately reflect the increasing complexity of law enforcement tasks. Process is important. It gives meaning and relevance to project outcomes and

we wanted to proceed deliberately. We completed the relevant research, conducted site visits at several military installations, consulted with an advisory group, and examined curricula from the five US service branches—Army, Air Force, Navy, Marines, and Coast Guard. We eventually identified a set of behaviorally-based training topics and objectives for the program, which are linked to the essential job tasks of the profession and blueprinted to the statewide licensing examination.

A Note on Terminology

Validity is another word for job-relatedness. In this report, we document evidence of validity for the training content, testing, and training delivery methodologies. The American Psychological Association (APA) prescribes three types of validity: a) content, b) construct, and c) criterion (American Educational Research Association, 1999). Also see 29 C.F.R. § 1607.14 (1978).

Although the *Standards* primarily address cognitive testing and measurement, the military training program must be based, in pertinent part, on the essential job functions and core work responsibilities performed by Michigan law enforcement officers in today’s environment (Birch, 1993; MCOLES, 2006; Mehrens & Lehmann, 1984; Post, 1992).

Content validity refers to evidence that the training specifications (curriculum objectives) are linked to a professional behavioral domain from which one can make valid and reliable inferences about performance and behavior (Mehrens & Lehmann, 1984). Mehrens puts it this way, “In judging content validity, we must first define the content domain and universe of situations. In doing so, we should consider both the subject matter and the type of behavior or task desired of the pupils” (p. 290). To maintain validity, the behavioral domain, and the training and testing that emerge from the domain, must be based on relevant job functions, empirical research, and best policing practices. This conceptual connectivity ensures the requirements for working in the

profession are essential for functioning as a minimally competent law enforcement officer. In a larger sense, citizens must be confident that responses to their calls for service will be answered by an officer who possesses basic knowledge, skills and abilities.

Construct validity refers to the linkages among the underlying behavioral characteristics of performance as a law enforcement officer and the standards, training, and testing established at the state level. A construct is a trait or attribute that underlies successful behavior on the job (AERA, 1999; MCOLES, 2006; Overton, 1999). From a law enforcement perspective, constructs include theoretical variables, such as problem solving and decision making, which often are not directly measurable or immediately apparent through independent observation. Citizens want their officers to use sound judgment and solve problems when responding to calls or providing services to their community (Bittner, 1990; Brown, 1979; Radelet, 1986; Watson, Stone, & DeLuca, 1998).

Criterion validity typically involves predicting future success or failure on the job, based on a stated set of criteria (AERA, 1999; Mehrens & Lehmann, 1984). But proving a connection between training and future job performance can be challenging for researchers because behavior is often influenced by a wide variety of inter-related and intervening variables. For example, the quality of field training, the organizational culture, community expectations, and even an officer's "emotional intelligence" may significantly influence the nature and quality of their decisions (Bittner, 1990; Brown, 1979; Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). We do not document evidence of criterion validity, yet we recognize the necessity to act responsibly regarding the potential risks to officers and the public when setting training specifications for law enforcement.

Military police or military policing refers to all law enforcement occupational classifications in the five branches of the Armed Services. The Army and Marines classify law enforcement specialists as military police officers (MPs), but the Navy typically uses the term "Master at Arms."

In the Coast Guard law enforcement duties are carried out by the Maritime Enforcement Specialists or Boarding Officers. The Air Force refers to military police officers as Security Forces. We purposely use the term *military police* to include all these classifications and occupational specialties to improve grammatical clarity and readability of this report. All military police officers in the Armed Services enforce the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ). See 10 U.S.C. Chapter 47 (1994). Criminal investigations, however, are typically carried out by separate agencies, for example the Naval Criminal Investigative Service (NCIS).

Job Task Analysis

The first step was to examine the essential job functions required of active duty law enforcement officers as they appear in Michigan's job task analysis (MCOLES, 2006). As with the mandated curriculum for recruits, the training specifications in the military training program needed to be linked to a candidate's ability to perform certain core functions of the profession. These functions represent the knowledge, skills, abilities, and underlying behavioral constructs required for minimum competency as a law enforcement officer. MCOLES completed its most recent job task analysis in late 2006 by working in partnership with Performance-Based Selection, Ltd (PBS), Westlake, Ohio and Stanard and Associates (SA), Chicago, Illinois.

The MCOLES job task analysis is a comprehensive questionnaire that identifies specific law enforcement job tasks rated by frequency and criticality. During the formulation of the latest JTA, we identified a stratified random sample of active duty patrol officers (n=3,231) and first-line supervisors (n=706) and asked them a series of questions about their job responsibilities. Respondents rated an extensive inventory of job tasks (N=459) on a scale of 1-5, where "1" represented low frequency or low criticality and "5" represented higher ratings. Patrol officers indicated how frequently they performed each task and patrol supervisors rated the relative

importance of each task. For example, task #53 on the inventory states, “Detain a person based on reasonable suspicion”, which emerged as an essential job function (MCOLES, 2006). Officers may conduct a brief investigatory detention of any citizen to determine existing or potential criminal activity, assuming adequate legal justification (*Terry v. Ohio*, 392 U.S. 1 (1968)). This item has an average frequency rating of 2.70 and an average criticality rating of 3.19, which reflects all agency types and sizes across the state for this task.

The researchers used a weighted formula to identify a list of core job tasks, or essential job functions, for the position of law enforcement officer in Michigan. State statutes also reference core job functions. Per statute, police officers are directed to enforce the general criminal laws (MCL 28.602(1)(i)), perform specified functions (MCL 92.2), arrest certain persons (MCL 750.52), and enforce traffic laws (MCL 257.42). Michigan courts have also taken notice of the MCOLES JTA (*Peden v. City of Detroit*, 470 Mich 195 (2004)).

In creating the basic training curriculum for recruits, the essential job functions in the JTA were first turned into worker requirements and then into behaviorally-based training objectives subject to both written and performance testing. Currently, the number of hours for recruit training is set at 594 hours, although all 21 statewide academies exceed this minimum standard. Table 1 displays the six functional areas and the amount of time devoted to each area in Michigan’s recruit academies. The 459 job tasks on the inventory are categorized into six functional areas, which include Investigations, Patrol Procedures, Detention & Prosecution, Police Skills, Traffic, and Special Operations. Investigations includes criminal law and procedure and Police Skills includes firearms, first aid, emergency vehicle operations, fitness, and the mechanics of arrest. Since the basic training curriculum and the licensing examination are blueprinted to this model, the military training program needed to be connected in a similar manner.

Table 1
Basic Training Functional Areas by Hours

Area	Hours	Percent
Administrative time	18	3
Investigation (legal matters)	115	19
Patrol procedures	65	11
Detention and prosecution	15	2
Police skills	278	47
Traffic	70	12
Special operations	33	6
Total	594	100

Performing as a law enforcement officer also involves the ability to make sound judgments. Brown (1979) tells us that an officer’s street level performance is directly influenced by underlying behavioral constructs, or underlying characteristics, that affect performance on the job. Behavioral psychologists conceptualize *constructs* as qualities that have broad applicability to behavior and performance (Bitner, 1990; Cherryholmes, 1988; Davis, 1969; Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964; Overton, 1999). Constructs support basic knowledge by influencing what an officer does, not necessarily what an officer knows. Constructs include problem solving, decision making, creativity, leadership, communication, ethics, etc.—essentially the higher-order cognitive abilities. In the training environment and on the job, content (knowledge) and constructs (knowing) work together to produce effective performance. Interestingly, the research tells us that the military environment builds these same underlying characteristics through relevant work experience and training (Cowper, 2000; IACP, 2010; IACP, 2009; Taylor & Rosenbach, 1996).

Based on this conceptual foundation, we isolated specific constructs deemed essential for effective performance as a law enforcement officer as they appear in the job task analysis. In the 2006 JTA the respondents selected the single most important construct needed by patrol officers to perform their job responsibilities effectively, regardless of the type of call or situation. They

selected one characteristic from a list of constructs, as displayed in Table 2. The list essentially represents the “construct domain” of the law enforcement profession in Michigan. Note that “communication skills” and “decision making” were rated the highest, which is consistent with the research on how officers make decisions on the job (Bittner, 1990; Kaukinen & DeMaris, 2009; Knowles, 1984; Sims, 2006; Wilson, 1993). For example, consider communication skills. Officers

Table 2
The Construct Domain for Effective Job Performance

Characteristic (Constructs)	n	Percent
Communication Skills	867	26.8
Decision Making	858	26.7
Job Experience	445	13.7
Multi-Tasking	329	10.2
Problem Solving	286	8.9
Legal Knowledge	220	6.8
Ethics	97	3.0
No response	67	2.0
Physical Fitness	62	1.9

n=3,231

often interview witnesses and complainants, and interrogate suspects, during on-scene preliminary investigations. Uncertainty performing these tasks could potentially compromise the integrity of an ongoing investigation or negatively impact due process. The ability to articulate a position, write an investigative report, or clearly inform others are essential underlying constructs of the policing profession (Brown, 1979; Daniel, 2004).

Insofar as law enforcement officers engage in purely discretionary acts every day on the job, it is necessary that underlying constructs become a crucial component of the military training regimen. The educational research tells us that one way to enhance decision making and problem solving is to use interactive training methods in a setting that approximates the real world (Knowles, 1984; Mager, 1973; Novak & Gowan, 1984; Poikela, 2004; Post, 1992; Sims, 2006;

VanderKooi, 2006; Woods, 1994). Interactive training methodologies, based on adult learning theory, are designed to make the acquisition of knowledge more meaningful and relevant to the participants. Therefore, detailed instructor notes and commentaries appear in the training resources to help instructors become facilitators in the classroom and to enhance their ability to develop this “higher order thinking,” primarily through reality-based scenarios, case studies, and class discussions. Here, we consider the problem-based learning model (PBL). PBL is an approach to learning that can be defined as knowledge acquisition through the resolution of real world problems (Poikela, 2004; Woods, 1994). We do not abandon lecture entirely, but from the PBL perspective, learning occurs when participants acquire basic knowledge through action learning, integrated problem identification, and problem resolution. Using PBL, instructors can improve judgment at the same time they teach new knowledge and skills, including relevant military transition issues and concerns.

Congruency Study

Next, we compared military police training to what is mandated for recruits in Michigan. See Table 3. This helped us identify potential redundancies and duplications as we developed the military training program and curriculum. We obtained the military police training specifications

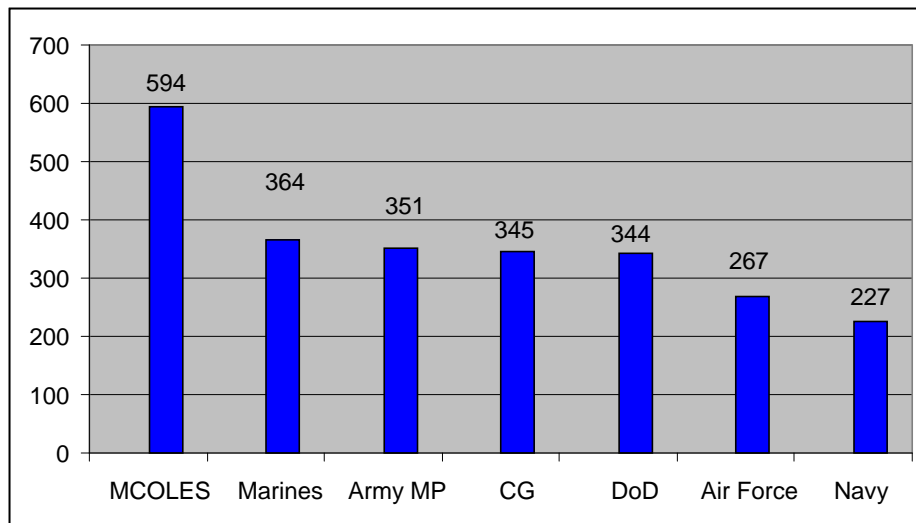
Table 3
Training Hour Comparison by Functional Area

Area	MCOLES	Army	Marines	Navy	Air Force	Coast Guard
Administrative time	18	0	16	28	0	0
Investigation (legal)	115	18	73	12	42	18
Patrol procedures	65	38	22	25	25	31
Detention/prosecution	15	25	1	3	6	1
Police skills	278	227	189	120	142	283
Traffic	70	19	26	2	16	0
Special operations	33	24	37	37	36	12
Total	594	351	364	227	267	345

from the five service branches and compared them to the MCOLES basic training objectives for recruits. The hours reflect military police training only and not basic training or other individualized training. We obtained this information through site visits and individual meetings with representatives from the five service branches.

Proportionally, the number of training hours per functional area is consistent with what MCOLES requires as a minimum for training. In terms of total training hours per area, Special Operations in the military is most consistent with MCOLES requirements. But note that the MCOLES curriculum contains quite a few more hours in Investigations (criminal law and procedures) and Traffic (laws, OWI, crash investigation) as compared to the military mandate. All five service branches require fewer total hours of military police training than is mandated in Michigan by a factor of just over one-half. See Figure 1. We added the civilian DoD police for comparison purposes. It should be noted that all military police personnel are required to complete

Figure 1
Total Training per Service Branch



basic training (boot camp) prior to the start of their military police training. Basic training in the military provides targeted training in the skill areas such as firearms, physical fitness, and first

aid—skills not reflected in their entirety in Table 3 or Figure 1. A valid training curriculum requires adequate time for legal matters and traffic to prepare the veterans for civilian policing.

Professional Best Practices

In June 2012 we facilitated an interactive meeting with a professional advisory panel in order to identify professional best practices and to discuss overall project planning and outcomes. Input from experienced practitioners and professionals is an important component of an overall strategy to maintain the validity of standards, training, and testing. We hoped to promote an effective and meaningful dialog among the participants to obtain practical advice and guidance as we developed the military training program (Huff, 1990; Novak & Gowan, 1984). We thought it particularly important to invite those with both military policing experience and Michigan civilian policing experience. In that way, we could ensure the continued conceptual connectivity between the relevant job tasks of a patrol officer, as identified in the job task analysis, and the contemporary best practices of professionals and practitioners across the state.

Most of the 15 panel members are licensed law enforcement officers in Michigan, but offered unique perspectives by virtue of their previous military police (MP) experiences in the Air Force, Marines, Army, Civilian Department of Defense, and Coast Guard. See Appendix. The academy director at Kirtland Community College and the Assistant Chief of the Novi Police Department participated as well. During the meeting, the participants shared their thoughts from their individual perspectives. Initially, they talked about the skills and abilities needed to adequately perform as a law enforcement officer, but they also provided advice about overall training content, how the military experience relates to civilian policing, and the ways military training is documented in the services. Several participants talked about military occupational specialties (MOS) and how distinct military assignments may affect the nature of work experience. Others

brought clarity to transition issues and how military policing may differ from civilian policing in mission and scope. Some members talked about training delivery methodologies that would be particularly relevant to veterans. The group members reached a consensus and made several recommendations for the military training project, including entry requirements based on MOS, targeted training in the high liability/high risk areas, and completion times less than a full 594-hour academy session. The group recognized the necessity to include training in the skill areas, but urged MCOLES to place less emphasis on qualification exercises and instead focus on decision making, problem solving, and judgment.

After the meeting, we summarized the recommendations for the panel's review. We obtained feedback through a subsequent meeting and made the appropriate modifications and refinements to the project as directed by the group. We also queried the professional research to ensure consistency between the panel's recommendations (best practices) and the empirical research regarding potential military transition issues. A variety of substantive issues surfaced during this inquiry, including military skill sets applicable to civilian policing (Boutelle, 2012), job task similarities between military and civilian policing (Cowper, 2000), potential transition issues into the civilian sector (Morin, 2011), leadership and discipline qualities of returning veterans (Taylor & Rosenbach, 1996), and the effects of combat, specifically Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (APA, 1994; Best, 2006; Webster, 2008) and incidents of veteran suicide (Harrell & Berglass, 2011).

Site Visits

The MCOLES staff visited several military installations and met with various individuals to obtain information relative to the military training project, as displayed in Table 4. Such visits and meetings can bring training content to life and afford staff an opportunity to take advantage of the unique expertise of experienced military personnel. The visits to the USCG Maritime Law

Enforcement Academy in North Charleston, South Carolina and the Naval Amphibious Base Little Creek, Virginia Beach, Virginia were particularly useful. The staff of the USCG Academy provided a tour of the academy, including classrooms, mat rooms, small arms simulators, boarding platforms, and the firearms range. The Naval Amphibious Base provided an opportunity to meet with their curriculum development team and discuss issues of mutual interest. MCOLES would like to acknowledge the time and energy volunteered by the training sites and other individuals who provided assistance. We appreciate their hospitality, input, and support. The visits and meetings brought clarity to project outcomes.

Table 4
Site Visits and Individual Contacts

Organization	Contact	Information
Lansing Police Dept., Mich.	Sgt. Jim Thornburg	Discussed transition issues
Detroit Arsenal Police	Cpt. Walker and staff	Review of military police structure and design; reviewed training materials
Selfridge Air National Guard, Mich.	Cpt. Platz and staff	Obtained information regarding Security Forces
Camp Grayling, Mich.	Bruce Coxworth	Overview of Army and Marine training.
Alpena Combat Readiness Training Center, Mich.	Superintendent Rob Mills	Toured training center and reviewed curriculum
Roscommon County Sheriff's Office	Sgt. Mike Richardson	Discussed transition issues
Novi Police Dept., Mich.	Asst. Chief Victor Lauria	Obtained insight regarding transition issues.
American Legion, Lansing, Mich.	Manager Mark Sutton	Obtained information regarding veterans, GI Bill, and local efforts
Navy Operational Support Center, Battle Creek, Mich.	Master at Arms Garrett Palmer	Discussed the process by which the Navy documents training
USCG Maritime Law Enforcement Academy, SC	Academy Staff	Obtained curriculum and observed training
Naval Amphibious Base Little Creek, VA	Base Staff	Met with curriculum development team; Navy documents reviewed

Validating Testing and Evaluation

As the training content and training delivery began to take shape, we next turned our attention to testing and evaluation. In addition to passing the state licensing examination as required by administrative rule (R 28.14203 (j)), we thought it best to require pass-fail assessments in Firearms and Emergency Vehicle Operations during training. But to eliminate duplicative recruit training, these assessments are intended to measure competencies in both skills *and* judgment. Recently, we developed training objectives and performance assessments in both these skill areas for active duty officers and we believe both assessments will work well in the military training program. We document validity for both training content and performance assessment in these two skill areas in separate research projects (Carlson, 2010; MCOLES, 2009). In the reports, we used applied research, professional best practices, and national standards to support the training and testing. The reports replicate what Sherman (1998) refers to as “evidence-based policing,” which connects the practicalities of working the job with empirical scientific research. Detailed information regarding the design and development of the skills programs, and their adherence of professional research standards, can be found in the respective validity reports (Carlson, 2010; MCOLES, 2009).

We establish *content* validity for both the skills testing and the written examination by blueprinting what is taught in the classroom to specific assessment criteria. This maintains the conceptual linkages among testing, training, and the essential job tasks of the profession (JTA). This chain of connectivity ensures the performance assessments and the written test are tied to the professional domain and the evaluations perform as intended.

The MCOLES licensing examination consists of items that produce measures of minimum cognitive competency for entry into the law enforcement profession in our state. Over the years, we have documented the exam’s ability to produce measures that can be validly interpreted. The

test has been in place, and has been updated regularly by creating parallel forms, since the late 1980s. However, it seemed useful to re-validate the test for purposes of the military training project insofar as the program is new and the sub-population of test takers is unique.

Table 5 displays the licensing examination blueprint. Exam questions appear in proportion to what is taught in the basic training academies. The “testable objectives” displayed in Table 5 are those deemed best suited for written examinations. Some objectives in the curriculum are conceptual in nature and are not tested at all on the licensing exam, although in-house tests cover this material prior to testing at the state level. For example, recruits learn about the federal constitution and the fourth amendment before learning the practicalities of search and seizure. And still other objectives are tested through performance assessments alone (e.g., marksmanship). The functional areas sampled for testing are displayed in Table 5, along with their associated percentages. For example, the Investigation section contains 28 percent of the total number of testable objectives. Therefore, approximately 28 percent of the questions on the licensing examination are sampled from this area. The other functional areas are represented in a similar manner, according to their percentages. From a training perspective, it is necessary to ensure that the military training program adequately prepares the participants for success on this examination.

Table 5
Licensing Examination Blueprint

Area	Testable Objectives	Percent
Investigation (legal matters)	134	28
Patrol procedures	102	22
Detention and prosecution	25	6
Police skills	86	18
Traffic	77	16
Special operations	49	10
Total	473	100

Next, we demonstrate evidence of *construct* validity for the licensing examination by using quantitative statistical analyses to evaluate how well the questions on the test are performing. Written tests must produce reliable measures and the interpretations of these measures must be valid, particularly if entry into a profession is at stake. The test must also maintain what experts refer to as *unidimensionality* by measuring one, and only one, underlying attribute—here, minimum competency to enter field training with a law enforcement agency. Questions on the exam must be job-related, unbiased, relevant, and perform as intended.

To analyze test items (questions), MCOLES uses a methodology known as the Rasch measurement model (Rasch, 1960). It is a probabilistic model proposed by the Danish mathematician Georg Rasch in the 1960s (Rasch, 1960). Some conceptualize the Rasch model as a sub-set of item response theory (IRT). Over the years, Rasch statistical analyses have helped with the development and selection of suitable test items. The purpose is to eliminate items on the test that are problematic. The model's mathematical formulas transform non-linear raw scores into linear data more suitable for valid interpretations (Wright & Stone, 1979; Wright & Masters, 1982; Smith, 1991; Bond & Fox, 2007). Raw scores on a test do not really describe competency, but rather measure it. Using the model, we are better able to determine which questions are working as intended, how each item contributes to our understanding of the competency being measured (and to what extent), and how item difficulty compares to student ability (Bond & Fox, 2007). Kramp and Phillips (1989) sum it up this way, "The Rasch model is one member of a family of item response theory (IRT) models used for equating in many statewide testing programs. IRT models assume a single underlying ability which governs the responses of individuals to a set of test items" (p. 17).

Although the Rasch measurement model is a necessary and important component of test development, it is only one part of a much larger process of exam construction and equating. Under the supervision of MCOLES, content specialists write test questions and submit them for review by the staff. We then evaluate the items for their consistency with the basic training curriculum, law enforcement best practices, and legal precedent before subjecting them to Rasch statistical analyses.

The model calculates a set of expected outcomes based on the probability of responding to items correctly (Bond & Fox, 2007; Rasch, 1960; Smith, 1991; Wright and Stone, 1979; Wright & Masters, 1982). In other words, the model predicts the likelihood of getting an item correct based on person ability and item difficulty. It measures both by transforming raw test scores into their logarithmic equivalent, expressed as logits (log odds units). A higher logit value indicates greater item difficulty and greater person ability (Wright & Stone, 1979; Wright & Masters, 1982; Smith, 1991). Rasch measures are statistically independent of the group taking the test. This is particularly meaningful since military program participants will be a unique group of test takers and their competencies must be measured, as all others, in a fair and unbiased manner.

We analyzed the responses from 697 tests administered in 2011 (exam form 20) using the WINSTEPS analytical software (Wright & Masters, 1982). We calculated person and item reliability estimates, item difficulty levels, person abilities, standardized statistics, and model fit statistics and compared them to the Rasch probability estimations. The intent was to ensure each item's statistical property matched (fit) the model's expectations. See Table 6 for summary statistics and their acceptable ranges, or thresholds, for item suitability and acceptability. The mean item fit for the test is 0.98, which is within the acceptable threshold range (1.0 is a perfect fit). As a group, the items match the Rasch estimations well. The items, on average, meet the model's expectations and they are working as intended. Although not displayed here, each item on the

examination has an associated fit statistic as well, which enables us to evaluate each item’s individual suitability. Misfitting items are discarded or rewritten and are not used for pass-fail determinations. Person reliability and item reliability, at 0.59 and 0.99 respectively, are within acceptable ranges. The average person ability, measured at 1.56, is higher than the average item difficulty (0.00), which indicates the examination is not too difficult for test takers.

Table 6
Summary Rasch Statistics for Test Form 20

Analysis	Statistic	Threshold
Item fit	0.98	0.8 – 1.2
Item reliability	0.99	near 1.0
Person reliability	0.59	0.5 – 1.0
Average person ability (logit)	1.56	-6.0 – +6.0
Average item difficulty (logit)	0.00	default
Item separation index	9.82	>2
Person separation index	1.19	>1
Standardized <i>z</i>	0.00	-2.0 – +2.0

n = 697

The separation index measures the spread of items and persons and is associated with reliability. For items, separation measures their range and indicates how close they are to one another in terms of their contribution to an understanding of the competency under investigation. For persons, separation is closely associated with deviations in terms of ability. Here, the item separation index (9.82) and the person separation index (1.29) are within acceptable ranges. The items are distributed well and the students are similar in ability, as expected for minimum competency testing. The standardized *z* statistic is 0.00, which is a residual measure—*z* statistics greater than +2.0 would indicate potential irregularities or randomness in the test and values less than -2.0 would indicate potential redundancies in questioning.

Overall, the statistics in Table 6 indicate that the items on the licensing exam fit the Rasch expectations well and we are confident the measures can be validly interpreted. Although the test is

blueprinted to the six functional areas, the items remain unique and distinct yet form a hierarchical structure and work in unison to measure one underlying attribute. We can distinguish high difficulty items from middle and low difficulty items and we can distinguish high ability persons from those who do not meet the minimum level of competency. We are confident the measures are reliable and the inferences and interpretations from the measures are valid.

It should be noted that the pass-fail threshold (cut score) for the licensing examination was determined through separate analyses, which include a combination of the Anghoff method (Cascio, Alexander, & Barrett, 1988), the master/non-master procedure (Livingston & Zieky, 1989), and the Hofstee method (Kramp & Phillips, 1989; PBS, 2004). A detailed discussion of the cut score determination is beyond the scope of this report. For further information, see the cut score report submitted to MCOLES by Performance-Based Selection in 2004 (PBS, 2004). The cut score represents the minimum level of acceptable competency and is not changed or adjusted based on the pool of test takers. But based on our statistical analyses, we are confident that the pass/fail rate for the participants in the military training program will be consistent with what we have experienced statewide over the years.

A Training Program for Military Police Veterans

Members of the Career Development section met and discussed the results of the research. As a team, we agreed on a set of entry standards and training requirements for the military training program for full Commission consideration and approval. Our recommendation is based on our review of the professional literature, input from the advisory panel, site visits, meetings with military command, and an exploration of the essential job functions. We synthesized all information, evaluated its relevancy to the program, and ultimately formulated a logistically achievable training model for military police veterans. We are confident that these research efforts

adequately support the training specifications and topic areas, including the time frames devoted to each, as documented in this report.

1. Entry Requirements

All candidates entering the law enforcement profession in the state of Michigan must meet the MCOLES medical and non-medical standards prior to the activation of licensure (R 28.14101-14211). Similarly, those seeking entry into the military training program must: a) pass the MCOLES physical fitness test (exit standard), b) pass the reading/writing examination, b) meet current medical standards and non-medical standards, and c) submit required documentation and application materials to MCOLES and the training site for verification and evaluation.

Applicants must meet the following prerequisites:

- a. have performed as a military police officer for a minimum of 2080 hours in a specified law enforcement occupational specialty (MOS);
- b. have satisfactorily completed military police training at a federal service school;
- c. possess an honorable discharge from the Armed Forces or be currently serving; and
- d. have discontinued employment in the specified law enforcement MOS for no more than five (5) years prior to the start of the program.

We anticipate that most candidates will not have secured employment with a law enforcement agency prior to training. Therefore, MCOLES will verify that all candidates meet the minimum requirements for licensure prior to agency interviews and job screening. Veterans must know in advance whether they meet the necessary standards. For employed candidates, MCOLES will work in partnership with hiring agencies.

2. Training Content

Table 7 displays the functional areas for the 240-hour military training program. Administrative time (7 hours) allows for introductory information, program requirements, and in-house tests and quizzes. The Investigations section (70 hours) contains criminal law and procedure,

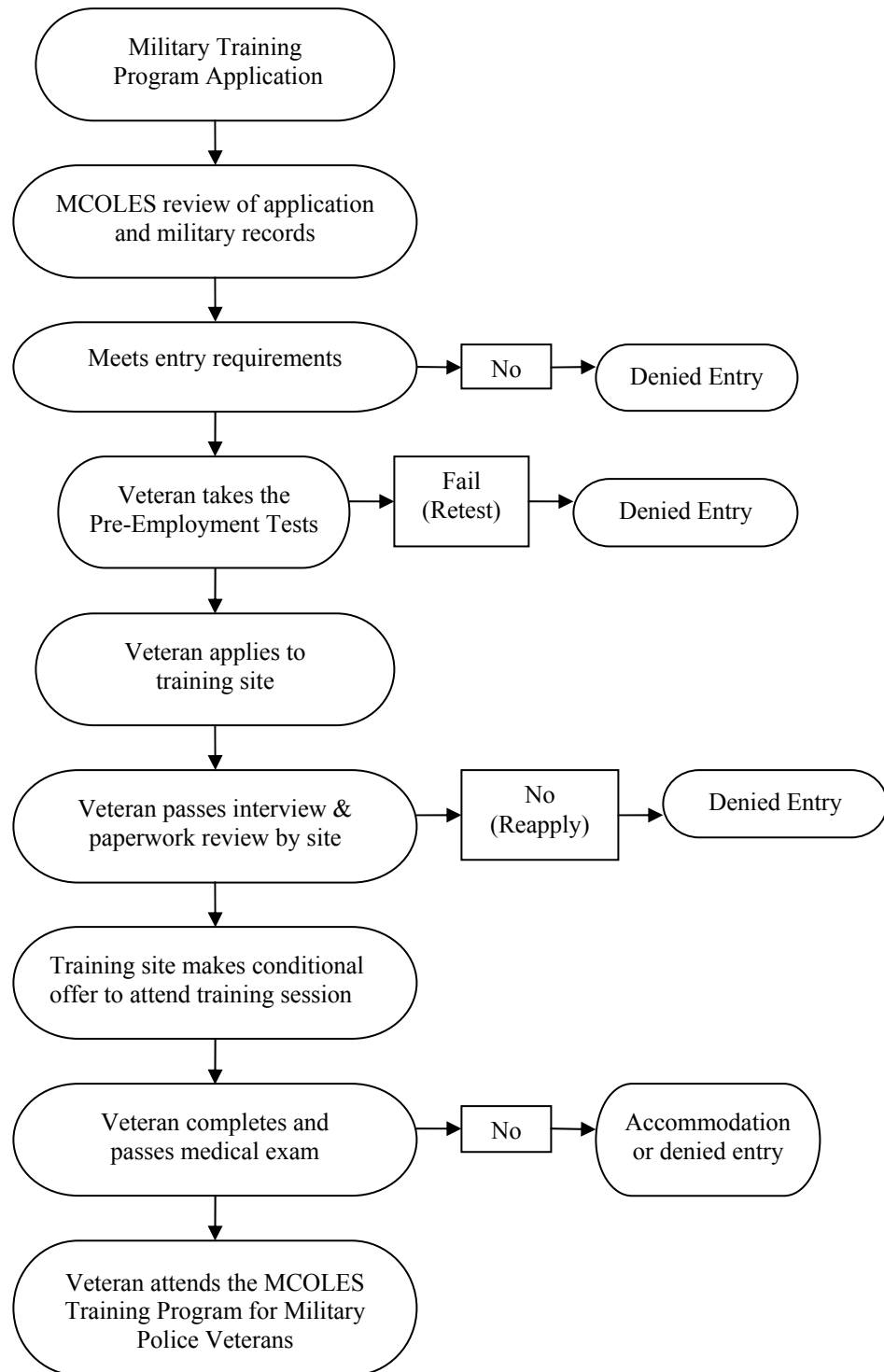
crime scene process, search and seizure, domestic violence, and sexual assault investigation. Patrol Procedures (26 hours) includes patrol operations and patrol techniques, ethics, report writing, and interpersonal communication skills. Detention and Prosecution (5 hours) contains booking procedures and case prosecution. Police Skills (92 hours), which is the largest area of training concentration, includes first aid, firearms, subject control, emergency vehicle operations, and health/wellness. The skill areas include time for performance evaluations and other assessments, including pass-fail performance requirements. Additionally, the health/wellness module allows time to address transition issues unique to the participants. The Traffic area (30 hours) includes motor vehicle law, motor vehicle crash investigation, and OWI enforcement. Special Operations (10 hours) includes emergency preparedness, civil disorders, and terrorism awareness.

Table 7
Proposed 240-hour Military Training

Area	Hours	Percent
Administrative time	7	3
Investigation (legal matters)	70	30
Patrol procedures	26	11
Detention and prosecution	5	2
Police skills	92	38
Traffic	30	12
Special operations	10	4
Total	240	100

All classroom instruction is supported by adult learning theory and problem-based learning strategies, which address the underlying constructs for successful performance as a law enforcement officer. Table 7 does not reflect time to take the MCOLES licensing examination, which is four hours in length. The training will be delivered at MCOLES-approved regional training sites across the state.

Figure 2
The Application Process for Military Police Veterans



3. The Process

See Figure 2 on the previous page. Military police veterans will be required to meet all the MCOLES medical and non- medical standards to enter the program. The veteran will make application to MCOLES first to ensure all application materials and military records demonstrate compliance with the program entry requirements. After passing the physical fitness test and the reading/writing exam, the veteran makes application to an approved training program for military police veterans to ensure he or she meets the remaining standards. Once a conditional offer of enrollment is made by the site administrators, the medical review is conducted and, if deemed to meet the medical standard, the veteran would begin training. Some veterans may obtain employment with a law enforcement agency first, which would alter the process slightly, but Figure 2 represents the general process required of military veterans seeking employment in civilian policing.

Conclusion

Based on the steps taken to establish valid, evidence-based training, as outlined in this report, the MCOLES staff is confident that a legitimate connectivity has been made between the training specifications for the military training program and the essential job functions of a law enforcement officer in Michigan. The staff is also confident that a legitimate connectivity exists among the underlying constructs of the policing profession and the recommended training delivery strategies. This report is a condensed version of all the research conducted by the staff. Detailed information can be found in the individual research journals housed at the Commission offices. Although this report documents validity for the military training program and recommends a model for consideration, at this writing we await official Commission approval before proceeding with implementation.

Ultimately, the responsibility of a state regulatory agency such as the Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards is to address the safety of its citizens by ensuring all officers possess minimum core competencies upon entry, or re-entry, into the profession. Maintaining evidence of validity and reliability can ensure that the system for producing such competencies functions as intended.

References

- Administrative Rule 28.14203(j).
- 10 U.S.C. Chapter 47 §§ 801-946 (1994).
- 29 C.F.R. §1607.14 (1978).
- 38 U.S.C. §§ 4100-4114 (2011).
- American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, National Council on Measurement in Education (AERA/APA/NCME). (1999). *Standards for educational and psychological testing*. Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association.
- American Psychiatric Association. (1994). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (4th ed.)*. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association.
- Best, S.R. (2006). *Common issues in returning veterans: What is a “normal” response to combat?* Presentation to the International Association of Chiefs of Police, Police Psychological Services Section, Boston, 2006.
- Birch, J. (1993). *Diagnosis of defective colour vision*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bittner, E. (1990). *Aspects of police work*. Boston: Northeastern University Press.
- Boutelle, C. (2012). Veterans bring key skill assets to the civilian workforce. *Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. American Psychological Association.
- Brown, M. (1979). *Working the street: Police discretion and the dilemmas of reform*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Carlson, W. (2010). Using concept mapping to develop a law enforcement emergency driving curriculum. *Law Enforcement Executive Forum*, vol. 10, no. 1, 1-18.
- Cascio, W., Alexandra, R., & Barrett, G. (1988). Setting cut-off scores: Legal, Psychometric, and professional issues and guidelines. *Personnel Psychology*, 41, 1-24.
- Cherryholmes, C. (1988). Construct validity and the discourses of research. *Journal of Education*, 96, 421-457.
- Cowper, T. (2000). The myth of the “military model” of leadership in law enforcement. *Police Quarterly*, vol. 3, 228-246.

- Daniel, A. (2004). Commentary: Decision making by frontline service providers—attitudinal or contextual. *The Journal of the American Academy of Psychiatry and the Law*, 32(4): 386-389.
- Davis, K. (1969). *Discretionary justice: A preliminary inquiry*. Baton Rouge, LA: Louisiana State University Press.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam Publishing.
- Harrell, M. & Berglass, N. (2011). *Losing the battle: The challenge of military suicide*. Center for a New American Security. Policy Brief, October 2011. Available:
- Huff, A. (1990). *Mapping strategic thought*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP). (2010). *Law enforcement leader's guide on combat veterans: A transition guide for veterans beginning or continuing careers in law enforcement*. US Department of Justice. Bureau of Justice Assistance.
- International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP). (2009). *Employing returning combat veterans as law enforcement officers*. US Department of Justice. Bureau of Justice Assistance.
- Knowles, M. (1984). *The adult learner: A neglected species*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing Company.
- Kramp, H. & Phillips, S. (1989). *Creating a system for continuous multiple forms development: Final report*. A report for the Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council.
- Krathwohl, D., Bloom, B., & Masia, B. (1964). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The affective domain*. New York: Longman.
- Livingston, S. A., & Zieky, M. J. (1989). A comparative study of standard setting methods. *Applied Measurement in Education*, 2(2), 121-141.
- Mager, R. (1973). *Measuring instructional intent: Or, got a match?* Belmont, CA: Fearon Publishers.
- Mehrens, W. & Lehmann, I. (1984). *Measurement and evaluation in education and psychology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (MCOLES) & Performance Based Selection, Ltd. (2006). *Statewide job task analysis of the patrol officer position*. Unpublished report.

- Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (MCOLES). (2009). *Active duty firearms standard*. Unpublished resource materials.
- Michigan Compiled Laws 28.602(k)(i).
- Michigan Compiled Laws, 28.609-616.
- Michigan Compiled Laws, 28.621.
- Michigan Compiled Laws 92.2.
- Michigan Compiled Laws 257.42.
- Michigan Compiled Laws 750.52.
- Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council (MLEOTC) & Personnel Research Consultants. (1979). *Statewide job analysis of the police patrol officer position*. Unpublished report.
- Morin, R. (2011). *The difficult transition from military to civilian life*. Pew Social and Demographic Trends. Pew Research Center. Released December 2011.
- Novak, J. & Gowan, D. (1984). *Learning how to learn*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Overton, W. (1999). *Construct validity: A forgotten concept in psychology?* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, Boston.
- Peden v. City of Detroit*, 470 Mich 195 (2004).
- Performance-Based Selection. (2004). *Review of the cut score for the licensing exam: Final report*. Unpublished report for the Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards.
- Poikela, E. (2004). Developing criteria for knowing and learning at work: Towards context-based assessment. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 16 (5), 267-274.
- Post, G. M. (1992). Police recruits: Training tomorrow's workforce. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, 3, 19-24.
- Radelet, L. (1986). *The police and community*. 4th edition. New York: Macmillan.
- Salovey P. & Mayer, J. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition, and personality*, 9:185-211.

- Sherman, L. (1998). *Evidence based policing*. Ideas in American Policing Series. Washington, D.C.: Police Foundation.
- Sims, B. (2006). Creating a teaching and learning environment in criminal justice courses that promotes higher order thinking. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education*, 17(2), 336-357.
- Smith, R. (1991). *IPARM: Item and person analysis with the rasch model*. Chicago: MESA Press.
- Taylor, R. & Rosenbach, W. (Ed.) (1996). *Military leadership: In pursuit of excellence* (3rd Ed.). Boulder, CO: Westview.
- Terry v. Ohio*, 392 U.S. 1 (1968).
- VanderKooi, G. (2006). *Problem-based learning: An attitudinal study of police academy students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo.
- Watson, E., Stone, A., & DeLuca, S. (1998). *Strategies for community policing*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Webster, B. (2008). Combat deployment and the returning police officer. *COPS Innovations*. United States Department of Justice. Office of Community Oriented Policing Services. August 2008.
- Wilson, J. (1993). The problem of defining agency success. *Performance measures for the criminal justice system*. Bureau of Justice Statistics/Princeton Project, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office.
- Woods, D. (1994). *Problem-based learning: How to gain the most of PBL*. Hamilton, Ontario, Canada: Donald R. Woods.

Appendix

The staff of the Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards facilitated two work sessions and took full advantage of the expertise and experience of former military police officers and others with relevant understanding of the issues. We would like to acknowledge the time and energy volunteered by all members to the military training advisory panel and express our appreciation for their input.

Chris Cadotte	US Army
Ryan Cavanaugh	University of Michigan DPS (Army)
Bruce Coxworth	US Army
Nathan Droptiny	Alpena County Sheriff's Office (Air Force)
Thomas Grace	Kirtland Community College
Adam Hackstock	Lathrup Village & Rockwood PDs (Marines)
Scott Hankins	Charlevoix Police Department (Army)
Steven Hendricks	Southfield Police Department (Air Force)
Don Hughes	Washtenaw County Sheriff's Office (Army)
Munir Joarder	US Air Force
Gene Kind	US Army
Victor Lauria	Novi Police Department
Steven Marcotte	US Air Force
Robert Mills	US Air Force
Garrett Palmer	US Navy
Daniel Richardson	Warren Police Department (Coast Guard)
Scott Swanson	Niles Police Department (Army)
Kevin Schlagel	Lansing Police Department (Air Force)
Kyle Schlagel	Lansing Police Department (Air Force)
James Thornburg	Lansing Police Department (Army)