

2018-01-01

# Change in the Organization Socialization of the United States Border Patrol's Basic Law Enforcement Training Academy: A Supervisor's Perspective

Vic M. Manjarrez

*University of Texas at El Paso*, [vmmanjarrez@utep.edu](mailto:vmmanjarrez@utep.edu)

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CHANGE IN THE ORGANIZATION SOCIALIZATION OF THE UNITED  
STATES BORDER PATROL'S BASIC LAW ENFORCEMENT  
TRAINING ACADEMY: A SUPERVISOR'S PERSPECTIVE

VICTOR M. MANJARREZ, JR.

Doctoral Program in Educational Leadership and Administration

APPROVED:

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Rodolfo Rincones, Ph.D., Chair

---

Arturo Olivarez, Jr., Ph.D.

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Angus Mungal, Ph.D.

---

Jeff Rojek, Ph.D.

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Charles H. Ambler, Ph.D.  
Dean of the Graduate School

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## **Dedication**

First, I dedicate this dissertation to my wife, Lisa Manjarrez, for her love during this learning process, but most of all for supporting and providing the freedom to pursue this dream. I know it was not always easy. I also dedicate this dissertation to my two grandsons, Victor IV and Peanutman, who have been inspirations and have shown me how to be a kid again. I want my grandsons to know “Papa” loves learning. To my daughter, Anjelica, who was busy raising a son, going to school full-time, and working you are stronger than you believe and an inspiration. To my son, Victor III, I have seen you grow up from a boy to a loving son, father, and husband. You are a good man and I am proud of you. And last but not least, I dedicate this dissertation to my mom and dad, Victor M. Manjarrez Sr. and Maria Manjarrez, who taught me the value of integrity, hard work, education, and to be a good human being. You instilled in me the power of hope, and I will always be grateful.

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by

VICTOR M. MANJARREZ, JR., M.A.

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of  
The University of Texas at El Paso  
in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements  
for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Department of Educational Leadership and Administration

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT EL PASO

August 2018

## **Acknowledgements**

A research study of this nature is only possible due to the efforts and support of many different people who have provided encouragement, advice, and were involved in various stages of this research study. The guidance, support, encouragement, and professionalism demonstrated by my advisor Dr. Rodolfo Rincones helped make this dream a reality. Dr. Rincones I am appreciative of the fact that you saw my research interest and topic fitting within the program. Your vision and support have not only left a lifelong impact on me but with my family as well. Thank-you for your support and commitment in guiding me through this process. I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. Arturo Olivarez, Dr. Angus Mungal, and Dr. Jeff Rojek for their valuable advice and insight throughout this process. I am appreciative of your efforts, insights, and generosity of your time. Dr. Mungal you challenged me to get out of my comfort zone, and I appreciate the guidance. I would also like to express an additional sincere thank-you to Dr. Jeff Rojek for not only being a part of my committee but also a colleague that spent countless hours with me discussing various components of my dissertation. You showed great interest in my research area during times that I may have doubted myself, so your support was invaluable to me. You helped me more than you could ever imagine. Although sometimes it may have appeared I was not listening, I heard every word. I value your friendship and the generosity of your time.

## **Abstract**

This study examines the role of a changed organizational socialization process on supervisory adaptation. The research study is motivated by the central question: how do supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process has changed. Literature on socialization in policing has focused almost exclusively on long-term job satisfaction, while literature on police supervisory adaptation centers on leadership approaches. Previous research on police socialization clearly indicates the process is a series of stages filled with 'rite of passages'. There is no distinction between the socialization of a non-supervisor officer versus a supervisory officer. The literature is scant when it comes to determining how supervisors adapt in their role when the socialization process changes significantly. This study advances our understanding of what influences supervisory adaptation and how they adapt in their role. I conducted a constructivist grounded theory study by using a sample of thirty-two United States Border Patrol supervisors to conduct semi-structured interviews. The findings from this research study illustrates the persuasiveness of the profession's socialization process is on role adjustment. The research study participants described expectations and experiences developed at the basic training academy were foundational for role adaptation. The findings also revealed that supervisor adaptation was influenced by the following constructs: supervisory preparation, supervisory challenges, and trainee preparedness. Supervisors in this case adapted in their role by increasing team building, making daily assignments based on abilities, managing and teaching more, and providing more mentorship. The results, implications for theoretical contributions, for policy makers and leadership program developers, and future research are discussed.

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

The terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001 on the United States pushed the American political agenda to focus on protecting the homeland. The hiring of a significant number of law enforcement personnel has been the centerpiece of the effort (Longmire, 2014). Likewise, there is an acknowledgment that the complexity of general policing has increased due to the asymmetrical nature of terrorism (Ganor, 2002). As a result of the terrorist attacks, the United States was forced to view border control as border security. In large part, as a response to the terrorist attacks, the Department of Homeland Security was established on March 1, 2003. The department is the third largest federal agency with 240,000 employees only behind the Department of Defense and Department of Veteran Affairs (Andreas, 2009). The new department incorporates 22 government agencies into a single organization. Just as important as the size of the agency, the creation of the department essentially institutionalized the connection between terrorism and border security (Alden, 2012; Manjarrez, 2015). The transition from a border control mindset to border security has resulted in an increased focus on the coordinated efforts of federal, state, local, and tribal law enforcement entities. Members of the coordinated effort are often called the homeland security enterprise (DHS Science & Technology, 2015).

The creation of the Department of Homeland Security was not only a massive restructuring of U.S. government agencies it also became the impetus for growth of federal law enforcement agencies with counterterrorism responsibilities (Longmire, 2014). The personnel increases has not been more notable than the increase for the United States Border Patrol. The United States Border Patrol doubled in size from 2007 through 2011 to over 21,000 Border Patrol Agents (Customs and Border Protection, 2016). The large investment of personnel resources, in the agency, is the centerpiece of the heightened awareness by the U.S. Congress on the country's borders

(Hernandez, 2010; Longmire, 2014; Mabee, 2007). Prompted by the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 and a new focus on border security the growth of the agency brought a heightened focus on law enforcement training.

In order to accommodate the significant growth of individuals to be trained, beginning on October 1, 2007, the United States Border Patrol made an organizational decision that would change basic academy training. The decision would also unintentionally change the initial organization socialization of the agency. First, the United States Border Patrol's basic academy had been an 81-day program consisting of 663 curriculum hours in six subject areas (Government Accountability Office, 2007a). To meet the Congressional mandate of doubling in size in a five year span the academy length was reduced to 58 days consisting of 475 curriculum hours. The reduction in time was the result of eliminating Spanish language training from the basic curriculum and provided the participants the opportunity to *test out of the Spanish language program* (Government Accountability Office, 2007a; Graff, 2014). The recruits who tested out of the language program departed the basic training academy upon completion of the 58-day program. For the recruits who required Spanish language training they must immediately attend and successfully complete a 40-day language immersion course beyond the basic academy. The formal change not only marked an alteration of the curriculum but informally changed the way recruits were socialized into the organization (Graff, 2014).

Second, the United States Border Patrol continues law and language training for the recruits after they have left the academy and terminates ten months from the first day at the basic academy. The extended training is referred to post-academy training and consists of one day of instruction per week. Prior to the October 1, 2007 basic academy change, post-academy training was conducted as a cohort and at a centralized location (Government Accountability Office, 2007a).

Post-academy training formally intends to provide continuous instruction to the recruits to prepare them for a ten-month examination consisting of law and the Spanish language. Failure of either the law or Spanish examination results in the termination of employment. The change to the length of the basic academy on October 1, 2007 also effected how post-academy training would be conducted. Post-academy training was converted to an on-line delivery system to reduce the number of senior agents required to conduct the post-academy training (Government Accountability Office, 2007a). As a result, the recruits no longer met once a week as a cohort. The recruit now completed the post-academy online assignments independently during a regular assigned shift. The change impacted the informal intention of post-academy which was to strengthen cohort occupation solidarity by providing a peer support group (Graff, 2014).

The way individuals learn the culture, habits, and behavior of an organization are structured for them by others in the organization (Karp & Stenmark, 2011). Chao et al., (1994) further add, organizational socialization is viewed as the principal process by which people adapt to new jobs and organizational roles. In police organizations the structure begins with the basic police academy. The basic police academy is typically the first and the most fundamental type of training available to police organizations (Marion 1998; Murray, 2006). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) contend the training process in the basic academy not only teach new members the skills necessary to perform the job, but also introduces the social knowledge of what is acceptable/unacceptable behavior in the organization. The process of developing social knowledge are the combined procedures of the organization's formal and informal socialization process. Although a police agency's organizational socialization goes beyond training, the basic police academy training program has become synonymous with socialization (Klein & Weaver, 2000; Taormina, 1997; Van Maanen, 1973; 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Although the socialization process in

organizations is larger than any one training program, it does not begin and end with formal training programs (Chao et al., 1994).

Current research on the organizational socialization of newcomers to the organization almost exclusively focuses on initial training/orientation programs (Chao et al., 1994). Yet, the body of literature on organizational socialization describes the process as career long. Socialization is a pervasive aspect of organizational behavior and is influenced by various frameworks within the organization. Moon (2006) and Schafer (2009) maintain that once the police recruit completes basic police academy training and other training required during the probation period, the supervisor becomes the greatest influence of organizational socialization.

The police supervisor is not only responsible for ensuring subordinate new police officers conduct their duties effectively, efficiently, and legally they are also responsible for ensuring acceptable organizational behavior is exhibited (Britz, 1997; Fagan, 1985; Falcione & Wilson, 1988; Haarr, 2001). Compounding the complexity for police officer supervisors is the daily reality police officers work with a high degree of autonomy while making countless of discretionary decisions (Harro, 2000; Karp & Stenmark, 2011; Klein & Weaver, 2000). There is significant literature that suggests one role of a police supervisor is to monitor the behavior of their subordinates (Engel, 2001, 2002; Engel & Worden, 2003; Ingram, 2013; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Schafer, 2009; Trojanowicz, 1980; Van Maanen, 1983, 1984). The challenge for supervisory police officers is even greater for supervisors in the United States Border Patrol. Border Patrol Agents not only operate with a high degree of autonomy they do so in large geographical areas placing them further away from supervisors. The complexity of spatial distances are compounded by the problem that Border Patrol Agents typically operate in rural and remote areas with limited effective communications and sparse community interactions. The result of the supervisory-

employee dynamic does not provide an opportunity for goal setting, careful assessment of employee performance, and meaningful feedback to the employee on their performance. The distant supervisor-officer daily interactions may result in noticeable and unwelcomed consequences in the workplace (Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis & Barlin, 2005; Schafer, 2009). Unintended outcomes include poor productivity, job dissatisfaction, attrition, and reduced occupational socialization by the supervisor (Schafer, 2009).

### **Statement of the Problem**

A major focus of the increased vigilance has been on border security and specifically the ability to hire, train, and deploy a large number of federal officers, in particular, on the southwest border of the United States. The United States Border Patrol has been the center of attention for this increased border security effort (Graff, 2014; Longmire, 2014). While the large scale hiring and deploying of new officers is challenging (Mabee, 2007), the focus of this inquiry is how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors as a result of an organizational socialization change at the basic training academy. The organizational change is a demarcation in the sensemaking of the organization's members at different levels and has caused tension and conflict (Graff, 2014; Haddal, 2010; McLaughlin, Atherton & Morrison, 2009; National Border Patrol Council, 2008). A significant role of a supervisor, as viewed by upper levels of management, is to contend and successfully reduce the tension and conflict for the organization (Engel, 2002; Engel & Worden, 2003; Kelloway et al., 2005). Although police organizational socialization is widely researched to determine long term effects on job satisfaction, very little has been done to study how supervisors adapt in their role due to a change in the socialization process of the organization. There is limited literature on federal law enforcement training processes of any agency within the Department of Homeland Security. If literature does exist, it is typically limited to United States

Government Accountability Office (GAO) reports, which typically focus on auditing and evaluating of government programs (Government Accountability Office, 2017) as opposed to scholarly research.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this grounded theory study is to understand the perceptions and experiences of supervisors in order to generate a substantive concept how supervisors adapt when the initial organization socialization process changes. The United States Border Patrol restructured its basic training academy on October 1, 2007. The date is noteworthy because the organization significantly altered its basic law enforcement academy process that existed for nearly five decades (Government Accountability Office, 2007a). Chao, O’Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, and Gardner (1994) suggest the change in work procedures, organizational goals and values, or socialization may trigger a need for role adjustment by supervisors. At this stage, a Border Patrol supervisor is defined primarily as a law enforcement officer who is responsible for directing the assignments of subordinate officers and all customary functions involved in supervising personnel, including leave approval, resolving disciplinary issues, and preparing annual performance appraisals.

### **Research Question**

Understanding the effect of altering the initial organizational socialization process may generate or improve a theory about supervision (Parry, 1998), which may help inform the United States Border Patrol leadership and others in the field of workforce development about important leadership processes. The question guiding this inquiry is: How do supervisors in the United States Border Patrol adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process has changed?

## **Significance of the Study**

The homeland security enterprise has grown significantly since the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001 and will continue to be a focus of national policy (Chertoff, 2009). A case in point, border security was a central point of debate in the United States' 2016 Presidential election. The national debate included calls for increasing the number of federal law enforcement officers with homeland security responsibilities (Executive Order No. 13768, 2017). The suggested personnel increases equate to 25% to 35% growth in a four-year time span. Although there is a large body of scholarly literature on law enforcement organizational growth and training, it is largely focused on state and local agencies. An examination of the literature reveals a paucity of research on federal law enforcement growth and training to include formal and informal organizational socialization processes at basic academies. The lack of information on organizational socialization also extends to post basic academy working conditions.

The absence of research is particularly evident with the United States Border Patrol which is the fastest growing (Customs and Border Protection, 2017), and arguably the most visible, federal agency. A glaring example of the lack of scholarly work with the agency is the alteration of the basic training academy beginning on October 1, 2007 (Government Accountability Office, 2007a; 2007b). The change to the basic training academy, to accommodate significant growth, was little noticed outside the agency but would impact nearly 50% of a 23,000-person workforce (Graff, 2014). Although changes in basic police academy's curriculum are not new, changes in curriculum that result in significantly altering the initial organizational socialization are not common. The United States Border Patrol has long prided itself for its 'esprit de corps' (Customs and Border Protection, 2017; Graff, 2014; Haddal, 2010). The term 'esprit de corps' is defined as a feeling of pride, camaraderie, and a sense of loyalty shared by members of a certain group

(Fielding, 1988; Paoline, 2003; Phelps, Daily, & Koenigsberg, 2014). The ‘esprit de corps’ in the United States Border Patrol had been built on agents having a shared organizational identity formed during the socialization process in basic and post-academy training (National Border Patrol Council, 2008). The agency doubled in size twice in an 18-year time frame, but little is known regarding the formal and informal organizational socialization processes and their effect on supervisory staff. This study will contribute to theoretical development on understanding how supervisors interpret their experiences and adapt in their role when the organizational socialization process is significantly altered.

Since the United States Border Patrol is set to significantly grow, once again, it is important to understand supervisor’s perspectives on fundamental issues such as the formal and informal purpose of the basic law enforcement academy, and the role of the organizational socialization process in a structured basic academy. The lack of information about the effect of changing the initial organizational socialization process at the basic United States Border Patrol Academy limits the design and implementation of workforce developmental efforts for supervisors. The limitations also restrict researcher’s efforts in refining theoretical approaches to this invisible as well as visible dynamic of organizational socialization. Parry (1998) argues limitations such as these could ultimately impact the quality of supervisory training received by supervisors, and eventually influence the quality of supervision they will provide to their subordinates. Understanding the views, experiences, and attitudes of United States Border Patrol supervisors may help outline a theory about leadership approaches to organizational socialization change.

### **Personal Disclosure**

Creswell (2009) argues that particular attention must be made to the “...biases, values, and personal background...” (p. 177) that a researcher brings to a research study, and for this reason,

the researcher will inform the participants of his previous background and experiences in law enforcement. I was employed by the United States Border Patrol as a member of the Senior Executive Service and retired in May of 2011. I began my 23-year career, like other Border Patrol Agents, by attending the basic Border Patrol academy in 1989 in Brunswick, Georgia for a period of nineteen weeks. My start with the United States Border Patrol began as a cohort of 50 individuals. The structure of the basic training academy consisted of six categories of instruction: (1) law/operations; (2) Spanish language; (3) physical training; (4) driving; (5) firearms; and (6) general training. The training instructors at the academy stressed teamwork and helping your classmates with various aspects of the training program. Assistance also included helping classmates who were not fluent in the Spanish language. During my career in the United States Border Patrol I have returned to the basic academy on several occasions to observe training and to speak to graduating classes. I am a member of class 237<sup>th</sup> of the United States Border Patrol. In December of 2017 class 1,080<sup>th</sup> graduated from the United States Border Patrol academy.

Before my retirement from the United States Border Patrol I served in all four border states of the southwest United States and at the national headquarters office. My service along the southwest border included assignment to 7 of the 9 supervisory tiers found within a Border Patrol Sector. I was a first level supervisor in Border Patrol stations both in California and Arizona. I was assigned to the national headquarters office of the U.S. Border Patrol in Washington, D.C. as the Division Chief for Operational Planning, Analysis, and Policy branch. The position required providing national oversight for strategic planning and policy formulation. I was later promoted to the Chief Patrol Agent of the El Paso Border Patrol Sector. The responsibilities included the oversight of over 2,500 Border Patrol Agents. Lastly, I was reassigned to the Tucson Sector Border Patrol as the Chief Patrol Agent with oversight responsibilities for over 4,500 Border Patrol

Agents. I have extensive knowledge of the training of Border Patrol Agents, supervisory responsibilities, and national Border Patrol policy.

I have taken careful consideration must not to influence the participant's perspective during the data collection phase of the study. First, I was careful not have my personal feelings or attitudes influence the responses by the research study volunteers. Due to the positions I have held within the United States Border Patrol there was a significant chance the research study volunteers knew of me or have heard of me during the course of their career. This knowledge by some of the study volunteers caused them to refer to as "Chief" which is a position of authority within the United States Border Patrol. Secondly, I was mindful that my own Border Patrol experiences did not over-ride the descriptive experiences of the supervisors being interviewed during the memo writing process in the Constructivist Grounded Theory methodology I employed. The nature of the research question made me a key instrument in data collection, analysis, and interpretation. In order to maintain the internal validity of the findings, I utilized strategies to enhance internal validity as well as mitigate the risk of introducing researcher bias. The strategies utilized can be found and are detailed in the methodology section of this research study.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

The scope of this literature review centers on organizational socialization in police training, police supervision, and the impact of the growth on the United States Border Patrol's organizational capability to manage the growth. The topic is influenced by the changing nature of global policing and by the rhetoric on improving border security (Cleveland & Saville, 2007; Henry, 2002; White & Escobar, 2008). Agents of the United States Border Patrol are viewed as law enforcement officers and similarly have arrest, search, and seizure authorities for certain federal laws, but do not generally have peace officer status. Peace officer status is usually viewed as the authority to arrest, search, seize, and execute criminal and civil warrants under the authority of a state, county, or municipality entity (Price, 2009). Although Border Patrol Agents do not have peace officer status, the formal and informal training, socialization, and hierarchical structure of the organization closely resembles a large police department in the United States<sup>1</sup>. The body of literature on law enforcement training indicates the topic is largely researched in state, county, and municipalities agencies. There is a clear gap in the sheer volume of basic law enforcement training research conducted on federal law enforcement entities.

The first three sections within this literature review explores research in three areas of general policing with the fourth section an examination of the United States Border Patrol. First, I describe relevant terms and concepts for organizational socialization, general policing, and supervising police officers. Next, I examine the role of organizational socialization in law enforcement training. This portion surveys the socialization process, briefly describes the four dominant theoretical perspectives in organizational socialization, informal and formal processes,

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<sup>1</sup> The terms police, policing, law enforcement, and United States Border Patrol are used interchangeably. These terms for the purpose of this document reflect the idea of an organization having the responsibility to maintain law and order, preventing and detecting crime, and enforcing law local, state, or federal laws.

and coping mechanisms. Third, I review the research literature on supervisory dynamics in a police environment, supervisory influences on subordinate police officers, and supervisor socialization. Lastly, I discuss and provide context on the creation of the Department of Homeland Security, and the significant growth of the United States Border Patrol. I then discuss the historical growth, rapid expansion of the agency, leadership responses and organizational capacities, and the basic training academy. I provide a comparative perspective of rapid and significant growth of two other law enforcement agencies. The aim is to point out commonalities and argue the growth of the United States Border Patrol is unparalleled. I conclude the literature review with a description of the challenges and gaps in research for this topic.

### **Relevant Terms and Concepts**

#### **Organizational Socialization**

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) describe the socialization process as teaching new members of the organization the social awareness and skills necessary to assume a role in the organization. In addition, the socialization process can act in a manner to ensure that organizational traditions survive. The manner in which individuals learn the culture, habits, and behavior of an organization are structured for them by others in the organization. Other scholars have defined organizational socialization as the process through which individuals learn the culture and values of their job environment (Ashforth et al., 2007; Engelson, 1999; Feldman, 1976; Fielding, 1984; Haarr, 2001). A common theme among organizational socialization definitions is the notion social knowledge of the organization's culture and values are the key items taught in the process. Anticipatory socialization is generally described as the development of an individual's strong identification with a group to which he or she does not yet fully belong and the adoption of the group's values and behaviors (Feldman, 1976; Little, 1990).

Baker and Feldman (1990) argue the socialization process is an organizationally directed process that establishes itself in formal and informal manners early in employment. Primary organizational socialization is completed within 12 months of entering the occupation making basic police academies and field training programs important parts of the process (Britz, 1997; Moon, 2006). Research on organizational socialization generally discusses the socialization process in terms of formal and informal processes sometimes working at the same time and directly opposed to each other (Engelson, 1999; Fielding, 1984; Haberfield, 2002; Harro, 2000). Formal socialization processes in basic police academies are characterized as the process by which police academy recruits acquire the skill or ability required to do the job (Stradling, Crowe, & Tuohy, 1993; Taormina, 1997). In addition, the initial organizational socialization process in a basic police academy is an organizationally controlled process with fixed stages (Baker III & Feldman, 1990; Bennett, 1984). Formal processes are categorized as the basic academy training objectives and curriculum to include any practical exercises. Karp and Stenmark (2011) contend the formal socialization process is framed by constitutional (legal), organizational (structure and budget), and physical (actual facility) considerations. Informal organizational processes include the anecdotal socialization transmitted by instructors to recruits, recruits to each other, recruits to instructors, and coworker support.

### **Police Training**

The distinction between training and education within law enforcement agencies has become an increasingly discussed topic due to the growing complexity and changing nature of police work. The shifting nature is viewed as having a strong influence on present-day police education and training (Kratcoski, 2004). Overall, education is generally seen as developing the ability to conceptualize and expand abstract ideas and analytic learning processes. Typically,

education is viewed as advancing an officer's ability in proactive problem-solving and crime prevention skills (Kratcoski, 2004). Police training is seen as involving the ability to gain the skills needed to accomplish the immediate tasks and goals of police operations. The skills typically associated with training are the learning of laws, procedures, firearms, self-defense, physical and drivers training (Chappell, 2008). Training is generally viewed as the basic element for the formal socialization process in policing (Chappell, 2008; Fielding, 1988; Karp & Stenmark, 2011; Lord, 1998; Macvean & Cox, 2012). Although these may be separate, education and training are seen as intricately related (Kratcoski, 2004). The amount of time devoted to the theoretical or technical facets of police training depends on the philosophy of those in charge of designing the curriculum.

Training programs in law enforcement are generally categorized in three different segments separated by chronology and level of experience: basic training, field training, and in-service training (Marion, 1998; Murray, 2006). Basic training or academy training is typically the first and most fundamental type of training available to police organizations. This type of training is the most widely researched topic for state and local law enforcement agencies (Marenin, 2004; Murray, 2006). Basic academies have three functions and are designed to provide police academy graduates, at the very least, a certain minimum level of knowledge in order to perform the job. The three overarching functions are: knowledge learning, skill learning, and attitude learning (Marenin, 2004; Marion, 1998). The basic academy, in most cases, is the first experience a new recruit has of the organization. Field training is the segment that immediately follows the basic academy and is usually conducted one-on-one with a field training officer and lasts to the end of the recruit's probationary period (Sloan, Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1992). In-service training is all re-occurring training for all officers that can include firearm qualifications, Equal Employment Opportunity training, or any other training deemed appropriate by the agency.

Knowledge learning encompasses a significant portion of a basic police academy and is viewed as the classroom feature of the training. The focus is the learning of laws, procedures, policies, and regulations pertaining to the job of a police officer. This type of training often results in examinations to ensure trainees have learned the material (Birzer, 1999; 2003). Skill learning is where the police trainees are instructed on a skill such as firearms, self-defense, physical training, and driving training. Police trainees practice the skills until it becomes intuitive, and are eventually tested on their proficiency. The final area of basic police training is attitude learning, which begins the professional informal socialization process of the individual into the organization (Chappell, 2008; Fielding, 1988; Karp & Stenmark, 2011; Lord, 1998; Macvean & Cox, 2012). Field training is the segment that immediately follows the basic academy and reinforces what was emphasized in the police academy. The phase is conducted by another more senior officer often called the Field Training Officer and consists of one-on-one instruction (Sloan et al., 1992). The Field Training Officer provides the trainee the opportunity to apply the knowledge and skills learned at the academy. Additionally, the field training program provides a role model of 'normal' organizational behavior for the trainee police officer (Sloan et al., 1992). In-service training is the process of reinforcing basic academy and field training experiences on a periodic basis. In-service training provides the officer the opportunity to continue to maintain proficiency on skills and refine others as they mature into the organization (Sloan et al., 1992). Basic academy training, field training, and in-service training compose the forms of training available to law enforcement officers. These training components are also the dominant forms of training for the United States Border Patrol (Government Accountability Office, 2003; 2007a; 2013).

## **Supervision in Policing**

Lambruschini (2016) generally defines supervisors as people within an organization who have the formal authority and responsibility to provide oversight, mentorship, and evaluate the performance of others. Police organizations are historically structured in a hierarchical manner which provide supervisors the formal basis for issuing directions to officers (Allen, 1982; Goodwin, 2010; Van Maanen, 1983). Police supervisors derive their authorities from the establishment of laws and administrative regulations within the organization and municipalities to govern the behavior of others. Goodwin (2010) describes the combination of laws and administrative regulations as the foundation for bureaucratic regulation. Compounding the complexity of bureaucratic regulation, a police supervisor must manage subordinate police officer's discretion in an environment that is less stable and predictable than most professions (Engel & Worden, 2003). Although the term police supervision may connote visions of direct and immediate supervision, in most instances, that is not the case. Schafer (2009) describes supervisory police officers as having to provide limited direct supervision over police officers operating in varied environments handling a wide range of duties while making innumerable high-discretion decisions.

## **Police Recruit Organizational Socialization**

The literature on organizational socialization has been approached from a variety of perspectives and usually researched in a patchy and disconnected fashion (Fisher, 1986; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992, Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Wanous 1992). The research in organizational socialization has not led to much theory development or integration of the various perspectives (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Wanous, 1992). In large part and as a result of the lack of theoretical development, the dominant frameworks for understanding the organizational socialization process

are “stage-models” (Wanous, 1992). The “stage-models” frequently depict the socialization process as a series of stages the new recruit has to master in order to move to the next step of the process. The stages are not mutually exclusive, but instead usually fit together and overlap in an all-inclusive combined process (Taormina, 1997). Although theory development has lagged, Saks and Ashforth (1997) argue four theoretical perspectives have driven most of the research on organizational socialization.

Although the research in organizational socialization has been disjointed and criticized for mostly being descriptive, there is little doubt the process is important in the success or failure of an organization (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In this section, I discuss key areas of organizational socialization that are prevalent. First, I briefly summarize the four prevailing perspectives on organizational socialization: Van Maanen & Schein’s (1979) model of socialization tactics; Uncertainty Reduction Theory; Social Cognitive Theory; and Cognitive and Sense Making Theory. Second, I describe pre-employment and basic police academy anticipatory socialization. Finally, I close out this section with a review of the literature on formal and informal training organizational socialization processes in policing with particular focus on police training.

### **Prevailing Theoretical Perspectives**

Van Maanen and Schein’s (1979) work in organizational socialization research is generally seen as the foundation for other researchers in this area of inquiry (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). In particular, they are recognized with some of the earliest work in police organizational socialization research. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) argue the manner in which teaching new members of an organization is organizational socialization. Further, they suggest learning the organizational environment and customs are not only important for introducing the individual to the organization, but can reduce the anxiety for the new police recruit. The authors proffered a theory on

organizational socialization that has five underlying assumptions: (1) new entry into an organization produces high anxiety situations; (2) the socialization process does not occur in vacuity; (3) predictability is a sought out attribute by the newcomer; (4) adjustment to high anxiety situations is comparable across organizations; and (5) socialization does not emphasize factors such as age, background, personality, etc. The assumptions are for a model of organizational socialization that delineate a set of interrelated theoretical propositions about structure and outcomes. The model stipulates the linkages between specific socialization variables (tactics) and resulting behavior responses (role orientation).

Falcione and Wilson (1988) and Lester (1987) contend the most recent theoretical framework driving socialization research has been Uncertainty Reduction Theory (URT). The basic framework of Uncertainty Reduction Theory posits that uncertainty increases during the initial organizational entry process. New employees are motivated to reduce uncertainty so that the environment is more predictable, comprehensible, and manageable (Lester, 1987; Morrison, 1993; Saks, 1996; Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, Cannon-Bowers, 1991). Under the Uncertainty Reduction Theory, the higher the perceived helpfulness of formalized training to the new member the greater the probability of reducing anxiety. Formalized training represents institutionalized socialization methods that lower ambiguity and role conflict because the methods provide information that reduces anxiety (Saks, 1996). It is the level of uncertainty that effects the newcomers level of socialization, organizational identity, and the development of a psychological contract with the organization (Britz, 1997; Saks, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). The psychological contract developed by the newcomer and the organization becomes a key tenet in the strength of the organizational socialization process.

Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory and Self-Efficacy theory has been another theoretical approach to organizational socialization research (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Social Cognitive Theory is based on the notion that human behavior and psychosocial functioning can be explained by the mutual interaction of the person and environment (Bandura, 1986, 1997). The theory takes into consideration a person's past experiences in order to predict future behavior. The past experiences become learned experiences that shape and form future behavior. The emphasis of the theory is on social influence and relies on external and internal social reinforcement (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy theory was later adopted as part of Social Cognitive Theory (Saks, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Self-efficacy is the belief or confidence in one's capabilities to successfully perform an action, task, etc. Confidence is influenced by a person's specific capabilities and other individual factors, as well as by social-environmental factors (barriers and facilitators). In the case of police basic training academies, police recruits achieve a higher level confidence by gaining information from role models (academy staff) and through observation and experimentation (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

Finally, a cognitive approach to socialization in which new employees attempt to make sense of the interactions, behavior required, and the organizational culture during the socialization process has driven much of the latest research (Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obsteld, 2005; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Individuals within the organization are important in themselves, but the cumulative effect of the individuals on the organization help create the 'sensemaking' of the organization (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Harris, 1994; Weick et al., 2005). Sensemaking is generally framed as the individual's set of theories and assumptions about organizational realities and relationships (Harris, 1994; Katz, 1980). The theories and assumptions then become the outlines of expectations. The interaction and dynamics of the organizational setting (ecology,

milieu, culture, and organizational structure) form the constructs for individual behavior during the socialization process (Falcione & Wilson, 1988; Gioia & Thomas, 1996; Weick, 1995). The constructs shape the formal and informal behavior of a new employee (Weick et al., 2005). The distinction between real or imagined perceptions is not necessarily a requirement. The validity of the perception does not seem to be a variable in shaping the newcomer identity (Harris, 1994; Louis, 1980; Weick et al., 2005).

### **Anticipatory Socialization**

Anticipatory socialization is a significant influence in the organizational socialization process. Anticipatory socialization occurs at two points for individuals attempting to be a police officer: pre-employment as they are in the process of becoming hired and when they are in the basic academy attempting to integrate with the organization (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce; 2010; Little, 1990; Post, 1992). The first point, pre-employment anticipatory socialization, encompasses all the learning that occurs before the individual enters the organization. This stage is best described as the part the potential employee learns more about the organization either influencing them to apply or confirming their decision to enter the profession (Feldman, 1976; Harro, 2000; Little, 1990; Stradling et al., 1993). The individual at this point is categorized as enamored by the anticipation of joining the police organization and the work to be conducted. Van Maanen (1973) posits the pre-entry point is where individuals, who may be predisposed for a career in law enforcement and may exhibit altruistic motives, are subject to social desirability considerations. In other words, individuals begin to identify themselves as a member of the organization, and become enamored with the profession.

The second point of anticipatory socialization is characterized as contingent entry into the profession (Stradling, et al., 1993; Van Maanen, 1978). While the police recruit, at the academy,

is not a policeman they have been tentatively accepted by the organization. The aim by the police recruit is to demonstrate skill proficiency and acceptable reaction to the organizational socialization (Hopper, 1977; Little, 1990). This point is predominately the time frame a police recruit is at the basic police academy, but occurs in the field training phase as well. Bennett (1984) hypothesizes that both structural (the organization's effect on the individual recruit) and process variables (features that affect cognition) at this point of the socialization process are key influences. The structural variables are categorized, at a basic police academy, as a series of instructions, ceremonies, and tests conducted in an environment of high stress. Violanti (1993) argues the high stress environments are punishment centered but there is a high reward for those successfully completing tasks within this phase. After each phase, the police trainee is elevated a little higher in stature and closer to a full-fledged police officer (Conti, 2009; Feldman, 1976; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). This phase of training is described as the stage the individual is formally exposed to the organization and attempts to be part of it.

### **Formal and Informal Training Processes**

Although basic police academy training goes beyond the socialization process, training has become synonymous with it (Taormina, 1997; Van Maanen, 1973; 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Organizational training for newcomers is the most formal and planned form of socialization. Training is increasingly being used as a socialization practice, but little is known how the practice affects the role of supervisors once the recruit graduates from the basic academy (Saks, 1996; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Formal and informal training processes during the basic academy and field training phases are considered an important part of the organizational socialization process. These phases are where candidates become familiar with the rules, procedures, and hierarchy of the organization (Chappell, 2008). Formal training processes are the

organizationally driven methods that shape attitudes and behavior of the police recruit. The basic training academy represents a socialization program of fixed stages that are in chronological order and generally socialized by previous job incumbents (Baker III & Feldman, 1990; Beck & Wilson, 1997). Conti (2009) contends the deliberate design of the process furthers conformity to the expected traditional police norms and culture. The most widely used basic police academy model emphasizes stress while using fear and intimidation to improve performance (Cleveland & Saville, 2007; Post, 1992).

The police recruit's most pressing task at the basic police academy is to build 'sensemaking' in order to explain and find meaning in the activities observed within the organization (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Gioia & Thomas, 1996; Van Maanen, 1978). It is the sensemaking that shapes the formal and informal socialization processes in police organizations. The literature suggests formal and informal training processes are generally framed by three distinct categories. First, internal organizational influences on the socialization process helps shape and form the formal and informal training processes. Second, gaps exist between what is instructed at the basic police academy and what is practiced. This gap is often described as 'this is not the academy' by Field Training Officers (Fielding, 1988; Karp & Stenmark, 2011; Marion, 1998). Finally, the impact of the pedagogy in police officer training impacts how basic training is viewed by Field Training Officers and those officers who graduate from basic training academies (Cleveland & Saville, 2007).

**An organizational directed process with fixed structured stages.** Elements of a formal socialization process at a basic police academy are typically segmented into two sections. First, the formal training objectives and curriculum are the formal requirements of the police organization at the police academy (Karp & Stenmark, 2011; Little 1990). The police recruit is

generally required by a state governing board to receive specific instruction and demonstrate proficiency before certification is granted. These are the written requirements of the organization. Second, practical exercises of the socialization process involve drills that are both academic and practical (Harro, 2000; Taormina, 1997; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The academic exercises are exhibited through practical sessions (role playing) in which technical skills are learned and practiced. The practical exercises are those that are physical in nature – weapons training, drivers training, physical training, etc. (Taormina, 1997). Combined, the stages make-up the formal aspects of the basic academy.

Post (1992) maintains training in a police department is the method used to convey knowledge and develop skills. Moreover, basic police academy training also serves as a method to expose new police recruits to the culture of the profession. The academy is also the initial socialization process where police recruits go through fixed stages (Baker III & Feldman, 1990; Van Maanen, 1978). The stages are conducted in a specific order dictated by the curriculum and instructed, usually, by previous occupational incumbents. All police recruits must adhere to the curriculum standards and established behaviors or risk exclusion from the organization (Britz, 1997). It is the rigid nature of the institutional training program that sets an environment for the organizational socialization to take place. The police training program is described as one of the “most complicated rites of passage in our society” (Hopper, 1997, p. 149) due to the sequence of instructions, ceremonies, and tests faced by the police recruit. Although the basic academy is structured with formal stages, the stages are filled with anxiety as the recruit’s status within the organization is ambiguous (Feldman, 1976; Harro, 2000; Hopper, 1997). Saks (1996) and Tannenbaum et al. (1991) argue anxiety is the foremost experience of organizational entry and socialization.

Based on the strength of the literature, Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) theory of organizational socialization in policing is generally viewed as the basis for other research in police organizational socialization. The fixed stages in a basic police academy offer a manner in which to teach new members the 'world view' (social knowledge and skills) necessary to assume an organizational role and learn the occupational content. The phases are identified as the organizational socialization tactics used to ensure occupational conformity and socialization content (Ashforth et al., 2007; Van Maanen, 1978; 1975; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Socialization content, thus, becomes the substance of what an individual learns in order to become a proficient and comfortable member of the organization. Van Maanen (1978) argues regardless of the choice of the socialization strategy, an identifiable set of events will make certain behavioral and attitudinal consequences more likely than others. The fixed stages allow for the demonstration of acceptable and unacceptable behavior. All new police recruits must adhere to established manners of behavior or risk either rejection or ostracism by the organization. Although the functional organizational setting is designed to filter individuals by their demonstrated skill, learning the socialization content of the organization plays a significant role (Van Maanen, 1978). Organizational socialization is not only framed by the structure of the curriculum but also by the interactions with peers and instructors.

**Informal organizational socialization process.** The informal organizational socialization process is generally viewed as three distinct categories (Little, 1990; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Taormina, 1997). First, anecdotal socialization conveyed by instructors to recruits is the initial and most predominant category. The most influential group in shaping the recruit's occupational behavior patterns are the incumbents or training staff at a basic police academy (Morrison, 1993; Britz, 1997; Taormina, 1997). This type of socialization is not part of the formal curriculum of

the academy, but rather the “war stories” told by the experienced instructors. The stories provide insight into the occupation and provide a sense of a ‘rite of passage’ for the recruit (Britz, 1997; Morrison, 1993). Second, anecdotal socialization transmitted by police recruits to each other is another type of informal socialization. This type of socialization refers to the stories told from police recruit to police recruit with particular focus on those who have some previous experience in the police occupation (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Jones & Volpe, 2011; Little, 1990; Stradling, et al., 1993). Regardless of the level of experience, the police recruit who has previous experience provides co-worker support. Next, the anecdotal socialization transmitted by recruits to instructors is the last form of informal police basic academy socialization. This type of socialization occurs when a police recruit asks a training instructor a question to elicit a statement or opinion on a topic (Little, 1990; Jones & Volpe, 2011; Taormina, 1997). Not only does the question verify or reinforce a police recruit’s perspective but it informally relays to the instructor the recruit’s level of assimilation into the organization.

Harro (2000) describes the informal organizational socialization process as unescapable, consistent, circular, self-perpetuating, and invisible. Newcomers into the police organization experience socialization from all sides and sources. The process is said to be patterned and predictable, but yet anonymous. Harro (2000) suggests the process of socialization is really a mosaic of social identities that are shaped and formed prior to and entry into the organization. Once the police recruit is in the basic police academy the informal or invisible socialization process becomes a series of negotiated bargaining and resolving conflicts (Fielding, 1984; Van Maanen, 1978). This becomes important when police recruits are attempting to understand the organization and ‘fit-in’. Thus, the police recruit’s success hinges on the ability to interpret and maneuver through the socialization process (Hopper, 1977; Fielding, 1984; Jones, 1986; Van Maanen, 1973;

1978). The police recruit's adjustment is established through affiliation with and influenced by occupational reference groups. In addition, the nature and content of the influence as well as the individual's need to affiliate are determined by the structural factors that merge or impede the process (Bennett, 1984).

The informal socialization process in the police academy evolves into a psychological contract that helps form a bond between individuals and their peers as well as the mission of the organization (Britz, 1997; Saks, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Previous research in police organizational socialization suggests the process is so intense and strong that individual characteristics are quickly re-shaped (Ashforth et al., 2007; Britz, 1997; Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Taormina, 1997). High stress basic police training academies that emphasize military style indoctrination not only have a strong informal socialization process they quickly overwhelm any feelings of individuality (Beck & Wilson, 1997; Stradling et al., 1993; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Violanti, 1993). The style of training environment in which stressors are intentionally produced on a uniform basis over an extended time are typically centered on punishment. In addition, social control of police recruits is typically conducted by admonishment while emphasizing he is otherwise a submissive member of the group. Harro (2000) argues members remain in the socialization cycle for either or a combination of the following five factors: (1) fear; (2) ignorance; (3) confusion; (4) insecurity; and (5) power or powerlessness. In other words, it is a process that requires self-efficacy to moderate the effect of socialization tactics on role orientation.

**Organizational socialization coping mechanisms at basic police academies.** The high stress training in basic police academies may lead to the use of an assortment of coping strategies by the recruits. Some of the strategies are maladaptive and others adaptive for the police recruits

(Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Violanti, 1993). The strength of the literature suggests the socialization process in intense basic police academies is made easier by a supportive peer group (Ashforth et al., 2007; Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Morrison, 1993; Taormina, 1997; Van Maanen, 1973; 1978; Violanti, 1993). The supportive peer group cohort helps facilitate the 'esprit de corps' of the police recruits. Stradling et al. (1993) emphasize, socialization into organizational membership not only requires an individual to be proficient in new skills, but also necessitates the change of self-image and the adoption of organizational values. As a result, police recruits adjust to the demands of the organization by achieving cohort occupational solidarity. This is accomplished by adopting cohort practices and shedding individualistic behaviors. The peer group support helps reduce anxiety in the academy which promotes solidarity. Taormina (1997) describes peer group support as emotional, morale building, and necessary for the development of a psychological contract. The support is provided by other employees in the organization with the understanding that the support will be reciprocated. The aim is to alleviate anxiety, fear or doubt and act as a buffer against stress faced by police recruits. The collectiveness of the basic police academy culture and profession, as part of the socialization process, helps further buffer the daily strains the recruits face (Little, 1990; Paoline, 2003; Saks et al., 1997; Stradling et al., 1993). In essence, peer support aids the police recruit in having shared meanings, experiences, and the ability to rely on each other for emotional and mental support.

Since much of the control over individual behavior is a direct result of the manner in which people are socialized, camaraderie becomes an integral role in the process (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). It is easier to learn and make sense of the socialization process with people who have been through similar experiences or as a cohort than to devise meanings from scratch or individually (Taormina, 1997; Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Although stress

is not associated with any learning processes, stress is typically part of a basic police academy (Violanti, 1993). Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce (2010) argue stress plays an essential function in developing loyalty, solidarity, and reliance on each other. As a result of the stressful organizational environment, group loyalty quickly generates. The outcome is continuously reinforced in the socialization process and the more it is reinforced the more it becomes part of the police recruit's mindset (Post, 1992; Paoline III, 2003; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Stradling et al., 1993). Fundamental dimensions of organizational socialization theory indicate peer socialization variables could be formal or informal and are not exclusive of each other (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Although the focus of the peer group coping mechanism in this review is at the basic police academy, the mechanism continues into the next phase of police recruit training (Paoline III, 2003; Van Maanen, 1978).

**The complexity of implicit and explicit values after the basic police academy.** The second phase of formal police officer training immediately follows the basic police academy and is called the field training program. This phase of the formal police training generally lasts until the end of the recruit's probationary status with the organization. Although the basic police academy training is important to the socialization of the police recruit, it is the field training officer who is the primary mechanism by which police recruits are socialized into the culture of the organization (Bahn, 1984; Engelson, 1999; Fagan, 1985). Understanding the influence of the field training officer is important because organizational values can be categorized as implicit and explicit values. The implicit values are also called the 'hidden curriculum' and are transmitted by the field training officer (Bahn, 1984; Bennett, 1984; Engelson, 1999; Fielding, 1988). During this phase of the training the field training officer serves as a daily mentor having a continued influence on the socialization of the police recruit. Cleveland and Saville (2007) have termed the

effect as *tabula rasa*, which is Latin for a ‘blank state’. The idea is the police recruit will re-shape their professional identity closer to the likeness of the training officer in to ‘fit it’. Fielding (1988) contends not only is the socialization process strongly influenced by the field training officer, so is the formal and informal content of what is trained.

Haberfeld (2002) and Quinet, Nunn, and Kincaid (2003) have conducted studies on the extensive role and importance of Field Training Officer (FTO) programs on formal and informal training processes. Of particular interest is the manner by which these programs socialize the police trainee. The field training officer position is a key component in the training of police recruits due to the influence they have on socializing recruits into a post-basic academy training atmosphere. As a result, police organizations are recognizing the need to address the selection, training, and retention of field training officers (Haberfeld, 2002). The field training officer not only serves as a training mentor for the police trainee, but is a key link for the trainee officers to the other officers they will eventually work with. The police recruit understands the transition into informal acceptance by future peers rests on the FTO’s assessment the recruit can ‘fit in’. The connection between training and the culture of police organizations is powerfully influenced by field training officers (Macvean & Cox, 2012). The future success of law enforcement training will rely on the ability of police organizations not only to recognize and factor formal training processes, but informal processes as well (Britz, 2007; Cleveland & Saville, 2007; Haberfeld, 2002; Macvean & Cox, 2012).

Although police organizations place a heavy emphasis on basic training, a divide exists between what is trained at the basic police academy, in-service, and the reality of what occurs in the communities. Violanti (1993) describes the gap as one were the field training officer believes he or she ‘had it tougher’ or ‘more difficult’ than those recruits who followed. The field training

officer often views the recruit as ‘soft’ until the recruit can prove their worthiness. Bradford and Pynes (1999) contend the gap is in the content of the material as opposed to the socialization process. Less than 3% of the basic training academy time is dedicated to building skills in the cognitive and decision making areas (Bayley & Shearing, 1996; Bradford & Pynes, 1999; Britz, 2007; Haarr, 2001). Fielding (1988) suggests police training should be aligned as close to the realities of the position as practical. A closer alignment will provide police trainees effective and applicable training. There is little value in instilling certain values and skills at the basic police academy if these same activities are not valued or practiced by the field training officer or the organization (Bayley & Shearing, 1996; Haarr, 2001).

Formal and informal socialization in police training is a process where individuals develop points of reference to understand and perhaps adopt social practices in an organization (Karp & Stenmark, 2011). Theoretically, the points of reference are called stages, cycles, or frames that utilize factors delineating the constitutional, organizational, and physical aspects of police training (Stradling et al., 1993; Taormina, 1997; Van Maanen, 1973; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The stages help define and describe the tension individual police trainees must learn to navigate during the training and organizational socialization process. The literature suggests the stages of the socialization process encompass formal and informal variables that often overlap and influence each other. In addition, the stages are not necessarily sequential or hierarchical in nature but seem to be a pattern similar to a coil spring spiraling to a single point. The single point is often full acceptance into the profession.

### **Police Supervision**

In the last 90 years police organizations have adopted a quasi-military model of hierarchical structure characterized by a rigid and strict command system (Allen, 1982; Goodwin, 2010;

Jermier & Berkes, 1979). The organizational model provides that each level of supervision has an increased level of formal authority as the organizational rank moves closer to the person responsible for the organization (Goodwin, 2010). Schafer (2009) contends terms such as leadership, supervision, and management are all used interchangeably in policing despite a general agreement they are distinct from each other. For the purpose of this study, supervision is described as the authority exerted by police officers who have the formal position within the organization to do so. Police supervisors derive their authorities from the establishment of laws and administrative regulations which govern the behavior of others. The combination of laws and administrative regulations form the foundation for bureaucratic control (Trojanowicz, 1980). As in other professions, police supervision is more than the laws, policies, and regulations it is the influence of the supervisor, through personality, to influence others to act in a certain behavior (Schafer, 2009).

A significant emphasis on police supervision research has focused on supervisory leadership styles to determine the influence on behavior, police officer role uncertainty, or job satisfaction (Engel & Worden, 2003; Ingram, 2013; Manning, 1997; Paoline, 2003; Mastrofski, Rosenbaum & Fridell, 2011; Skogan, 2008). Much of the literature discusses the merits of leadership approaches such as transactional, transformational, and participatory. Regardless of the style or approach, supervisors are expected to facilitate the goals of the organization by ensuring compliance with policy and procedure, encouraging camaraderie, and raising morale of their subordinates (Engel & Worden, 2003). Police supervisors must manage subordinate police officer's discretion in an environment that is less controllable and predictable than most professions. Although the term police supervision may suggest direct and immediate supervision, the dynamics of policing generally do not allow this to be the case. Police supervision often occurs

at a distance since subordinate officers are given geographical assignments which range in size and scope. Adding to the complexity, first-level supervisors are placed in positions of having to oversee a wide variety of subordinate officers ranging in age, morals, values, and ethics (Goodwin, 2010).

In order to better understand supervisory dynamics in policing it is helpful to comprehend how first-level supervisors are socialized into their new position and the resulting divergent perspectives. The basic police academy socialization process that results in a strong ‘esprit de corps’ generally continues throughout the officer’s career (Allen, 1982; Bayley & Shearing, 1996; Haarr, 2001; Taormina, 1997; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Generally, almost every police officer in the organization share common experiences of having worked in the field upon graduation from the basic training academy. The bottom-up promotion system ensures officers who promote within the organization have been exposed to the same initial socialization of the particular agency (Van Maanen, 1984). Unlike, the cohort process utilized at the basic training academy, the path from officer to supervisor is an individual process. Similar to completion of the basic training academy there may be groups of individuals who are promoted at the same time. The promotion may even be celebrated in a formal manner, but the process is a solitary one (Conti, 2009; Harro, 2000; Hopper, 1997; Van Maanen, 1984). Once the officer is promoted to supervisor the individual may be mentored or coached by another more experienced supervisor and formal training conducted to learn the administrative requirements of the position. There is no assurance that either one will be timely or even occur, so the newly promoted supervisor is left to learn the role ‘on-the-job’ (Van Maanen, 1984).

The socialization process for new police officers at the basic police academy has been described as intense and deliberate in order to set a tone for occupational solidarity. Unlike the

basic academy, the socialization for new supervisors is relatively insignificant. Van Maanen (1984) argues police officers enter their new organizational role with the lessons and culture learned in their old roles. In order to be successful in their new organizational role, supervisors begin to adapt and develop their own styles of supervision to address the conflicts between learning their new role and supervising officers. The conflict comes from having to supervise officers who have a great deal of discretion while attempting to meet the organization's goals. Ingram and Engel (2015) describe the tension and conflict in the new role as unique because first-level supervisors are the least removed from field level officers, but are viewed by the organization as management.

### **Police Supervisory Dynamics**

Generally, the first-level of supervisory oversight in policing is the sergeant and in the United States Border Patrol it is the Supervisory Border Patrol Agent. The position represents a layer of the organization's management structure that controls the daily work of line officers (Ingram, 2013). The job of first-level supervisors has been described as having to provide limited direct supervision to police officers who operate in diverse environments while handling a wide range of duties that require high-discretion decisions (Schafer, 2009). Due to the nature of police work, the ability of the police supervisor to actually observe the work of a police officer subordinate is difficult and sporadic. Allen (1982) calls the supervisory oversight dynamic 'low compliance observability' where supervisors rely on compliance by the officer through informal incentives. The result of the distant relationship between supervisor and officer leads to greater interactions after an event has transpired. In other words, supervision tends to occur after the fact (Phillips, 2015). The working environment often creates a relationship that has been described as tense and filled with low intensity conflict (Allen, 1982; Engel, 2001; Schafer, 2009). The tension

is a result of the substantial discretion officers have in their daily duties and the top-down relationship between supervisors and subordinates (Engel, 2001; Mastrofski et al., 2011; Sun, 2002).

The literature on police supervision makes it clear managing officer discretion is the responsibility of the supervisor (Engel & Worden, 2003; Johnson, 2012; Mastrofski et al., 2011; Phillips, 2015; Skogan, 2008; Van Maanen, 1984). Adding to the complexity is the idea that almost every police rank in the organization share common experiences as police officers. As officers move up the police management ranks they view their place within the organization differently than the subordinate officer. Faced with these perceptions both subordinate officers and supervisors define their immediate job roles differently (Densten, 2003; Engel, 2001). Exacerbating the perceptions is the idea first-level supervisors are in positions of responsibility to their superiors for their subordinates, and are responsible to their subordinates at the same time. The non-alignment of role expectations, at times, becomes a point of contention due to the expectations held of supervisors by higher ranking management personnel. Engel (2001) argues supervisor role and subordinate role ambiguity is further convoluted when shifts are supervised by multiple supervisors. Regardless, police supervisors are expected to shape the conduct and behavior of their subordinates and act as role models (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Mastrofski et al., 2011; Van Maanen, 1983). The supervisor and subordinate relationship becomes challenging because the performance of the first-level supervisor is measured through the effectiveness of subordinate officer performance (Trojanwicz, 1980).

Supervisors enter the new position with the lessons and experiences learned in their old roles and socialized into the organization as those they supervise. So it is not surprising by the preponderance of the literature (Allen, 1982; Birzer, 1996; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Muir, 1977;

Phillips, 2015; Schafer, 2009; Van Maanen, 1983), that it is generally accepted police supervisors are expected to influence the behavior of their subordinates. It is clear the degree of influence is debated (Brown, 1988; Engel, 2000). Since the nature of field police work typically requires supervisory oversight at a distance, police supervisors rely on various leadership approaches to ensure policy adherence and promote organizational unity. Johnson (2012) argues supervisors often provide some small form of incentives or engage in informal conversations with police officers to influence behavior. The incentives may include such things as favorable work assignments and days off. The author suggests frequent supervisor-officer interactions coupled with the values and behavior of police supervisors have a higher probability of influencing attitudes and behavior. Brown (1988) in contrast, argues due to the solitary nature of police supervision influence over subordinate discretionary behavior is restricted to the formal aspects of enforcing policy and procedure. Overall, the body of the research literature certainly suggests there is a supervisory influence, but the magnitude of the effect varies across the types of behaviors and tasks performed by the subordinate.

Ingram and Lee (2015) posit recent research suggests supervisory police influences may be more distinct in the early phases of the officer-supervisor relationship. The notion appears to have legitimacy when considering the initial period of the relationship is viewed as the ‘honeymoon’ period (Densten, 2003; Engel, 2000). This period is generally a process in which the officer begins to understand their supervisor’s parameters of acceptable behavior and values. In addition, during this phase the basic building blocks of trust are developed by both the officer and supervisor. On the other hand, the supervisor seeks to understand the diverse expectations from their subordinates and the efforts needed to create a structure toward achieving organizational goals. Densten (2003) and Shafer (2009) contend the ‘honey moon’ period allows the supervisor

to set the tone in the work environment and plays a key role in influencing and shaping officer behavior. In addition, Jermier and Berkes (1979) report when subordinate officers view their tasks as unpredictable, the influence of supervisors is the greatest. Van Maanen (1983) further clarify Jermier and Berkes' (1979) supposition by contending that in highly uncertain police environments, where the undertaking is less clear and the observability by a supervisor is not present or less visible, the influence on officer discretion by the first-level supervisor is the greatest.

Although scholars and police practitioners agree supervisory influence on subordinates exists, the degree of magnitude is debated. Densten (2003) argues successful organizational change in policing relies heavily on first-level supervisors. The notion is based on the supposition first-level supervisors significantly influence the implementation of regulations, policies, and procedures through their level of support. Others (Engel & Worden, 2003; Johnson, 2012) maintain the success of organizational change is the implementation process itself and first-level supervisors have an important role in the implementation process. First-level supervisors are viewed as the key to organizational change. In actual practice the implementation process is facilitated through the beliefs and values of the supervisors (Densten, 2003; Jermier & Berkes, 1979; Mastrofski et al., 2011; Phillips, 2015; Van Maanen, 1983) as they communicate the new expectations and the intended practical application of policy to subordinate officers (Engel & Worden, 2003). Ingram and Lee (2015) further suggest the reason for the importance of the first-level supervisor in the success of organizational change is based on the daily role the supervisor plays in the organization. Supervisors have a key role in communicating job roles and expectations, providing feedback, and simply providing insight and information about the

organization. The supervisor's formal and informal roles places him in a key position of implementing organizational strategies to effect desired outcomes.

Although formal responsibility for the application of policy rests on the shoulders of supervisors, the process is not done in a vacuum (Ingram, Weidner, Paoline, & Terrill, 2014). A police supervisor is inherently tied to the organizational rule making process placing them in a tedious position of being subordinate to the higher ranks of the organization, while maintaining the trust and confidence of their subordinates (Ingram & Lee, 2015). Although supervisors may provide the formal socialization of organizational change through policy and procedure, undoubtedly subordinate peers provide informal socialization of the change occurring (Lumb & Breazeal, 2002). Supervisors must not only manage the organizational change in a formal setting, but they also continue to be responsible for the informal discretionary decisions made by subordinate officers who may be influenced by their peers.

The ensuing political, financial, and social consequences after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 set in motion a new approach to policing – the 'homeland security era' (Oliver, 2006). The new approach has been described as the effort to focus crime control resources with the notion of exposing threats and gathering intelligence to support counter-terrorism efforts. Prior to the terrorist attacks, intelligence gathering and counter-terrorism efforts were viewed primarily as the responsibility of the federal government with little or no involvement by state and local law enforcement entities (Mayer & Erickson, 2011). The shifting paradigm of counter-terrorism efforts by police marks a significant departure from traditional policing. The paradigm shift is not solely isolated to state and local policing but is similar to the change within the United States Border Patrol. The agency for most of its existence viewed its primary mission as immigration control (Andreas, 2009; Mabee, 2007), but the terrorist attacks re-directed the agency to adopt a

counter-terrorism focus. The counter-terrorism focus of the nation led to the creation of the Department of Homeland Security. For much of the department's nearly two decades in existence the United States Border Patrol has been the face of the federal government's counter-terrorism efforts. The efforts and focus of Congress led to significant growth for the United States Border Patrol.

### **Increased Border Security Focus and the Impact on the U.S. Border Patrol**

The training literature for federal law enforcement agencies is scarce and even thinner for the United States Border Patrol. Although scholarly literature for federal law enforcement training is unusual, the topic will assuredly rise with the significant increases of personnel declared by President Donald Trump (Department of Homeland Security, 2017). Although the scholarly literature on the United States Border Patrol is limited, in this section I review four areas that are applicable to this research study. First, I examine the rapid expansion of the agency in a short period of time and the ancillary effects of such growth. The agency grew significantly as its public visibility increased due to international media and national political focus on border security. Next, I provide a contextual understanding of the focus on border security. Third, I discuss the capabilities and challenges for the organizational growth. Lastly, I examine the organizational responses by the United States Border Patrol to manage the growth of law enforcement officers at the basic law enforcement academy.

### **Rapid Expansion of the U.S. Border Patrol**

The terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001 on the United States created and changed domestic security paradigms. New terms such as the homeland security enterprise and the Department of Homeland Security have become part of the American lexicon (Manjarrez, 2017; Longmire, 2014). Arguably, the most significant change is the establishment of the Department

of Homeland Security on March 1, 2003 (Chertoff, 2009; Mabee, 2007; Ordonez, 2008). The creation of the department is the largest reorganization of a U.S. government entity since the formation of the Department of Defense after World War II (Andreas, 2009; Customs and Border Protection, 2004). The department has over 200,000 employees with a fiscal year 2015 budget of nearly \$61 billion making it the third largest department in the United States government (Government Accountability Office, 2016). The impetus for the creation of the new department is homeland security across the various domestic security domains, but border security has been the central topic of the public discourse (Hastedt, 2005; Jones, 2011; Longmire, 2014; Mabee, 2007).

None of the terrorists involved in the attacks are known to have entered the United States illegally. Yet, the events of September 11, 2001 not only brought a renewed focus on the nation's borders, the attacks resulted in an ideological shift on how the borders would be viewed in the future (Alden, 2012; Manjarrez, 2015). The shift has connected the nation's borders to terrorism placing a heavier emphasis on border security. The hiring of a significant number of law enforcement personnel has been the centerpiece of the emphasis. One agency, the United States Border Patrol has been the recipient of the focus and additional personnel resources from Congress (Manjarrez, 2017). A consequence of the increased focus on terrorism and border security resulted in the passage of the Intelligence Reform and Terrorism Prevention Act of 2004 (IRTPA of 2004). The Act required the hiring of 10,000 Border Patrol Agents from 2007 through 2011 doubling the size of the agency (Customs and Border Protection, 2016; Intelligence Reform and Terrorism Prevention Act, 2004).

The growth of the United States Border Patrol is significant and in order to understand the magnitude of the expansion it is helpful to understand other police organizational growth. There

are two law enforcement entities who are often cited as the case studies for rapid growth in a very short time span (Bennett & Hess, 2004; Bumgarner, 2006; Chemerinsky, 2000; McCluskey & McCluskey, 2004; Williams, 2002). The Miami-Dade, Florida police department (MDPD) in the mid-1980s and the Los Angeles, California Police Department (LAPD) in the mid-1990s are the two most noted agencies with the greatest consequential affects due to quick growth. Both the MDPD and LAPD experienced significant growth approximately five years preceding a social and political demand. Between 1979 and 1983 the Miami police department hired over 600 police officers to address the growing needs of the city. In May of 1985 the newly hired police officers equated to 58% of the 1,040 sworn police officers of the Miami police department (Mahtesian, 1996; Sechrest & Burns, 1992). The second case of notable reference for rapid and significant police growth is the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD). Largely due as a response to civil disturbances, the Los Angeles city council enacted the Public Safety Plan in an effort to strengthen the police department (LAPD, 2000). The plan's main purpose was to increase the number of police officers by over 3,000 in a four-year period from 1992 thru 1996. The growth represented over a 40% increase of officers over the four-year period (LAPD, 2000; Skolnick, 2002).

As stated previously, the Miami and Los Angeles police departments are the most cited cases for rapid and significant growth. Although the two organizations provided insight into the importance of recruiting, training, and oversight, not much is known about federal law enforcement agencies in the same predicament. In addition, there is a paucity of research of the organizational socialization of police officers in these two agencies during the basic training academy. The Miami and Los Angeles police department's growth are significant (58% and 41% respectively), yet they do not match the magnitude of scale of the growth (100% growth) of the United States Border Patrol from 2007 through 2011. The rapid and significant growth of the

agency represents a unique case study not only in quick growth but an expansion of a federal law enforcement agency that is rarely the subject of scholarly inquiry.

### **Contextual Understanding**

Increasing the number of Border Patrol Agents coupled with high expectations by the public created an organizational environment that was faced with growing political demands and a public tension strongly divided on the issue of border security (Phelps et al., 2014). The political demands and public scrutiny for improved border security helped shape and form the organization's leadership decisions on how to train a large force in a short period of time (Graff, 2014; Longmire, 2014). The United States Border Patrol had long been an understaffed and underfunded agency that was suddenly at the forefront of the country's efforts to secure its borders after the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001 (Graff, 2014; Longmire, 2014). As a result, the agency soon developed a national strategy based on the acquisition of additional personnel, technology, and border infrastructure (Customs and Border Protection, 2004). Increasing the number of personnel became the focus of the agency's leadership and was considered essential to future border security efforts (Customs and Border Protection, 2004; Hernandez, 2010). The acquisition of resources became key as the agency's leadership measured the 'boots on the ground' or the number of Border Patrol Agents deployed as a measure of success (Graff, 2014; Seghetti, 2005). The quicker agents could be hired, trained, and deployed the better the performance metric for the agency (Hernandez, 2010).

For most of its history the United States Border Patrol considered itself small and nimble before becoming the largest uniformed federal law enforcement agency in the United States (Customs and Border Protection, 2004; Graff, 2014). The new size of the agency reduced its ability to be a quick reactionary entity (Graff, 2014), reducing it to a large lumbering agency. Prior

to 2001, public sentiment for border security remained a relatively low-maintenance and ostracized activity commanding little congressional attention (Andreas, 2009). In addition, the number of Border Patrol Agents (9,212) on duty in 2001 to patrol the nearly 7,000 miles of Mexican and Canadian border did not reflect an urgency in public scrutiny or policy (Alden, 2012; Customs and Border Protection, 2015; Longmire, 2014). The lack of attention resulted in few resources for over eighty years and impacted the agency's *sensemaking* as an organization (Andreas, 2009). In addition, Graff (2014) argues the agency always seemed to be understaffed, neglected, and largely forgotten by Congress and the American public. The dynamic ensured resources would be short resulting in a *circle the wagons* mentality as the resources were declining prior to the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 (Graff 2014; Phelps et al., 2014).

### **Organizational Growth Capabilities**

Prior to the creation of the Department of Homeland Security on March 1, 2003 the United States Border Patrol had a dysfunctional national organizational structure (Andreas, 2009; Graff, 2014). The agency had been divided into 20 sectors (geographical areas of operational responsibility) with each area reporting to a regional Immigration and Naturalization Service headquarters (Customs and Border Protection, 2004). There existed no direct link to the national United States Border Patrol Headquarters making the Chief, national leader, effectively a ceremonial position with a small staff and no national strategy in place (Graff, 2014). Not only did the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 usher in the creation of the Department of Homeland Security it also changed the organizational structure of the United States Border Patrol. The agency instituted a highly centralized organizational model with a direct chain of command from the field offices to a newly empowered Chief of the Border Patrol (Customs and Border Protection, 2004; Graff, 2014; Phelps et al., 2014). The organizational structure change went nearly unnoticed

outside the agency but proved to have a significant impact on the organization's identity, how it controlled resources, and began a transition from a small to a large agency (Graff, 2014; Hernandez, 2010; Longmire, 2014).

Mostly forgotten, the rapid expansion for the United States Border Patrol first began in 1994 (Andreas, 2009). An important tenet to securing Congressional approval for the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) in 1994 was the increased securitization of the nation's borders (Andreas, 2009; Mabee, 2007). Based on the policy actions of President William J. Clinton and the American Congress, increased border security would result in the growth of the United States Border Patrol (Andreas, 2009). The organization nearly doubled in size from 4,287 Border Patrol Agents to almost 8,000 agents from 1994 through 1998 (Government Accountability Office, 1999). Although the Government Accountability Office examined the organizational growth prior to the creation of the Department of Homeland Security, the study provides a contextual understanding of future growth. The agency's future growth would be anchored in post September 11, 2001 legislation that strengthened the link between border security and terrorism (Manjarrez, 2015). The *Intelligence Reform and Terrorism Prevention Act of 2004* (IRTPA of 2004) (Public Law 108-458, 118 Stat. 3638) has had the most significant impact to the institution of the United States Border Patrol (Mabee, 2007; Ordonez, 2008). The Act required increasing the size of the agency from 2007 through 2011 by no less than 10,000 Border Patrol Agents. The increase is significant because when the Act was passed the number of Border Patrol Agents on staff was 10,819 (Customs and Border Protection, 2016). Additionally, the new cycle of hiring would be conducted within 18 years of the last time the agency was legislated to double in size.

**Organizational capability challenges.** The U.S. Government Accountability Office pointed out, prior to the creation of DHS, many of the same organizational issues that would later

plague the United States Border Patrol (Government Accountability Office, 1999). In 1994 there were 4,287 Border Patrol Agents nationally and by 1998 the agency had grown to 7,982 agents (Customs and Border Protection, 2016). During the same time period, the number of agents with 2 years or less experience almost tripled agency wide, from 12 percent to 35 percent (Government Accountability Office, 1999). In contrast, the percentage of agents with five or more years of Border Patrol experience declined significantly, from 74 percent of all agents to 40 percent. As the average level of experience decreased, the number of agents per supervisor increased from an 8 agents to 1 supervisor ratio to a 12 to 1 ratio. In addition, the United States Border Patrol's annual attrition rate rose from 6 percent in 1990 to 12 percent in 1999 (Government Accountability Office, 1999; Nunez-Neto, 2005). As a result, as the agency was growing it was becoming more inexperienced and less supervised.

The Border Patrol Academy relies on both permanent and temporarily assigned instructors (Border Patrol Agents) to provide basic training (Nunez-Neto, 2005; Seghetti, 2005). As the number of trainee agents increased beginning in 1994, the Border Patrol Academy amplified its reliance on instructors from the pool of the most experienced agents (Government Accountability Office, 1999; Nunez-Neto, 2005; Seghetti, 2005). The increased utilization of the more experienced agents exacerbated the problem of having the least experienced agents performing a larger portion of field duties under less supervision (Graff, 2014). The increase in agents resulted in more agents patrolling the border, but the average experience levels declined agency-wide. The rapid expansion diluted the overall experience of the workforce. Nunez-Neto's (2005) study's central question: if the average experience of agents in the field is declining and the enhanced hiring practices are continuing, who will train these new agents? He found training officers with

significantly less experience compared to previous training officers. The combination of rapid growth and rising attrition resulted in an agency in a constant state of training and growth.

Graff (2014) and Haddal (2010) argue the challenge of training such a large growth of agents also extended to the field stations. The young and growing new force of agents resulted in large cumbersome shifts requiring significant supervisory oversight for a less experienced workforce. In addition, the supervisory capacity was exhausted with people promoted prematurely, as supervisors or trainers, as a result of the organizational growth (Government Accountability Office, 2007; 2011; Haddal, 2010). The growth and the additional resources created challenges beyond the experiences and capabilities of the supervisory cadre (Government Accountability Office, 2007; Haddal, 2010; Longmire, 2014). For example, the ratio of agents to supervisors became larger increasing the demands on each first-level supervisor. Supervisors had an increasingly difficult time providing the mentorship and guidance required by the new workforce while coping with the complexity that growth brought (Garoupa, 2007; Hernandez, 2010; Mendel, Fyfe & Heyer, 2016). In addition, the organization lacked the capacity to provide adequate and timely supervisor training. Supervisory training was two and half to three years behind the recommended schedule and was not considered adequate (Government Accountability Office, 2007; Graff, 2014; Haddal, 2010).

### **Organizational Responses – United States Border Patrol Training**

The Federal Law Enforcement Training Center (FLETC) provides federal law enforcement training for 90 agencies graduating approximately 45,000 students annually (Government Accountability Office, 2003). The list of agencies who receive new officers from FLETC include all law enforcement agencies from the Department of Justice, certain positions within the Department of Treasury, and other federal, state, local, and tribal entities. The United States

Border Patrol, up to October 1, 2007, had their new Border Patrol Agents trained by FLETC. The demands placed on FLETC and the Department of Homeland Security by the new security focused environment compelled the United States Border Patrol to seek the establishment of its own basic academy (Government Accountability Office, 2003; 2007b). The United States Border Patrol was able to institute its own basic academy with substantial autonomy in 2007 in order to accommodate the level of personnel being hired (Government Accountability Office, 2007b; Haddal, 2010). The drive to establish its own basic academy indicated a change in organizational sensemaking. Graff (2014) argues the agency no longer viewed itself as a small and often forgotten agency, but rather an agency large enough to have its own academy. The agency's leadership was now a key participant in border security discussions with representatives from the White House and congressional leaders (Graff, 2014; Mabee, 2007; Phelps et al., 2014).

Decisions on the academy and training were influenced by the idea the agency was receiving resources and national prestige at unprecedented rates (Andreas, 2009; Chertoff, 2009; Graff, 2014; Longmire, 2014). Locations such as the Tucson Sector Border Patrol were receiving, on a routine basis, powerful congressional delegations who controlled future resource allocations. The congressional delegations included dignitaries such as the U.S. Congressional Speaker of the House of Representatives and U.S. Senators (Graff, 2014; Haddal, 2010; Hastedt, 2005; Ordonez, 2008). The increased prestige and notoriety for the United States Border Patrol, due to the congressional visits, resulted in additional visits by other congressional leaders (Hastedt, 2005; Longmire, 2014; Mabee, 2007). The border visits by congressional leaders led to an increased focus on border security and increased resources to the United States Border Patrol. The additional resources allocated in subsequent legislation resulted in increases of personnel, technology, and border infrastructure (Chertoff, 2009; Haddal, 2010; Phelps et al., 2014).

The quick and significant increase of personnel presented challenges to the agency's organizational infrastructure (Government Accountability Office, 2007; 2011; Graff, 2014). Haddal (2010) contends changes to the basic academy were conducted in response to congressional concerns the new personnel could not be trained in the required time frame. Government Accountability Office report 07-997T (2007b) found the agency made two organizational decisions that would affect the length and type of training to be conducted. First, the United States Border Patrol's basic academy had been an 81-day program consisting of six subject areas: Spanish, law/operations, physical training, driving, firearms, and general training (Government Accountability Office, 2007a). In October 2007, the basic academy was reduced to 58 days. The reduction was a result of eliminating Spanish language training from the basic curriculum. Trainee agents were given the opportunity to 'test out' of the Spanish language program. Trainees who needed Spanish language training were required to attend a 40-day Spanish language training immersion program after the basic academy. Those who could 'test out' of the Spanish language training were sent to the field upon graduation. The curriculum change marked a change in the basic academy socialization process. The new curriculum was viewed by some as substandard and a mere 'short-cut' to train the 10,000 Border Patrol Agents (National Border Patrol Council, 2008).

The second organizational decision to alter the training program of new Border Patrol Agents was the conversion of post-academy classroom training to a computer based training program (Government Accountability Office, 2007a). The conversion was an effort to reduce the number of senior agents required to conduct the post-academy training for the new agents (Government Accountability Office, 2007a). The United States Border Patrol Post-Academy is an extension of the agency's basic training academy. New agents, after the academy, attended one

day a week for five and half months' refresher courses in the Spanish language, criminal, immigration, statutory, and naturalization law. Post-academy was an opportunity for the new agents to discuss and share their work experiences with their classmates once a week (Hernandez, 2010). In addition, to the refresher courses and shared experiences, post-academy training served as a coping mechanism for trainees struggling with field duties and the stress of working in a new geographical location. The training also served as a preparatory step for a Spanish and Law examination that occurred 10 months from the start of their basic academy training. A failing score in either portion of the examination results in the immediate termination of the employee. The alteration of the post-academy training also ended the process of immediate termination for failure of the examination (Government Accountability Office, 2007b; Graff, 2014; Hernandez, 2010). The organizational decisions impacted nearly 50 percent of the eventual United States Border Patrol workforce (Phelps et al., 2014).

The decision to alter the way the United States Border Patrol's basic academy is operated is viewed as the point that demarcates the *old patrol* and the *new patrol* (Government Accountability Office, 2007a; Graff, 2014; Haddal, 2010). The demarcation is a change in how the agency's members viewed the organization's commitment to its employees and caused tension and conflict (Graff, 2014; Haddal, 2010; Loveday, 2005; McLaughlin, Atherton, & Morrison, 2009; National Border Patrol Council, 2008). The changes to the basic academy and post-academy initially appeared to be a logical step towards training a large number of Border Patrol Agents in a short time period. However, Graff (2014) and Haddal (2010) argue the changes became a point of contention for an agency that had long prided itself for its 'esprit de corps'. The 'esprit de corps' had been built on agents having a shared organizational identity formed during basic and post-academy training (National Border Patrol Council, 2008). The more experienced agents, a

dwindling population, viewed the decisions as shortcuts in the training. The newly hired agents were perceived as not having to go through the same rigor as those previously, and were less skilled (Graff, 2014; Hernandez, 2010). Shane (2010) and later Lambruschini (2016) found divisions within an organization based on perceived culture differences become the responsibility of supervisors in formal and informal manners. Both studies indicate the organizational change resulted in supervisors viewing their job function differently compared prior to the change.

Although the change in the curriculum was viewed as a necessity to process the large number of Border Patrol Agents (Graff, 2014), the socialization of these new recruits was not considered. Border Patrol Agent recruits enter the basic academy, generally, as a cohort of 50 individuals and are intentionally placed in high stress environments (Hernandez, 2010; Paoline, 2003). The cohorts are divided into two sections, A and B, who march in sections to their classes, lunch, and other daily activities as a group. The symbolic and passage of rites are highly ceremonial and designed to promote team work and peer support. The academy instructors not only teach the formal curriculum but often reiterate and place a heavy emphasis on teamwork and helping classmates through the process (Haddal, 2010; Hernandez, 2010). The emphasis of teamwork and ‘esprit de corps’ continue throughout the academy. On graduation day from the academy those recruits who ‘test out’ of the Spanish language graduate and leave for their duty stations to start the field training portion phase of their training (Graff, 2014; National Border Patrol Council, 2008). Those who graduate the same portion of the academy but who do not ‘test out’ of the Spanish language must return their newly given badge and remain at the academy for additional language training. The organizational socialization process that once relied on the strength of the cohort is now divided, in order, to process more recruits through the academy.

## **Challenges and Gaps in the Literature**

The relationship between training and organizational socialization has seen increased research in the last four decades (Ashforth et al., 2007; Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). Research on organizational socialization has been approached in a manner that attempts to understand how newcomers learn the acceptable organizational behaviors and skills to assimilate into the organization (Ashforth et al., 2007; Morrison, 1993; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Taormina, 1997; Van Maanen, 1973; 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Not only do police officer recruits learn the acceptable organizational behaviors and skills, but they must learn how to be a policeman in a complicated series of rites of passage serving a fickle society (Birzer, 1999; Bennett, 1984; Conti, 2009; Hopper, 1977). The focus of previous research has been to determine long term job satisfaction predictors that evolve from the socialization process. In this particular review of the literature, the socialization process within basic police academies is the focus. Basic police academies present a unique perspective on organizational socialization processes due to the nature of the formal and informal frameworks (Bennett, 1984; Birzer, 1999; Conti, 2009; Hopper, 1977; Taormina, 1997; Van Maanen, 1973). The formal frameworks are in the form of curriculum and structure of basic police academies which generally do not significantly change over time. Police recruits proceed through a process their trainers went through and their trainers went through previously.

Two themes emerge that are clearly understudied: (1) the effects of organizational socialization when the formal training structures are significantly altered from previous organizational cohorts; and (2) how supervisors adapt to socialization changes in the organization. There is a notable absence of research on the organizational socialization of individuals who are progressing through a basic police academy that has significantly been changed. Research on

organizational socialization in police work is typically based on the learning of organizational norms and behaviors. Based on the abundance of the literature, previous work looks how the socialization process affects long-term job satisfaction (Ingram & Lee, 2015; Johnson, 2012; Karp & Stenmark, 2011; Morrison, 2003; Paoline, 2003; Tannenbaum et al., 1991; Van Maanen, 1975; Violanti, 1993). Yet, all the previous work has been focused on state and local law enforcement agencies. There has been no scholarly work conducted on organizational change within a large federal law enforcement agency. Literature regarding federal law enforcement training is scarce and, in the most part, limited to U.S. Government Accountability Office reports or to Congressional Research Service reports. Although various U.S. Government Accountability Office studies examine training for the Department of Homeland Security, the studies do not mention or reflect any work concerning organizational socialization at the basic training academy. The United States Border Patrol experienced a significant alteration in its initial organizational socialization process during a complex and chaotic period in its history. The alteration to the basic training academy structure caused a change in the organizational socialization of new recruits pitting them against the “old patrol.” Understanding the difference between the organizational socialization of the “old patrol” versus those termed the “new patrol” may provide valuable insight into the lessons learned for potential future growth.

Typically, research on organizational socialization in basic police academies is conducted on long established processes that have not changed significantly over time (Conti, 2009; Haberfield, 2002). The long established processes have provided incumbent trainers a sense of context because they are familiar with the processes and expected outcomes. The familiarity with the processes and outcomes have resulted in shared experiences across sequential training classes. Resulting in increasing the ‘esprit de corps’ of individuals who have previously gone through the

process and those who are currently going through the process of the academy (Conti, 2009). The United States Border Patrol has long held ‘esprit de corps’ or camaraderie as a core pillar for its success. Although organizational socialization of new recruits is viewed as important for the long-term success of the organization, the socialization process of supervisors is not well studied (Ingram 2013; Skogan, 2008; Van Maanen, 1984). Engel (2001) further argues despite the recognition of the importance of first-level supervisors there is a lack of theoretical development on how they interpret their experiences and adapt to perform their job role.

The United States Border Patrol is the largest uniformed federal law enforcement agency in the United States (Government Accountability Office, 2007a; Longmire, 2014) and is the focus of current plans to grow another 25% to 30% in the next four years. The agency presents an opportunity to understand the impacts of significant change not only in a large law enforcement agency but to a federal agency potentially resulting in a meaningful contribution to the literature. In a current political environment that is focusing on border security efforts with potential large scale growth of at least two federal law enforcement agencies (Executive Order No. 13768, 2017) further research is needed on the consequences of such growth.

### **Summary**

The purpose of this review was to understand organizational socialization in law enforcement training in a homeland security enterprise context. The homeland security enterprise is comprised of federal, state, local, and tribal entities that serve in a first responder capacity or provide a day-to-day function in homeland security. Training is increasingly regarded as an important component to the homeland security enterprise due to the growing complexity of transnational criminal organizations. The evidence has indicated training has not kept pace with the threats that the United States now faces (Feemster, 2010; Ganor, 2002; Henry, 2002). The

scope of law enforcement's responsibilities has expanded requiring more and improved training. Several themes emerge in the literature review of law enforcement training that are common across state and local law enforcement entities. Themes of organizational socialization (formal and informal training processes) and supervisory influences in law enforcement in state and local law enforcement are dominant. Research is less clear on these same topics for federal law enforcement agencies, in particular the United States Border Patrol. Further research into these topics in the context of the United States Border Patrol begins to fulfill a knowledge gap.

### **Chapter 3: Methodology**

Although the United States Border Patrol's formal basic academy training program was altered, not much is known about the change. In addition, the changes to the formal training program led to alterations in the informal organizational socialization process. Little is known about the experiences or adaptations, if any, made by supervisors as a result of the change. The purpose of this study was to understand how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process changes. I describe how I achieved this purpose in four distinct phases. First, I provide a methodological overview of this research study. Next, I describe the reasoning for the selection of the study setting and criteria for selecting the study participants. Third, I outline the data sources and data collection methods for this study. Finally, I delineate the specific measures that were utilized for analyzing the data collected for this study to ensure the validity of the research.

#### **Methodological Overview**

Qualitative methods were used in this study to understand the experiences of Border Patrol supervisors who were required to supervise a workforce that experienced a significantly different initial socialization process. With the significant growth of the agency from 2007 through 2011, it is important to understand how and if supervisors adapted to a large portion of the workforce that experienced a significant alteration to the initial organization socialization process. Data collected was grounded in the views and experiences of the supervisors as they made sense of their interactions and observations with those they supervise. The data collected was used to formulate concepts and theories on how the meanings from the experiences were constructed in order to interpret these meanings (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007; Charmaz, 2008; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Understanding the meanings may inform theoretical perspectives and practical advancement of workforce development as the United States Border Patrol looks to expand once again.

In this research study, qualitative methods were the best choice because the variables were not all known and there was a need to explore the experiences of the supervisors (Charmaz, 2008; Creswell, 2014; Breckenridge, Jones, Elliott & Nicol, 2012). Qualitative methods allowed the researcher to listen to the participants without restrictions by a predetermined list of groups for analysis. The openness of the approach permitted the researcher to study the research problem in depth and detail, which promoted deep and contextual understanding of the data (Breckenridge et al., 2012; Charmaz, 2000, 2008; Creswell, 2009; Patton, 1990). In this research study, the use of Grounded Theory was applicable because the approach is useful for addressing questions about changing processes that occur over time (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007; Bryman & Burgess, 1994; Charmaz, 2000; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Charmaz (2000) argues Grounded Theory fosters the identification of connections and links between events. The aim is to build a theory that is substantive in order to develop a theory that is useful to practice. Alemu, Stevens, Ross, and Chandler (2015) argue the methodology is fitting for research areas that have little or no well-developed theories.

### **Constructivist Inquiry**

The very nature of discerning how multiple participants of a study construct meaning and knowledge situated this study within a constructivism paradigm. Constructivist research seeks to understand the multiple layers of individual experiences through their experiences (Guba & Lincoln, 2000; Schwandt, 2000). A core assumption of constructivism is the notion that reality varies between individuals, yet there are commonalities expressed by different people exposed to the same experiences (Charmaz, 2008; Nagel, Burns, Tilley & Aubin, 2015). In a constructivism

paradigm individuals do not find knowledge they construct it through interactions (Creswell, 2009). The paradigm recognizes the complexity of having multiple meanings and realities were no one single meaning or reality ‘fits’ all individuals. Attempting to fully generalize within the constructivism paradigm ignores the uniqueness that exist with how individuals make sense of their social interaction and construction of knowledge (Breckenridge et al., 2012; Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993; Nagel et al., 2015). Although a constructivist inquiry can be viewed as a snapshot in time of emergent issues, the analysis, examination, repetition, and reanalysis of the participant experiences leads to a construction of meanings (Schwandt, 2000). The meanings can be evaluated for comparison purposes by the way it fits with the information, and how the constructed meanings provide a reliable level of understanding. A framework utilizing the perspectives and methods of Constructivist Grounded Theory (Charmaz, 2000) was developed placing this research study methodology well within the qualitative research literature.

### **Constructivist Grounded Theory**

Grounded Theory is a general methodology for developing analytical interpretations of the data. A constructivist perspective is drawn from Straus and Corbin’s (1998) concept of Grounded Theory where theory is derived from the data gathered and analyzed (Charmaz, 2000). The constructivist design, as in Grounded Theory, focuses on the meaning attributed by the study participants. The approach seeks to define qualified statements that interpret how the study participants construct their realities. An acknowledgment of the researcher’s role in collection and analysis is a significant stipulation in a constructivist study (Charmaz, 2000; Creswell, 2012; Nagel et al., 2015; Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006). The constructivist approach recognizes the interactive nature of both data collection and analysis. In this type of approach, both the researcher and participants co-construct meaning during data collection and analysis (Alemu et al., 2015;

Charmaz, 2000, 2008; Nagel et al., 2015). Constructivist Grounded Theory acknowledges the representation of facts and the conclusions about them are understandings of both the research study participant and the researcher (Colker, 2008). Co-construction of meaning is an accepted tenant in Constructivist Grounded Theory as proposed by Charmaz (2000).

Charmaz (2000) offers a constructivist approach to Grounded Theory as a theoretical medium between the traditional Grounded Theory positivist stances and postmodernism (Glasser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In regard to data gathering, Charmaz (2000) argues the importance of establishing a relationship with individuals interviewed in order to demonstrate respect and understanding. Developing both respect and understanding permits the researcher to identify with and view the world from the research study volunteer's perspective. An understanding of the participant's views is important when using methods that rely on interpretation (Colker, 2008). Constructivist Grounded Theory accepts the belief of multiple social realities and the co-creation of knowledge by the researcher and the study participants (Williams, 2006).

As a result of the co-creation of knowledge, the researcher is part of what is viewed or studied rather than separate from it (Charmaz, 2000). The fundamental aim in Constructivist Grounded Theory is not to explain a singular reality, but rather ask, what people believe is real or how do they construct their view of reality (Charmaz, 2000; Colker, 2008). A Constructivist Grounded Theory approach places emphasis on prompting interviewee's definitions of terms, situations, events, assumptions, and implicit meanings (Colker, 2008). This approach stresses process and meaning pragmatically accepting a variety of concepts from other perspectives (Alemu et al., 2015; Mills et al., 2006; Williams, 2000). The concurrent collection of data from multiple sources such as conversations, formal interviews, public organizational reports, and the

reflections of both the study participants and researcher contributed to the richness of this research project's data.

### **Constructivist Grounded Theory and Supervision Research**

Constructivist Grounded Theory is an appropriate approach to examine leadership and supervision dynamics (Colker, 2008; Darling & Beebe, 2007; Parry, 1998; Popper, 2002; Roberts, 2002; Ropo, Pariainen, & Koivunen, 2002). In this case, the terms leadership and supervision are used interchangeably with the primary concepts defined as overseeing and managing employees in the workplace. Colker (2008) describes characteristics of leadership as a social process. First, the experiences, views, behaviors, and motives of leaders and followers change over time. Next, an overlap of a range of variables implicitly influence the social process. Finally, supervision invariably involves human interaction between those being supervised and those who are supervising. The interactions are framed by previous experiences and expectations. Colker (2008) argues the concepts support viewing an organization as a social process made up of a continuous set of social interactions. Constructivist Grounded Theory can help to understand the social interactions of supervisors by better understanding the experiences, beliefs, and values of these supervisors.

Ropo et al. (2002) contend the social process of leadership sets the framework for socialization in leadership. The formal and informal frameworks of the social process often result in tensions that supervisors must navigate when they supervise their organizational units. Hunt and Ropo (1995) use a Constructivist Grounded Theory to examine aspects of multi-level supervisor experiences and formal/informal social processes in their case study of General Motors. The study examines a change in the initial socialization process for non-supervisory factory floor workers at General Motors. The organization had overhauled several factories that had constructed

automobiles in the same assembly line manner since the 1930's. Constructivist Grounded Theory was used to examine leadership experiences. Constructivist Grounded Theory studies by Kan and Parry (2004), Lambruschini (2016), and Roberts (2002) highlighted the significance of viewing study participants as partners in the research. The studies thematically examined the tension and challenges of overcoming resentment to change in the aerospace industry, manufacturing, and the Department of Defense. In addition, the studies stress close working relationships between participants of the study and the researcher. Kan and Parry (2004) suggest the relationship is an important consideration in building grounded theory in order to ensure suitability, significance, and applicability of the theory.

### **Setting**

The setting of the research study was five U.S. Border Patrol sectors along the southern border of the United States, three U.S. Border Patrol sectors along the northern border of the United States, and the U.S. Border Patrol Academy and Headquarters. Although supervisors from coastal sectors had the opportunity to participate, none elected to do so. Supervisors from coastal sectors account for less than 1% of the supervisor pool (Customs and Border Protection, 2016). A 'sector' is a large geographical region defined by the United States Border Patrol as delineating border security responsibilities along the northern and southern borders of the United States as well coastal waterways (Customs and Border Protection, 2017). The United States Border Patrol has twenty sectors that encompass the northern, southern, and coastal borders of the United States. There are nine sectors along the southern border, eight along the northern border, and three classified as coastal. A sector may have between four to fourteen Border Patrol stations within its geographic responsibilities. A Border Patrol station typically has three shifts that span the 24 hours of the day (Rojek, Manjarrez, Wolfe, & Rojek, 2017). There are a few exceptions that a station

along the southwest border of the United States will have less than three shifts in a 24-hour time span. Along the northern border of the United States it is more common to have less than three shifts in a 24-hour time span, in large part, due to lower personnel staffing levels.

### **Participant Selection**

The United States Border Patrol has two different type of supervisors in a Border Patrol Sector. One is the supervisor, who is a non-Border Patrol Agent, responsible for other non-Border Patrol Agents that perform non-law enforcement duties. The supervisor nor the personnel assigned to this supervisor are required to attend the basic Border Patrol training academy. A few examples of positions that perform non-law enforcement duties are vehicle mechanics, maintenance personnel, dispatchers, human resources personnel, and other administrative staff. The second, and the focus of this research study, are supervisors who are Border Patrol Agents and who are required to successfully complete the basic Border Patrol training academy. These supervisors have the same legal authorities for arrest, search, and seizure as the Border Patrol Agents they supervise. Table 3.1 depicts the nine levels of supervision in a Border Patrol sector. The level one supervisor (Supervisory Border Patrol Agent) is the nearest to the non-supervisory Border Patrol Agent and lowest ranking supervisor of the nine levels. The level nine supervisor (Chief Patrol Agent) is the highest ranking and the furthest away from the day-to-day contact with the non-supervisory Border Patrol Agent. The incremental increases in supervisor levels reflect a higher organizational ranking and a decrease in contact with the non-supervisory Border Patrol Agent.

Table 3.1 Nine Levels of Border Patrol Agent Supervision in a Border Patrol Sector

Level	Title	Title Acronym
First Level of Supervision	Supervisory Border Patrol Agent	SBPA
Second Level of Supervision	Special Operations Supervisor	SOS
Third Level of Supervision	Watch Commander	WC
Fourth Level of Supervision	Deputy Patrol Agent in Charge	DPAIC
Fifth Level of Supervision	Patrol Agent in Charge	PAIC
Sixth Level of Supervision	Assistant Chief Patrol Agent	ACPA
Seventh Level of Supervision	Division Chief	DC
Eighth Level of Supervision	Deputy Chief Patrol Agent	DCPA
Ninth Level of Supervision	Chief Patrol Agent	CPA

Source: Customs and Border Protection (2016)

### Recruiting Study Volunteers/Interviewees

The recruitment of research study volunteers was conducted in three separate and distinct phases. Phase I is categorized as the general solicitation for research study volunteers. The selection of the research study participants was a purposive sampling (Coyne, 1997; Mills et al., 2006; Mugo, 2002; Suri, 2011) that aimed to select individuals that displayed variation of the phenomena researched. The goal was to ensure multiple levels of supervision were represented as well as a diversity of demographics. The diversity of demographics was important so the experiences of supervisors could be better understood in a detailed context (Alemu et al., 2015; Mosak & Di Pietro, 2006; Suri, 2011). Additionally, it was deliberate to attain a similar ratio of general characteristics (age, gender, race, educational level, length of service) of the general United

States Border Patrol supervisor workforce. The solicitation was aimed at all nine levels of supervisors who were supervisors at any level on or after October 1, 2007.

The first phase began by contacting the Executive Director of the Border Patrol Supervisors' Association and informing him of the nature of the research study and the need to interview volunteer research participants. The Border Patrol Supervisors' Association is not a United States Government organization, but rather an association comprised exclusively of Border Patrol supervisors from the first level of supervision to the ninth level of supervision. The association is autonomous from the United States Border Patrol organization, thus has its own policies and procedures. The association is comprised of over 500 members of the approximately 2,500 potential Border Patrol supervisors of the United States Border Patrol from around the nation (Customs and Border Protection, 2016). The Executive Director prepared an association letter (Appendix A) agreeing to place a letter of solicitation for research study volunteers within the association's website ([www.bpsups.org](http://www.bpsups.org)).

The Executive Director assisted in soliciting research study volunteers by placing a solicitation for volunteers (Appendix B) prepared by me in the "Forum" section of the Border Patrol Supervisors' Association website. The Executive Director placed the solicitation for research volunteers on November 6, 2017 and removed it on my request on December 28, 2017. The "Forum" section of the website is only open to members of the association. The criteria for selecting the Border Patrol Supervisors' Association for this research study included: a) the association includes members who are current Border Patrol supervisors; b) the association members are from multi-layers of supervision; c) the researcher's accessibility to the Executive Director of the association.

The second phase of the recruitment for volunteers is characterized as those supervisors who were interested in participating in the research study. Those supervisors who were interested in participating in the study ‘clicked’ on the *Supervisory Background Questionnaire* (Appendix C) link to a consent form. Once the participant agreed to participate in the study they were provided access to complete a short sixteen-question survey. The aim of this phase was to have interested research study volunteers complete the *Supervisory Background Questionnaire* to have a greater understanding of the range of diversity of the potential volunteers. This phase of the recruitment strategy resulted in 48 individual surveys completed. Of the 48 surveys completed 34 individuals initially agreed to participate in a semi-structured interview.

The final phase for the recruitment of volunteers consisted of contacting the research study volunteers who agreed to participate in the semi-structured interview. Of the 34 semi-structured interview volunteers, two participants eventually declined. All 32 research study participant volunteers were selected because they ensured supervisory diversity such as site location, age, supervisory experience, supervisory rank, academy experiences, race, and gender. The semi-structured interview participants came from southern and northern border sectors, the Border Patrol Academy, and Border Patrol headquarters. Study participants are assigned to the following southern border sectors: San Diego, El Centro, Tucson, El Paso, Del Rio, and Rio Grande Valley. The northern border participants are from Detroit, Buffalo, and Swanton sectors. Research participants encompassed seven of the nine levels of supervision with the exception of the first level of supervision (Supervisory Border Patrol Agent) and the second level of supervision (Special Operations Supervisor). Both levels of supervision were included in the solicitation for research volunteers and would have had the same opportunity to participate. Collectively the group of supervisors averaged 18 years of supervisory experience in the United States Border

Patrol, and represented seven of the nine levels of supervision within the organization. The semi-structured interview participants have the supervisory profiles to inform the research study question. Table 3.2 provides the supervisory levels of participation in the study. Given the sample size of the research study participants and the need for anonymity, the levels of supervisors involved with the semi-structured interview are condensed.

Table 3.2 Supervisors Participating in the Semi-Structured Interview

Level	Title	Title Acronym	Number of Supervisors (n=32)	Percentage
First Level of Supervision	Supervisory Border Patrol Agent	SBPA	0	0%
Second Level of Supervision	Special Operations Supervisor	SOS	0	0%
Third Level of Supervision	Watch Commander	WC	3	9%
Fourth Level of Supervision	Deputy Patrol Agent in Charge	DPAIC	13	41%
Fifth Level of Supervision	Patrol Agent in Charge	PAIC		
Sixth Level of Supervision	Assistant Chief Patrol Agent	ACPA	9	28%
Seventh Level of Supervision	Division Chief	DC		
Eighth Level of Supervision	Deputy Chief Patrol Agent	DCPA	7	22%
Ninth Level of Supervision	Chief Patrol Agent	CPA		

**Informed consent and assurances of confidentiality.** After a prospective research study participant read the solicitation for study volunteers and was willing to volunteer for the study, they would ‘click’ on a link found in the solicitation message which would take them to the

informed consent form. Upon agreeing to participate, the *Supervisor Background Questionnaire* was provided to the research study volunteer as subsequent questions. In addition, the study participants were informed of the project description, confidentiality notice, benefits and known risks in participating in this research project. Anonymity of the research study participants is maintained in the following manner: Data collected from both the *Supervisor Background Questionnaire* and the *Semi-Structured Interview* are reported in aggregate form with no identities revealed. I used pseudonyms during coding and in the final report to ensure confidentiality. The signed consent forms are locked in a locked filing cabinet away from any U.S. government entity. Additionally, the digital audio files have been kept in an external hard drive that is password protected and in a locked file cabinet within a locked office. After 60 days of the conclusion of a successful dissertation defense, the audio files will be destroyed.

### **Instrumentation**

The research study employed a dual method strategy for data collection encompassing: (a) background information collected through the *Supervisor Background Questionnaire*; and (b) *Semi-Structured Interviews* with the study participants. Utilizing a semi-structured interview format to elicit memories, reflections, and experiences from supervisors is an effective constructivist grounded theory approach (Conger & Toegel, 2002; Locke, 2003; Parry, 1998; Popper, 2002). The methods capture supervisor background information that provides contextual information to the perspectives of supervisors who participated in the semi-structured interview. The goal was to understand how United States Border Patrol supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process changes significantly.

## **Supervisor Background Questionnaire**

*The Supervisor Background Questionnaire* was designed on the strength of the work of Lambruschini (2016), Colker (2008) and Rojek et al. (2017). The questionnaire was comprised of 16 questions and took approximately five to six minutes to complete. The *Supervisor Background Questionnaire* represented the first phase of data collection for the research study and was intended to collect demographic information on the pool of research study volunteers. The questionnaire aided in determining age groups, gender, ethnicity, length of experience as a United States Border Patrol supervisor, United States Border Patrol Academy attendance (location), experience as an Academy instructor, and placement of the individual in a Spanish Language group while as a recruit. The motive was to obtain an accurate reflection (Mosak & Di Pietro, 2006) of the general United States Border Patrol supervisor workforce who were at least a first level supervisor on October 1, 2007. The categories in the questionnaire are grouped in such a manner that the data is indistinguishable to specific individuals. The questionnaire was focused on obtaining contextual information on the pool of the semi-structured interview participants. A total of 48 research study volunteers participated in this phase of the study. At the end of the *Supervisor Background Questionnaire*, study participants were asked to participate in a 60-minute semi-structured interview. If the participant elected to participate in the semi-structured interview they were asked to provide contact information (name and email or telephone number) so that an interview date and time could be scheduled. The contact information was in essence a ‘referral system’ for the researcher to schedule the interview and is disconnected from the data analysis.

## **Semi-Structured Interviews with Supervisors**

I explored four primary areas of focus during the course of each interview: general basic Border Patrol academy experiences, purpose (formal/informal) of the basic academy; personal

perspective of the basic academy curriculum change that occurred on October 1, 2007; and how supervisors adapted in their role as supervisors due to the change at the basic academy. To understand how supervisors adapted in their supervisory roles it is important to comprehend supervisor's experiences, beliefs, attitudes, and values through recollections, stories, and basic academy events (Parry, 1998; Popper, 2002). Asking supervisors questions about their experiences (Charmaz, 2006) in relation to the way they adapted in their supervisory roles is a central tenant of the grounded theory approach. The aim was to understand the supervisor's basic academy experiences and expectations and in subsequent coding, derive a process that may contribute to a theory of how supervisors adapt in their role. Understanding beliefs and values intricately connected to personal experiences (Goodwin, 2010; Trojanowicz, 1980) may explain how supervisors react to and view a change in an organizational socialization process.

In order to improve the semi-structured interview guide a pilot study was conducted. The pilot study sample consisted of four supervisors who represented the fourth, fifth, sixth, and ninth level of supervisors in the United States Border Patrol. The supervisors interacted regularly with all nine levels of supervision and were supervisors on October 1, 2007. The pilot study participants were informed of the aim of the research study and the research question of determining how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process has changed. All four supervisors were interviewed utilizing the initial semi-structured interview guide. Each interview was digitally recorded and transcribed. Each transcribed interview was provided to the applicable participant for approval and the opportunity to provide feedback. After each interview, the pilot study participants were verbally asked for feedback about the interview questions. All four pilot study participants agreed the transcribed interviews accurately captured their interview content. Overall, the participants expressed a comfort with the interview process

and flow of the interview. Additionally, the participants agreed the semi-structured interview guide contained relevant and applicable questions as it relates to the central research question of this study. The pilot study participants suggested shortening two of the questions and combining two others. The semi-structured interview guide and process was adjusted based on the feedback received. I did not attempt to compare the pilot study group with the pool of supervisors participating in the research study. Figure 3.1 depicts how the semi-structured interview guide was developed.

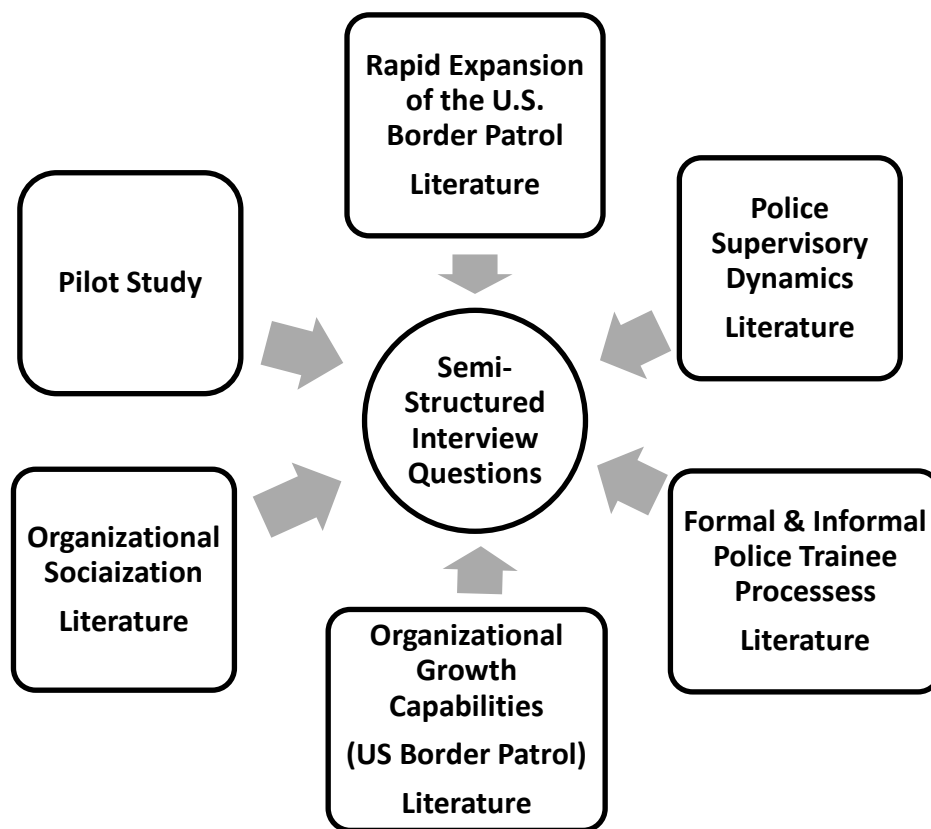


Figure 3.1 Development of the Semi-Structured Interview Questions

The *Semi-Structured Interview Guide* (Appendix E) was developed as a guide to stimulate supervisor's reflections, views, and experiences in regards to the impact on their job role due to the change in the initial organizational socialization process. The questionnaire consisted of 14 questions with 11 sub-questions or follow-up type questions. As I expected, during the interview

process I did not always ask all the questions listed in the *Semi-Structured Interview* guide to ask further probing and clarification questions (Starks & Brown-Trinidad, 2007). To develop an in-depth understanding of the supervisory experiences general and open-ended questions were used for data collection. The goal was to understand the experiences of the supervisors and to explore, through subsequent coding, the basic social processes and adaptations supervisors made because of the basic academy change.

At the start of each interview, I reviewed the project description and consent to participate in the research study with the research study volunteer. The semi-structured interviews were conducted both telephonically and in-person to accommodate the geographical diversity of the research study volunteers. The structure utilized in both the telephonic and in-person interviews were the same. The only difference between the two formats was a loss of visual cues, but the data quality and richness did not appear to vary. Colker (2008) argues both formats are acceptable if the data quality does not vary significantly. Twenty-six of the interviews were conducted telephonically and 6 were conducted one-on-one with the researcher. All interviews were audio recorded with the study volunteer's permission, and each interview was between 40 to 55 minutes to complete. At the conclusion of each semi-structured interview, I informed each research study participant they would receive their transcribed interview to ensure their perspective was portrayed accurately; to add further input, make corrections, and add additional clarifying information to their statements. All 32 semi-structured interview participants received their transcribed interviews and four of those research study participants chose to make minor grammatical revisions to their statements. This step in the process also served as a validation element (Creswell, 2014) of the data and is known as a member checking. Member checking is a process by which

the researcher takes back the individual transcripts to the participants to determine if the participants feel they are accurate depictions.

### **Data Analysis Procedures**

Merriam and Tisdell (2016) state the practice of making sense out of information collected is data analysis. Making sense of the data takes several forms but the fundamental elements involve consolidating, reducing, and interpreting participant's statements and the researcher's aural and visual observations (Charmaz, 2000; Creswell, 2009; Guba & Lincoln, 2000; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Data analysis in qualitative research is built from the 'bottom-up' where the researcher deciphers and organizes patterns, and categories into increasingly larger units of information (Creswell, 2009). In this case, the purpose of this inquiry is to understand how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process has changed. From the data, the researcher sought to inductively: (1) derive a process of identifying factors that shape the process of supervising others; and (2) identify how the change in the basic academy organizational socialization process impacted how the participants adapted in their role. The answers to these questions formed categories or themes (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

The line-by-line coding technique was used to conduct open, axial, and selective coding which are procedures that are systematically used for developing grounded theory (Alemu et al., 2015; Breckenridge et al., 2012; Charmaz, 2000; Glaser, 1978; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Information collected from each participant interview was inputted into the Atlas.ti qualitative data analysis program (version 8). As data was reviewed, line-by-line sections of text were highlighted and coded. The codes chosen were selected to best reflect the research study participant's emphasis in the text. A single research study participant could have multiple

references to a single code during the same interview, which could reflect a high level of emphasis indicating importance. Throughout the analytical process, analytical interpretations were made of the data to refine categories and themes. Subsequent data collection sessions were planned and informed according to previous observations and interviews (Bogdan & Biklen, 2011; Charmaz, 2000, 2008).

As the study progressed, I used my reflections of previous interviews and a reflexive journal to help shape further data collection efforts (Bogdan & 2011; Charmaz, 2000; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). A reflective journal was maintained to record the researcher's thoughts, decisions, and insights relating to the research project. Typical notes in the reflexive journal included points of emphasis by research study participants, potential follow-up questions for other interviews, and interview environment (an easiness in tone and casualness of responses). As part of the coding process, action codes were developed and reviewed using the constant comparative methodology of grounded theory proposed by Charmaz (2000). The constant comparative method compares different participant perspectives, situations, events, and experiences. In addition, the participant's data were compared within categories and category to category in order to develop the building blocks of the theme (Charmaz, 2000; Bryant & Charmaz, 2007).

The first step in the data analysis was to organize and prepare the data for analysis (Creswell, 2009). This step is categorized as the reviewing of field notes, transcription of participant interviews, and arranging the data into various categories depending on the source of information. Next, I read through the transcribed data before the detailed analysis began to get a general sense of the information. The data is approximately 1,300 audio minutes of transcribed semi-structured interviews. The step was important because it was used to reflect on the overall meaning of the data to discern what the participants were saying, and to gain a greater

understanding of the overall depth and credibility of the information collected. The third step of the data analysis was open coding which is generally the initial step for category construction (Alemu et al., 2015; Charmaz, 2000; Nagel et al., 2015; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). As the transcripts were coded, comments about the more complex codes were added to capture ideas about the data analysis process. The purpose of open coding was to identify and organize materials into ‘chunks’ of text before assigning meaning to the information. This step in the process resulted in 613 open codes. The bulk of this work was sorting the information into general categories while identifying the general properties and dimensions of the concepts (Creswell, 2009). Data was examined line-by-line with particular attention to comparing similarities and differences. Line-by-line coding aided me to remain attuned to the research study participant’s views of reality and helped sensitized concepts (Charmaz, 2000). Sensitizing concepts, as described by Charmaz (2000), are the contextual frameworks that inform the research problem by providing a manner of seeing, organizing, and understanding the participant’s experiences.

Next, axial (group) coding followed the open coding as a manner to reassemble the ‘chunks’ of data that were reduced into categories during the open coding process. This phase of the coding was conducted three times. The first round of axial coding resulted in 98 groups of data. The second iteration of axial coding resulted in 31 distinct groups. The process was repeated again in order to achieve a greater fidelity and understanding of the information. The third iteration of axial coding resulted in 12 distinct group of codes. The aim of this step was to “...make connections between a category and its subcategories...” (Charmaz, 2000, p. 516) in order to shape and form a category. During this phase, supervisory experiences or constructs were connected to categories and sub-categories forming core themes. The axial coding of the data revealed new constructs and were utilized to answer questions about the supervisor’s experiences. The new

constructs required the researcher to reanalyze the data collected to identify causal conditions and intervening influences (Creswell, 2014). The categories that emerged from the axial coding process were utilized to provide further in-depth explanations and thick descriptions of the phenomenon studied (Breckenridge et al., 2012; Mills et al., 2006; Williams, 2006). As a result of the axial coding process and the information learned, the coding paradigm was better informed to interpret and reflect on meaning. Lastly, categories and sub-categories identified and formed during axial coding were organized through thematic relationships.

The final step of the data analysis process was selective coding (theoretical coding) which is the process of refining and integrating categories with more precision (Charmaz, 2000). Explaining and interpreting the data was derived from selective coding of the data. During selective coding, core constructs were organized around central concepts that represented main themes. Charmaz (2000) and Glaser (1978) contend selective coding is more abstract than line-by-line coding and begins the process of developing theory of the process studied. I also related the participant's perspectives to central tenets that emerged from the data utilizing various techniques such diagrams and memos (project journals and descriptive memos) written during the data collection and analytical steps. During this phase of the analysis four core constructs emerged around the central question of this research study. In addition, three constructs emerged as factors that influence how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors.

Data collection for the research study resulted in a large number of documents in the form of interview transcripts and research memos (reflexive journal). As a result of the large amount of data collected, data management was a key component of this study. Merriam & Tisdell, (2016) outline three sequential phases of data management as data preparation, data identification, and data manipulation. Data preparation is simply the typing of notes and the transcription of

interviews. Data identification is the assignment of codes for segments of interviews, field-notes, documents, memos, etc. while data manipulation is the process of searching, sorting, re-organizing, and retrieving the segmented codes. As stated previously, I utilized the Atlas.ti qualitative data analysis software tool as part of my data management plan. The purpose of using the software was largely for efficiency purposes (Alemu et al., 2015).

### **Trustworthiness**

Since qualitative research is grounded on assumptions about reality the ‘truth’ or ‘reality’ of the research findings are often challenged on the basis of reliability and generalizability (Alemu et al., 2015; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Maxwell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Mills et al., 2006; Patton, 2015). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) argue the validity of the findings should be based on the research design of what is being investigated and what answers are sought. If an understanding is being sought, as opposed to causality of events, the criteria for trusting the study results are going to be different from a study that relies on experimental approaches. Maxwell (2013) and Merriam and Tisdell (2016) contend a research study is not scientific or rigorous simply because the strategy of inquiry is merely quantitative or qualitative, but rather the design of the study utilizes procedures that are well developed and accepted by the scientific community. In fact, Wolcott (2003) stresses reliability is an inappropriate and unrealistic expectation when human behavior is being studied. Lincoln and Guba (1985) postulate reliability in qualitative research is really about dependability and consistency. The goal is not to replicate the research findings, but to ensure the results are consistent with the data collected.

In order to ensure dependability and consistency of my research findings I employed five strategies. First, my continuous engagement with the research study participants resulted in both data saturation and data supporting alternative explanations (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 2015).

The high level of sustained engagement with data collection and interpretation allowed for an iterative examination of data and an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon studied (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Second, a reflexive journal was maintained. A reflexive journal is a core characteristic of good qualitative research that provides the reader an insight to the bias, dispositions, and interpretations of the researcher (Creswell, 2009; Probst & Berenson, 2014).

In order to address dependability and consistency, triangulation was the third strategy utilized (Denzin, 1978; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Triangulation, from a constructivist approach, is a core strategy to ensure validity and reliability (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Triangulation is the process of using multiple data sources or to compare and cross-check data collected against at least one other source in order to increase the credibility or internal validity of the research (Denzin, 1978; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I collected both interview and observational/aural data (reflexive journal). In qualitative research an inseparable relationship exists between data collection and data analysis highlighted by the fact the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). To address distortions that could arise from the relationship, I utilized a constant comparative method of breaking down the data and assigning categories for analysis (Charmaz, 1983, 2000; Glaser, 1978; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Member checking was the fifth strategy employed on the overall approach to establish the dependability and consistency of the research. Member checking is the process of the researcher going back to the study participants and asking them if the researcher's interpretation of what was learned is accurate (Creswell, 2009, 2014; Maxwell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The aim is to ascertain if the interpretation is complete and an accurate reflection of the themes. The individual transcripts and the specific theme descriptions were taken back to all semi-structured

interview study participants as part of the member checking process. The member checks provided a fidelity to data interpretation by the researcher, and was an important method of identifying researcher biases of what was observed (Bogden & Biklen, 2011; Crosby, 2004; Maxwell, 2013). Four research study participants offered small grammatical corrections and verified that the transcripts were not only a correct reflection of their statements, and the transcripts accurately captured the meaning intended. The five strategies and processes were put in place to ensure dependability and consistency and is the basis for establishing trustworthiness of the research study.

## **Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Findings**

The objective of this constructivist grounded theory study (Charmaz, 2006) was to understand how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process has changed. In a constructivist approach a key element in understanding how supervisors make sense (Basu & Palazzo, 2008) of their own supervisory role is through recollection of their own experiences. The recollections form the basis of the values, purpose, behavior, and attitudes when confronted with organizational change (Chao et al., 1994; Colker, 2008). Understanding how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors could inform the next generation of Border Patrol supervisors and the broader community of law enforcement organizations. The interview data was transcribed, approved by each research study participant, coded, and analyzed which revealed patterns and themes. In this chapter, I present the findings and discuss the following topics: (1) the characteristics of the research study participants; (2) core “influences” to supervisor adaptation; (3) the findings from the interviews with 32 supervisory Border Patrol agents; and (4) discussion of the results.

### **Research Study Participants**

The research study participants cumulatively averaged over 24 years of experience within the United States Border Patrol. As stated previously, the research study participants represented an average of 18 years of supervisory experience and seven of the nine levels of United States Border Patrol supervision. All 32 research study participants first became supervisory Border Patrol agents within a sector along the southwest border of the United States or at the organization’s basic training academy. Sixteen of the research study participants first became a supervisor in the Tucson Sector. The El Paso sector was the location of six individuals first becoming a supervisor, four were promoted to supervisor for the first time in San Diego sector,

and two in the Yuma Sector. El Centro, Laredo, and Rio Grande Valley sectors accounted for one each where a research study participant first became a supervisor. One research study participant was first promoted at the United States Border Patrol Academy as a supervisory Border Patrol agent. The research study participants reflect a diverse supervisory experience from various locations with the United States Border Patrol to adequately inform the research study's central question.

The aim of the research study was not centered on the notion of “testing out” of the Spanish language from the basic academy, but rather the consequences of changing a long held process implicitly tied to the agency's socialization process (Graff, 2014; National Border Patrol Council, 2008). It is clear, through data analysis, Spanish language training has a strong influence on the experiences and reflections of the supervisors. The *Supervisory Background Questionnaire* indicated half of the research study participants self-reported they were either fluent or mostly fluent in the Spanish language when they began their basic academy training. The other half of the research study participants self-reported they either had some fluency or no knowledge of the Spanish language upon the beginning of their basic training at the United States Border Patrol academy. The equal split of research study participants was not intentional and occurred as part of the voluntary process to participate in the study.

Although U.S. Customs and Border Protection does not make a distinction in their public documents about supervisory demographics, the agency does report general United States Border Patrol Agent demographics. U.S. Customs and Border Protection (2015) reports 95% of the law enforcement workforce is male. In addition, the agency reports the race/ethnicity of the workforce is: 46.1% White, 49.8% Hispanic/Latino, and the remaining 4.1% of the workforce is comprised of American Indian, Asian, African American, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islanders. The

pool of research study participants does not include anyone other than White or Hispanic/Latino. All races/ethnicities had the same opportunity to participate in the study, and it is unknown why other race/ethnicity individuals did not participate in the study. Table 4.1 depicts the demographics of the research study participants.

Table 4.1 Research Study Participant's Demographics

Characteristics	Number (n=32)	Percentage
<b>Age</b>		
36 - 40 Years	1	3%
41 – 45 Years	9	28%
46 – 50 Years	13	41%
51 – 57 Years	9	28%
<b>Gender</b>		
Female	4	13%
Male	28	87%
<b>Race/Ethnicity</b>		
White	17	53%
Hispanic/Latino	15	47%
<b>Education Level</b>		
High School/GED	1	3%
Some College but No Degree	11	34%
Associate Degree (2 year degree)	3	9%
Bachelor's Degree (4 year degree)	13	41%
Master's Degree or Higher	4	13%
<b>Length of Service in the U.S. Border Patrol</b>		
16 – 20 Years	8	25%
21 – 25 Years	15	47%
26 – 30 Years	8	25%
30 + Years	1	3%
<b>Length of Border Patrol Supervisory Experience</b>		
10 – 15 Years	13	41%
16 – 21 Years	14	44%
22 – 27 Years	5	15%

## Themes

Coding resulted in the sorting of codes into two areas of focus for this research study: influential constructs and supervisory adaptation constructs. Three constructs emerged as factors influencing how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisor. The “influential” constructs centered on the themes of: (1) supervisory preparation; (2) supervisory challenges; and (3) trainees preparedness. The “influential” constructs helped to understand how supervisors interpreted their experiences (Harris, 1994; Shafritz & Ott, 2001) in adapting in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization was changed. How supervisors adapted in their roles as supervisors are categorized in four thematic areas: (1) increased team building; (2) assignments based on Spanish language abilities; (3) managing and teaching more; and (4) more mentorship. Figure 4.1 depicts the core concepts of supervisory adaptation and the constructs that influence the adaptation.

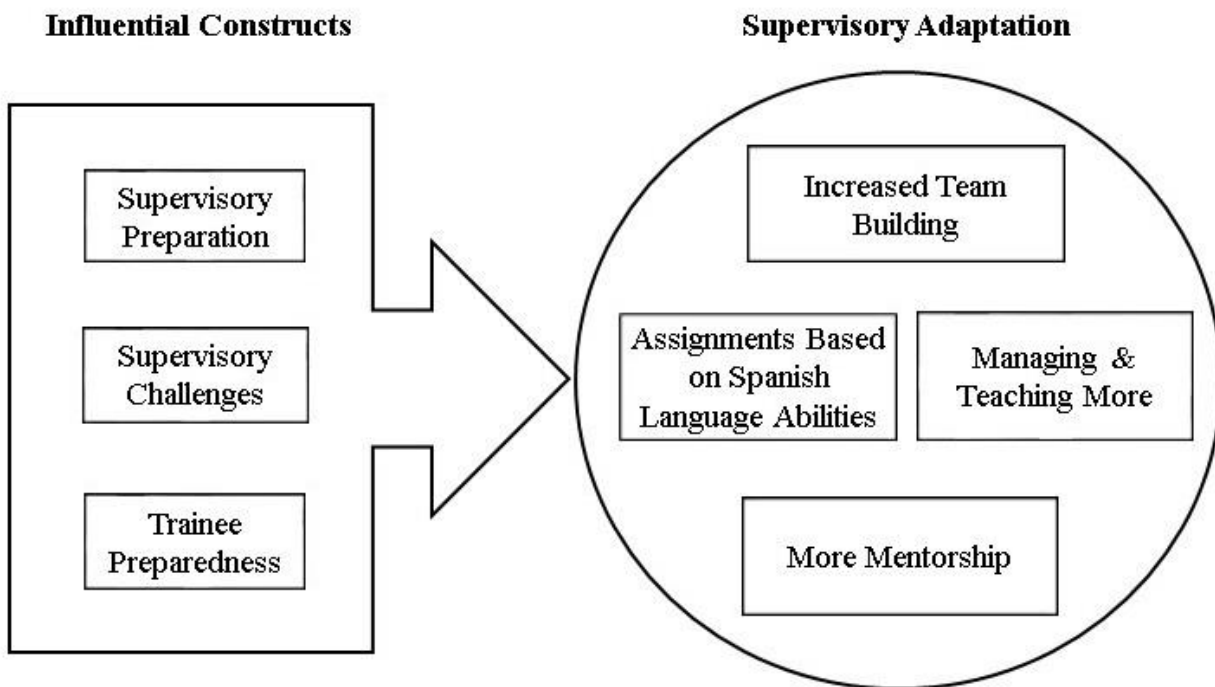


Figure 4.1 Coded Themes

### **Influential Constructs**

All 32 research study participants referred to their basic training academy experiences as a foundational base for their own supervisory experiences. Tracey, Hinkin, Tannenbaum, and Mathieu (2001) argue various internal (individual) and external (situational or occupational) variables may influence supervisory experiences. One external factor that may influence supervisory experiences is the perceived value of employee training. Tracey et al., (2001) describe employee training as any form of instruction developed and/or sponsored by the organization, which includes initial occupational training. Goldstein (1991) found a strong relationship between the perceived value of training, due to personal experiences, and the reactions to subsequent changes in the same training. The more favorable the memory of the experience the stronger the reaction is negative to any changes. Although the influential constructs did not explicitly describe supervisory adaptation, the constructs directly connected the supervisor's own experiences to the initial organizational socialization change at the basic training academy. The connections from previous experiences help shape the role function of a supervisor (Cromwell & Kolb, 2004).

Each research study participant was asked: (1) do you remember your class number and class motto; (2) how do you describe your experiences as a trainee at the basic Border Patrol academy; (3) what do you believe is the formal purpose of the basic training academy; and (4) what do you believe is the informal purpose of the basic training academy. The responses to these four questions provided an insight into the supervisor's experiences and memories of those experiences. Basu and Palazzo (2008) argue memories of experiences form organizational sensemaking that helps explain how supervisors think, act, and adapt to organizational change. Understanding the influences to adaptation helps to understand why the role adaptation took place (Daft & Weick, 1984).

The influential constructs were categorized in three groups: supervisory preparation, supervisory challenges, and trainee preparedness. There were two sub-groups within the category of supervisory preparation: Supervisor selection and supervisor training. Four sub-groups emerged within the supervisory challenges category: resentment, heavier reliance/strain on supervisors, reduced esprit de corps, and trainee demeanor and generational. Two sub-groups developed within trainee preparedness: trainee preparedness (Spanish language training) and trainee preparedness (Non-Spanish language training). Figure 4.2 depicts the categories that emerged in each of the groups within the influential constructs.

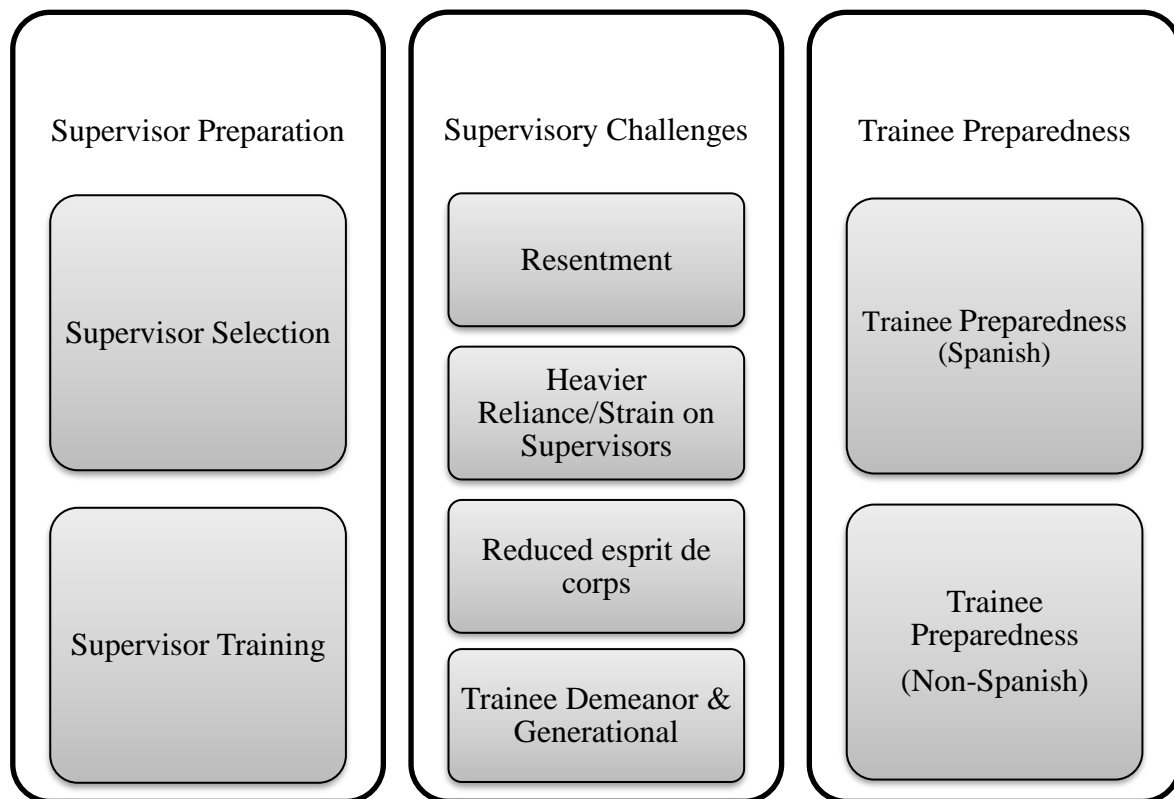


Figure 4.2 Influential Constructs Sorted by Focus Areas

The groups and sub-groups for each of the categories within the influential construct are explained with examples from the semi-structured interviews to provide clarity and meaning. The explanations and examples use pronouns reflecting gender, but the use is not necessarily an

accurate portrayal of the research study participant. The examples do not reference a supervisory title or a specific location in order not to breach confidentiality of the research study participants given the sample size. Specific examples are used only when there is no risk to confidentiality. The pseudonym “USBP” followed by a number is used to refer to a research study participant.

### **Supervisory Preparation**

The category of supervisory preparation contained two sub-category of codes: supervisor selection and supervisor training. Combined the two sub-categories made up the influential category of supervisory preparation. No direct questions were specifically developed for the semi-structured interview instrument addressing supervisory preparation, but the notion emerged as a re-occurring theme and seemingly important to supervisors interviewed. Supervisors who were at least a second level supervisor at the time of the organizational growth raised the topic. When supervisors were asked the question, “Did you have to adapt in your role as a supervisor to supervise the new agents? If so, how?” research participants frequently reflected on supervisory preparation.

**Supervisor selection.** Seventeen participants made 51 references to supervisor selection. Participants discussed supervisor selection broadly as a reflection of the rapid growth the agency was experiencing (Government Accountability Office, 1999; Graff, 2014), and the lack of having a broad enough base of experienced Border Patrol Agents to promote to the first level of supervision. To some degree, all participants reinforced the importance of experience as a non-supervisory Border Patrol agent and various familiarities with certain job functions. A key element to this notion was that the individual should be more than just a good Border Patrol agent to be a good supervisor. For example, USBP1 explained that “Supervisors were considered good leaders simply based on the idea they were good Border Patrol Agents.” The problem, noted by USBP31,

is that “Border Patrol Agents may have conducted their duties in an exemplary manner as individuals, but they had not developed the skills to lead small teams.” USBP25 described the quick growth of the agency and the need to send the most experienced agents to the United States Border Patrol academy resulted in the lack of experienced personnel to promote as supervisors. Several research study participants believed the agency had no other option than to promote the less experienced supervisors as long as they were considered good Border Patrol Agents. USBP23 suggested under different circumstances, normal levels of hiring, many of the agents who were promoted to first level supervisors would not have been for several more years. USBP16 added, “The organization made several organizational changes, and the one that affected supervisor selection was one of the most troubling.” USBP2 described the supervisory selection process as the following:

The selection process is where we failed on the promotion of supervisors. We came out with a new matrix or DART (Decision Analysis Resource Tool) that to me personally is a joke. I am looking for a leader. I do not need them to have a background at the academy. I do not need them to have PIO (Public Information Officer) training. I want an agent that came up the ranks and knows what it is to get a smuggling case – what do I do with it? Look at the matrix there are no questions on prosecutions, no questions on LER (Labor-Employee Relations) issues or anything that is real relevant in the field. They are missing a whole lot of good people because of that, a lot.

USBP23 and USBP28 suggested the new supervisors hired during this time were not much more skilled than the actual people they had to supervise. USBP20 claimed first level supervisors were often as “high maintenance” as the trainees graduating from the United States Border Patrol academy. First level supervisors needed a high level of guidance and mentorship. USBP14 noted

the level of maturity of the organization's supervisors lacked depth and did not have in-depth experiences to effectively supervise the new trainees. USBP27 offered that second, third, and fourth level supervisors not only worried about the quality of the Border Patrol Agent trainees graduating from the United States Border Patrol academy, but "worried about the readiness of the first level of supervision." USBP1 recalled an outside of the agency consultant, during leadership training, advised a group of sixth and seventh level supervisors of the following:

Look you guys sit here and complain about these new employees and supervisors, but you created them. She said they were our monster. She is right, they are our workforce. You can embrace them and develop them or you can shut the door on them. We did not do a good job of selecting supervisors to be supervisors and we certainly did not follow-up those selections with adequate supervisory development. We set them up to fail when we needed them the most.

**Supervisory training.** Twenty participants made 59 references to supervisory preparation for supervisors first promoted during the period of rapid organizational growth. There was a belief the organization had a responsibility to prepare individuals to be competent supervisors, but the United States Border Patrol failed. In addition, it was generally assumed newly promoted supervisors would do a good job and knew what they were doing. USBP33 described the expectations of supervisors as the following, "We did not do a very good job preparing our supervisors, we just expected them to adapt and get the job done with very little training." USBP17 empathized supervisors were simply expected to adjust and make it work. USBP19 and USBP16 described a general sentiment that the United States Border Patrol was not ready for the changes at the basic training academy or the outcomes that ensued from the change. As one supervisor noted, "the change and negative outcomes showed in the training and preparation of supervisors."

USBP17 stated, “I do not think the field was prepared for how we were going to handle the growth.” He further added, “we were promoting people fast and the professional development for supervisors was really lacking.” USBP2 described United States Border Patrol supervisory training processes as lackluster and inadequate:

I feel bad for our supervisors. We do not do our supervisors justice. They are out and doing the job. We have sups go to train the trainer programs. Even the union trains their representatives better. The union sends their representatives to classes and they talk to attorneys and other specialists to get better educated. They have a professional experience. We get some FOS (Field Operations Supervisor) who will go to the training and then come back and train the other supervisors. It is not fair and not a very good way to develop our supervisors. I feel bad for the supervisors because they get it from both ends, but we expect them to adapt and overcome.

USBP17 noted supervisors in the past were in better position to be supervisors because of their in-depth experiences. The quality of supervisory training was not as impactful when the experience levels were higher. Clearly expressed was the idea that first level supervisory training had not been perceived as providing a benefit to the newly promoted supervisor. Some research study participants commented about the recent improvement in supervisory training for newly promoted individuals. USBP23 suggested the availability and quality of the supervisory training courses were sparse and not very good during the significant growth period. He further added, “The Patrol has recently conducted better training for supervisors.” USBP5 noted the agency did not always provide education on law enforcement leadership until now. Although there has been improvement to the training, there is a stigma associated with supervisory training. USBP5 described how some second level supervisors viewed training:

I wanted to teach some leadership classes at the station level. My Watch Commanders (second level supervisors), most of them were old school and close to retirement, could not understand why we would give the new supervisors more training. The biggest complaint was they were going to lose them from the field due to the additional training. I said what if I did not give him or her to you at all. The training is for a week, and I want it done within the first 90 days. You pick when it is the most convenient for you. They told me we really need them in the field now. I told them the alternative is you do not get them until I am done with them. Providing training for the new supervisors was and continues to be a constant battle.

An underlying theme regarding supervisory preparation was the lack of understanding of the impact of the organizational decision of changing the basic training academy on supervisory preparation. USBP9 noted the heavy focus on the basic academy meant there would be less resources for other types of training to include supervisory training. One research study participant described an approach to supervisory preparation as unplanned and disorganized. While USBP27 noted, “we really lacked a strategic plan for supervisory preparation that was based in the skills needed as a first line supervisor.” The skills identified by USBP27 include the ability to oversee complex criminal and administrative cases generated by those they supervise. One research study participant discussed the change of curriculum and the ensuing consequences:

We do not think of the long-term impacts of our decisions enough. We have thought a lot of the academy, and we put a lot effort into that but we did not think after that. We needed to think about our supervisory development and culture because everything we do has impacts and implications, good or bad. I think we sometimes take on unsound paths forward and pay for it at the end. Our supervisory core is a great example of the problem.

I think we are paying for that stuff now, and we are still doing things that will not help the next generation of supervisors. No one will notice it now because we do not have a big hiring push, but the next generation will feel it. (USBP31)

### **Supervisory Challenges**

The category of supervisory challenges contained four sub-category of codes: resentment, heavier reliance/strain on supervisors, reduced esprit de corps and trainee demeanor/generational. Combined the four sub-categories made up the influential category supervisory challenges. Although no questions in the semi-structured interview were developed specifically to elicit responses regarding supervisory challenges, the topic emerged from three questions in the semi-structured interview process. Research study participants were asked the following questions: (1) What do you believe were the consequences of the academy change; (2) What results or consequences of the academy decision surprised you the most, and why; and (3) What do you believe were the biggest surprises for the U.S. Border Patrol, as an organization, when the curriculum changed. The research participants frequently framed their responses as challenges.

**Resentment.** Twenty-six supervisors made 99 references to resentment formed by the more experienced agents who had graduated from the pre-October 1, 2007 style of the basic training academy. In this case, resentment is defined as dissatisfaction or animosity towards individuals of the same organization who went through a different socialization process. Many of the study participants were surprised at the level of resentment exhibited by the more experienced Border Patrol Agents towards the newer agents and from cohorts to each other. USBP33 described their always seemed to be a belief from one generation to another generation of Border Patrol Agents that the newer agents were not the same quality, but in an almost playful manner. USBP33 explained the belief now was not playful but rather resentful towards the new agents. He stated,

“the resentment is something I had not seen before and I do not believe anyone expected it.” USBP19 described the resentment, by the more experienced agents, appeared to be based on the perception the academy was easier to pass. USBP18 commented, “The problem is the agents who came in before the academy change started to resent the newer agents”, which presented challenges for supervisors. One supervisor described the supervisory challenge in the following manner:

So, there was already a divide right? Because they went to a different academy than we did. Now there is another divide because the agents can’t do the same job as the more experienced agents. It started a less than optimal dynamic. I remember the union complaints at the station like, “Why am I processing again just because I am a native speaker,” and how do you answer those questions. A lot of times the answer is simply “yes”. I understand decisions had to be made but there were negative consequences as a result. It created a big divide and resentment that we continue to pay for today. (USBP14)

USBP24 observed there was animosity within the same class of trainee cohorts between the groups that could test out of the Spanish language training and those who could not. USBP12 added, “Classmates did not consider themselves classmates internally.” He further noted, “We lost that whole class unity and created resentment issues.” USBP29 detected the resentment extended to supervisors as well simply because the organization made a change. USBP19 recalls he was a second level supervisor at the time of the basic academy change and having first level supervisors ask, “Why do I have to put up with this gentleman not knowing as much as this guy. It is not fair.” Another supervisor explained that he not only had the challenge of resentment from field agents, but the resentment was wide spread among first level supervisors.

USBP4 remembers the messaging from the organization was problematic. He explained, “The perception was we had to get so many through. You are already wondering, okay pushing

them through, what is going to happen. What are we going to lose in that process?” USBP19 explained the poor messaging led to a perception in the existing work force that everything had changed. He described the perception by Border Patrol Agents as if all the culture had been disregarded and thrown out. One research study participant described the organizational message of the change to the field in the following manner:

If the communication happened it was not strong and if it didn't happen we made this huge organizational change without possibly putting some metrics in place and then maybe an escape hatch of “hey, well we're going to try this for a year or two and then we'll come back to where it was”, I don't know if any of that happened. I think the field not knowing really hurt the agency because the agents felt that no one in the organization cared about the culture. (USBP16)

In reflection, USBP11 felt the organization should have had more discussions on the change on a wider scale before the implementation. He also added, “I am just surprised after all these years that people still are talking about the organizational change.” USBP5 believed the upper levels of management in the organization did not realize the resistance or the resentment from the field. USBP22 viewed the resentment as simply creating an additional layer of accountability for supervisors, who were already taxed, to manage.

**Heavier reliance and strain on supervisors.** Twenty-six participants made 103 references to a heavier reliance and strain on supervisors due to the change at the basic training academy. One point of emphasis was the organizational change placed a heavier burden on supervisors for any shortcomings of the trainee agents. Clearly expressed was the impact of the change at the basic training academy went beyond the trainees going through the academy. Supervisors who were now less experienced and less trained carried the burden of correcting any

inadequacies the new trainees may have had to include those normally corrected at the basic training academy. Several supervisors believed the organization altered the training program in order to hire more people in a compressed time frame. One supervisor stated, “in order to meet the hiring goals we took shortcuts at the academy and as a result new agents were not as prepared as in the past.” USBP13 lamented the change was a problem for supervisors because “we had to do more with the trainees.” USBP22 was more explanatory by stating, “As an agency we consistently put more and more reliance, responsibility and accountability on the first line supervisor.” USBP3 described the burden placed on supervisors in the following manner:

You know there is a greater burden for the supervisor. If you think about it the agency is not equipped, by any means, once the trainee is in the field to rectify Spanish language problems. Not even assigning them to processing. Just the other day we had an agent who was assigned to processing tell a supervisor, “No, I can’t do this you are going to have to help me with Spanish.” And it is like gee-whiz, you’ve been in like for a few years now you should be able to do this work. It does become a burden on the supervisor who somehow has to manage.

A common belief by many of the research study participants is the change in the basic training academy curriculum reduced the Spanish language abilities of the trainees placing a heavier burden on supervisors. Trainees did not have the fundamentals to do their job, USBP14 noted, “I mean they taught them some phrases to do parts of their job, but as far as actually speaking to someone, it was not there.” USBP25 explained, “due to the lack of Spanish language skills the trainees were not mission ready, and placed a burden on supervisors to get them mission ready.” USBP22 emphasized, “the trainees were supposed to come out fully ready to go, and the field training unit would only have to introduce them to the area, local policy guidelines, and how to

operate safely.” He explained the trainees were not prepared and supervisors “[...] had to pick up the pieces and train them.” As USBP12 stated, “as supervisors we had to understand who we were dealing with and we had to go back and train the new agents again.” The change in Spanish language training also caused a rift between classmates of the same basic training academy class. Several research study participants noted a level of animosity between members of the same Border Patrol academy class. USBP10 described the animosity, “as a crack that formed and separated the new agents from half of the existing United States Border Patrol and from their own classmates.” USBP18 explained, “The divide between agents became the responsibility of the supervisor because supervisors now needed to build trust and respect.” USBP13 made it a point of emphasis to explain that trust and respect had not been much of a concern in the past because the trainee agents graduated as one class from the academy with similar experiences.

The field-training unit program, which the United States Border Patrol uses as an intermediate point from the basic training academy and field units, presented unintentional challenges to supervisors. The challenges placed an additional layer of burden on the supervisors. USBP11 reflected on the field-training program as being “outdated and not very useful.” USBP9 further added, “The field-training unit was not doing what they needed to do which is to show the new agents the ‘nuts and bolts’ of what is actually done in the field.” USBP27 explained the lack of knowledge of the job which should have been learned in the field training unit currently continues. The supervisor stated, “After eight years on the job, I have agents who cannot interview or take a sworn statement in the Spanish language.” As noted by USBP20, the change placed a strain on first level supervisors. He explained, “Supervisors are not equipped to be Spanish instructors on top of all the other duties.” He further stated, “Supervisors already had the most critical job in the agency and we placed a greater burden on them.”

A major emphasis by research study participants was the combination of the reduced Spanish language program at the basic training academy and the outdated field-training program resulted in additional work for supervisors. The additional work came in the form of having to train new agents. USBP6 noted, “As a supervisor you had to adjust and start teaching the trainees the I-213 questions, which in the past were taught at the academy. We had to show them how to do their job. It was challenging.” The term ‘I-213’ is a reference to the United States Border Patrol’s basic arrest report (Hernandez, 2010). The form is equivalent to a ‘booking’ report of a police organization which mainly contains biographical information such as name, date of birth, home address, and other similar questions. Previous to the basic training academy change agents were taught to memorize twenty questions in the Spanish language in order to answer specific biographical I-213 questions. USBP15 stated, “I have never seen in my career as many agents who could not do portions of their job and would defer to other agents that spoke better Spanish.” As some research study participants described, the Spanish language problem was more than just the ability to do the job. Supervisors now had to explain to the more experienced agents why they had to do more for the junior agents.

**Reduced esprit de corps.** All 32 research study participants referred 147 times to the reduced level of esprit de corps. Generally, esprit corps was viewed, by the research study participants, as the cohesiveness and camaraderie developed at the basic Border Patrol academy among classmates. Due to the mission of the United States Border Patrol, research study participants emphasized teamwork and the value of shared experiences. USBP23 described how the change in the process at the basic training academy altered the cohesiveness and esprit de corps that was necessary to maintain the organizational culture. He stated, “You know our principles, our history, our core values – it was challenging.” USBP4 added, “The agency hurt itself when

they changed the curriculum resulting in separating classes.” USBP1 was even more direct in describing the change at the basic Border Patrol academy as “absolutely diminishing esprit de corps.” USBP20 further suggested the change dissolved the esprit de corps and negatively affected the organization. The impact of the reduced esprit de corps was viewed as significant and several of the research study participants expressed the same sentiment as USBP10: “Given the idea of tradition, esprit de corps, and those kind of things and if given the opportunity to go back I do not know if we would make that change.”

USBP23 reflected on personal experiences while at the basic training academy and the importance of team building and esprit de corps.

I was learning what it took to be a Border Patrol Agent and every single day I was learning just a little bit more, becoming more and more prideful about becoming a Border Patrol Agent. So, the informal intent of the academy is to create cohesiveness, camaraderie, and esprit de corps but by letting people leave the academy early, they did not get to experience that. It feels as if the trainees were cheated from those close knit experiences. (USBP23)

USBP11 and USBP25 emphatically believe the change at the basic training academy injected a difference in a process that changed the esprit de corps function the academy provided. USBP10 noted he observed a crack between the more experienced agents and the new agents. He stated, “I actually saw some of the new guys out of the academy get really disrespected by the older agents.” USBP32 stated, “The divide was seen out the field because the camaraderie was not what it used to be [...] the team mentality is not the same.” USBP9 observed the newer agents do not necessarily think as a team because that was not developed at the Border Patrol training academy. USBP32 spoke about the importance of esprit de corps in the daily work of Border Patrol Agents. He stated, “The lack of the camaraderie and cohesiveness presented challenges to supervisors.”

He further added, “Instead of having a unified team, a supervisor had a group of individuals with varying skill levels and experiences that did not always help each other.”

**Trainee demeanor and generational differences.** Twenty-one research study participants referred 122 times to a difference in trainee demeanor or generational differences in their responses to various questions in the semi-structured interview. Under this sub-category of influences, the idea of generational differences led to the most references by study participants. USBP1 spoke of how society as a whole was changing. He explained, “A new generation of people with different expectations coming into an academy, which does not have the same rigorous standards as in the past.” The differences caused tension between the newer agents and supervisors. USBP4 described the dynamic as, “having always to explain why and the purpose of doing something not out of disrespect, but because the trainee wanted to know why.” USBP4 further explained, “Some people saw it as being rude, but it was the nature of the workforce coming into the agency.” USBP13 suggested the reason for the tension was because previously new agents did not second-guess supervisors they just did what they were told. USBP26 stated, “We did what we were told to do because our culture developed our mindset just to get it done.” USBP24 observed the challenge for supervisors was to learn how the current generation of Border Patrol Agents views the world. He stated, “We struggled to understand.” USBP2 claimed compounding the challenge is that new agents “will quit on a dime. If they do not like it, they will quit or they will ask you why we are doing something.”

Not all references were directly related to generational differences. As USBP25 stated, “I think there are a few other things that have hit on the other side of the informal process that are not necessarily all related to the academy or generational differences.” He further added, “We coddle people to do their job or stay with the agency. We provide incentives to stay. What ever

happened to getting a good job and keeping it?” USBP24 noted the lack of commitment to the organization by newer Border Patrol Agents is noticeable. He argued the change is not necessarily beneficial to the organization and presents challenges to supervisors. USBP26 illustrated the lack of commitment in the following manner:

Now, these guys look at their watch and at the 10-hour mark, they get into their car and travel two hours to El Paso and call it a day. Work stays at work and they go home. It seems the commitment to the job and to the mission is not as important as it used to be. I think these little changes that have come along since we came in has been a big difference. It has actually hurt the agency more than it has helped the agency. It has changed who we are as an organization.

USBP21 reflected on classmates who had difficulty graduating from the academy due to Spanish language difficulties. He stated, “Some of my classmates had to work every single day up to the 10-month probationary exam. It was a big commitment, and now you do not see that and it is hurting us.” Several research study participants commented there is not the same level of commitment or dedication for self-development. USBP7 further stated, “I get the sense they are not as loyal to the agency, it is just a paycheck.”

USBP14 noted, “the trainee agent dynamic has changed and not just the temperament, but also the character of the agents coming out of the academy.” USBP13 stated the level of pride in the organization and the effort to get the job done is not the same with the newer agents.

Back in the day, Border Patrol Agents prided themselves on knowing Spanish. Even the Anglos from New York, Nebraska, and Oklahoma those old-timers could speak Spanish very well and it was a matter of pride. They got the respect of the native Spanish speakers because they learned the language. As a native speaker, you appreciated how

much your classmate worked to learn another language. So they got a lot of respect when they graduated, because knowing what your classmates went through you knew how hard they had to work to earn that position, to earn that badge. The work required lots of pride and dedication. (USBP13)

Several research study participants generally sensed the lack of pride in the organization and the work required to earn the position created a perception of entitlement. USBP29 noted, “There is a greater sense of expectations, a sense of entitlement by the agents coming into the field that they deserve things without working for those things.” USBP26 believed the attitude of entitlement was worse for those trainees who tested-out of Spanish. USBP32 emphasized the difference as an emotional demeanor and attitude towards the job. He stated, “I did not expect to have to deal with that. It was not all of them but it was a great deal of them.” USBP21 described the notion of entitlement and the perception of commitment to the organization in the following manner:

I think because they didn't have that sense of sacrifice or that sense of scarcity. You know the mentality that it is on you. You have to go out there and do the best you can with what you have. You are not going to have it perfect, but hey I'm going to make whatever I get work. Because I care about my reputation and I want to go out after the bad guy and it's just not there. The demeanor and the attitude were really different and as a supervisor you had to know that and deal with it. We still have a lot of it.

### **Trainee Preparedness**

The category of trainee preparedness contained two sub-category of codes: trainee preparedness (Spanish language) and trainee preparedness (Non-Spanish language). Combined the two sub-categories made up the influential category of trainee preparedness. Although no questions in the semi-structured interviewed were developed specifically to elicit responses

regarding trainee preparedness, the topic emerged from two questions in the semi-structured interview process. Research study participants were asked the following questions: (1) What do you believe were the consequences of the academy change; and (2) What results or consequences of the academy decision surprised you the most, and why. The research study participants frequently framed their responses as descriptions of trainee preparedness. It is clear by the number of references made, research study participants believed this theme was important.

**Trainee preparedness (Spanish language).** All 32 research study participants discussed trainee preparedness as it relates to the Spanish language making 157 references to this point. Although 29 of the supervisors interviewed noted the Spanish language abilities were reduced due to the program change, three supervisors believed otherwise. USBP11 described the general approach of those three supervisors by stating the change was an attempt to teach legitimate Spanish to the people that needed to learn the language. USBP29 argued there was really no change in the program other than fluent Spanish language speakers and non-fluent speakers were graduating at two different times. The different graduating times made the non-fluent Spanish language speakers “really stick out.” In most cases, the references to Spanish language preparedness was best described by USBP4, “as an organization the thing that hurt the most was the quality of the Spanish language being taught was not good enough.” He further added, “The quality of it or the lack of quality made the job of the supervisor difficult. A large number of agents simply could not communicate very well in the Spanish language.” USBP6 noted the trainees graduating from the basic training academy did not know enough Spanish to do the job, they needed a lot of help. USBP26 further noted, “What surprised me the most is honestly the degree to which the non-native speakers are incompetent speaking Spanish.”

USBP9 described the Spanish language training as different from the past. He stated, “The language was supposed to be more conversational, but before you learned your I-213’s you actually learned the basics of the language. This included the verbs, nouns, adjectives, and the tenses.” One research study participant described the general sentiment of the Spanish language problems as:

The newer agents cannot do certain things that you expect them to do to get the job done. When we were getting hit with OTMs (Other Than Mexican nationals) really hard we created a processing unit. Unfortunately, we had to be careful not to place certain people to process because they just didn’t know the language well enough. Now I am shifting assignments around not because we are rotating them but because some agents cannot do the job they were hired to do. This created a big problem. (USBP18)

USBP14 stated, “New agents did not have the fundamentals to do the job. I mean they taught them some phrases to do their job but as far as actually speaking to someone it was not good enough.”

USBP20 further added, “The trainees could not interview an alien. In the past if you knew the I-213 questions you could start to develop your case. We lost that and they just were not prepared to do the job.” USBP15 was succinct, “we are dealing with guys who are not as proficient in Spanish and cannot do the job.”

USBP22 described how trainee agents could not do basic functions of the job. He stated, “We were getting folks out in the field who not only couldn’t do the basic, most basic stuff with I-213 questions, they could not interview in the Spanish language.” Several research study participants explained how the new agents communicated so poorly in the Spanish language they worried about their safety. As USBP2 stated, “not knowing the language good enough is potentially dangerous for them and that bothered me.” USBP3 added the concern about the

Spanish communication skills went beyond supervisors it extended to the field agents. The more experienced agents worried the new agents would be a liability because they did not know the language well enough to understand when they were in danger. USBP32 described the surprise and the dismay by supervisors who were receiving the new agents in the following manner:

I don't understand how we got to this point. I could see if your Spanish is rusty, even if you are a native speaker and you don't speak it in a long time you get a little rusty. No matter what your level, you should always be able to go back to your basic questions and get back answers to your basic questions. I am not saying you are going to break them to being the second gunman on the grassy knoll, but you should be able to do a I-213 questionnaire. To hear the response over and over from several agents, I don't speak Spanish that is sad.

**Trainee preparedness (Non-Spanish language).** Seventeen research study participants made 67 references to trainee preparedness not associated to the Spanish language. Generally, supervisors interviewed described the reduced duration of the basic training academy program affecting other areas of skill development. USBP16 noted, "I believe the purpose of the academy was to prepare, train, and equip new agents." He further added, "By condensing the time frame, by altering the curriculum, I don't think that you could say we prepared, trained, and equipped very well." An issue noted by several supervisors was the condensed basic academy time also reduced the timeframe new agents had for physical conditioning. USBP18 commented, "We were concerned about the physical shape the trainees were in and the lack of confidence they demonstrated." One research study participant described the physical conditioning of some of the new agents as:

We would get agents, who had to stay for the Spanish immersion course, out in the field completely out of shape. They could not get out there and hike with their journeyman. It was bad, they would easily get dehydrated. They would completely stop working out the second half of the academy. I completely forgot about that issue. That was a concern because we were putting them out expecting them to be young gung-ho trainees and they could not walk up a hill! (USBP7)

USBP9 explained, “We expected to get trainees out of the academy ready to go but that was not what we received. We received trainees we nearly had to start from scratch.” As described by USBP8, “the agency did not receive the quality of agent we were expecting.”

In addition, multiple research study participants stated there were issues other than the physical conditioning of the trainee agents. USBP6 emphasized, “Shortening the basic training academy was a huge mistake.” He further added, “I think the quality of agents the academy was pushing out diminished when the organization decided to go to a 12 week academy. We took short cuts.” One supervisor described how he was concerned about the impact of the curriculum change on other basic training academy classes.

In addition, there were some questions about the law classes. It made us go back because we realized, hey they cut short and rushed them through immigration law or nationality law or civil law. They went through all the law classes rather quickly instead of having time to take a subject go through it and transition to the next subject. You know they are now taking multiple subjects at the same time and that is really difficult with law. We really didn’t know how much they knew at the time. (USBP12)

USBP20 stated, “I think what we ended up seeing is the guys coming out of the academy were not as well rounded as in the past.” USBP29 offered, “Trainees, in the past, could graduate not being

great in every skill, but they knew enough to do their job. We do not see that now.” USBP3 noted the more experienced agents began to doubt the abilities of the new agents and lacked confidence in them to do the job.

USBP15 described an overall sentiment that the organization’s change gave a perception the basic training academy was ‘watered down.’ He stated, “It seems the change all of a sudden lowered the bar even if it was just psychologically.” USBP8 rhetorically asked, “If they would have stayed another month at the academy would that have made them better?” USBP12 seems to answer USBP8’s question with the following:

They were not there for a longer period of time to fully grasp and understand the law portion in a specific order. There is an interaction between those courses and how they are set-up. Whether you went from criminal law first and then you went to naturalization law, and then to immigration law. It was a natural progression of classes. It was a natural progression because the classes complemented each other. Now they squished them all together to make a shorter time period. It did not have the same impact on their learning. USBP6 emphasized USBP12’s point by declaring, “I don’t think they came out with the full comprehension of our authorities. I do not think they understood BP101.”

### **Supervisory Adaptation**

All 32 research study participants were asked the central research question, did you have to adapt in your role as a supervisor when the initial organizational socialization process at the basic training academy changed?<sup>2</sup> Twenty-one study participants stated the role of supervisor immediately changed while eight noted or implied the effects of the basic training academy caused

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<sup>2</sup> Supervisory adaptation for the purpose of this study is singularly focused on supervisory role functions as it pertains to the duties and functions of a supervisor while at their place of employment. Role adaptation of research study participants in this study does not include any role or personal behavior adjustment not directly related to their supervisory role.

subsequent supervisory role adaptation. Although the research study participants referred to their supervisory role as changing, the supervisors generally described the change as changing supervisory dynamics. As one supervisor explained, the role of the supervisor changed but so did the entire supervisor dynamic. Due to the change in the basic training academy variables were introduced into the role of a supervisor never encountered before within the United States Border Patrol. Supervisors were now concerned with the supervisory challenges of resentment, heavier strains and demands on supervisors, reduced esprit de corps, and perceived generational differences. The challenges combined with the notion the new trainees were not well prepared to do the job of a Border Patrol Agent created a dynamic not previously seen with the United States Border Patrol.

It made the supervisor role much more difficult because they now had to become something they never were in their careers. Most of the supervisors had to change horses in mid-stream from being traditional Border Patrol supervisors to taking care of a new brand of trainee Border Patrol Agent. It was not easy, and I am not sure we were very successful in adapting. (USBP1)

Research study participants referred to the core constructs of supervisory role adaptation 516 times during the semi-structured interviews. As USBP28 noted, traditional supervisory roles were generally framed from previous experiences. Harris (1994) and Katz (1980) argue experiences have a strong influence in shaping an individual's set of theories and assumptions about organizational realities and relationships. The theories and assumptions then became the outlines of expectations. Supervisor interactions with the new agents and the dynamics of the internal dimensions of a changed organizational milieu, culture, and supervisory ecology (Falcione & Wilson, 1988; Gioia & Thomas, 1996) highlight the divergence from previous experiences and

form the constructs how supervisors adapted in their role. As the result of thematic coding, four categories emerged on how supervisors adapted in their roles as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process changed at the basic training academy. Generally, supervisors described their roles as changing in the following manner: (1) increased team building; (2) assignments based on Spanish language abilities; (3) managing and teaching more; and (4) more mentorship.

### **Increased Team Building**

Twenty-six research study participants made 121 references to team building due to the reduced esprit de corps of the trainee agents graduating from the United States Border Patrol's basic training academy. Although reduced esprit de corps was discussed within the influential constructs, supervisors felt the job of building esprit de corps was now left for supervisors to build. Traditionally, esprit de corps in policing is developed at the basic training academy (Bahn, 1984; Britz, 1997; Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Engleson, 1999; Haarr, 2001; Paoline, 2003; Van Maanen, 1978) and forms the foundation for subsequent team building. No questions in the semi-structured interview were developed specifically to elicit responses regarding team building, the topic emerged from responses two questions in the semi-structured interview process. The two questions eliciting reflections and thoughts about the topic: (1) what results or consequences of the academy decision surprised you the most; and (2) what do you believe were the biggest surprises for the U.S. Border Patrol, as an organization, when the curriculum changed.

Participants described how, previously, individuals graduating from the basic training academy would arrive at Border Patrol stations with a certain level of cohesiveness and esprit de corps. Generally, the level of cohesiveness was described as very high, strong among the cohort, and a source of pride. The cohesiveness of the cohort would later become the foundation for team

building with other Border Patrol Agents due to the shared experiences and expectations. USBP28 typified the general sentiment of supervisors who believed they now had a new role, which was to build esprit de corps that was traditionally the responsibility of the basic academy. The idea of building esprit de corps at the station level was in contrast to supervisor experiences and expectations.

USBP7 explained, “As a supervisor you now had to do something with your unit or team to build that trust and respect.” In the past trust and respect was developed at the basic training academy. USBP9 emphasized Border Patrol Agent trainees were not arriving from the basic training academy as a cohesive group but rather as a group of individuals. He stated, “We now had to build a team within the class and the class within the patrol group.” He further clarified the job of building esprit de corps and team building were once the responsibility of the academy, but this was “[...] now added to all the other things we had to do as supervisors.” USBP20 noted, “Supervisors had a lot of work that should have been done months prior at the basic training academy.” One supervisor pointed out, “the problem is that some supervisors were better than others at it, so now we see problems of not being able to process and the lack of team work or camaraderie.” USBP5 added, “I think it puts more pressure on the supervisor because now they are dealing with a bunch of individuals. Now the supervisor has to build a team.”

USBP10 observed the change in supervisory dynamics was a result of factions created when the basic training academy changed the curriculum. According to USBP31, “the factions were something supervisors had not experienced before and we certainly did not anticipate the outcomes.” USBP24 described the new dynamic between classes as animosity towards each other. He further stated, “It was as if they were competing against each other.” One research study participant described the cohesiveness of classmates in the following manner:

Classmates that you graduate with at the academy are friends that you have for life despite where your career takes you. I think that the bonding of the group dynamic, team dynamic is fractured when maybe half of your team leaves you and leaves you there. They are off going to do what they need to do at the duty stations and you are left there for another month or so getting that extra dose of Spanish. It was a big change to not only Spanish language training, but to the entire idea of esprit de corps. The new process changed what we knew as an organization. (USBP33)

USBP5 believed the combination of the quick growth, high activity levels, and the change at the basic academy created increased pressures on supervisors. He stated, “You have a lot of things on your plate as a supervisor with so many responsibilities and now you have to develop a team from scratch?” USBP15 described the change in reduced esprit de corps as hurting team building. He further pointed out, “camaraderie is at the very first level of being a Border Patrol Agent and the organization reduced it.” USBP21 noted, “The fabric of the Border Patrol on some levels of that socialization piece became frayed.” He did not believe the organization had done enough to correct the problem or as he noted, “fix it.”

### **Assignments Based on Spanish language Abilities**

Eighteen research study participants made 116 references of having to be cognizant of the Spanish language abilities of agents while making daily job assignments. Supervisors described the awareness as a wariness because they found themselves having to adapt to the language deficiencies of the new agents. Supervisors described how Border Patrol Agents had always had a varying level of Spanish language abilities, but previous to the basic training academy change they consistently shared a baseline understanding of the grammatical rules. In addition to understanding the grammatical rules, agents all faced the task of passing a 6 ½ and 10 month

examination of both law and Spanish. The examinations were taken after graduating from the basic training academy. The examinations placed a burden or urgency on the individual agent to continue to improve both their knowledge of law and the Spanish language. Research study participants raised the issue of role adaptation as it relates to daily work assignments for agents when answering: (1) Did you have to adapt in your role as a supervisor to supervise the new agents; and (2) what results or consequences of the academy decision surprised you the most.

Research study participants described how deficiencies in Spanish language abilities to perform certain job requirements caused supervisors to adapt in their roles. USBP7 pointed out, “the number one thing supervisors and training officers tell me is that these trainees came out of the academy and they could not speak Spanish.” USBP10 noted not only did supervisors have to be cognizant of the person but also about their language abilities. A general sentiment described by supervisors is the Spanish language deficiencies caused supervisors to adjust daily operations. One supervisor, who was assigned to a large station, stated “it was hard enough to make assignments for 50 agents. Now we had to consider Spanish language abilities?” USBP15 reflected on the operational impact of the Spanish language deficiencies. He asked rhetorically, “To what degree can you count on an agent to do critical parts of the job based on the language skills. As a supervisor, you begin to adapt to the workforce that is available.” USBP14 described the impact of the Spanish language abilities on supervisors:

They did not have the fundamentals to do their job. I mean they taught them phrases to do parts of the job, but as far as actually speaking to someone it was not there. So in the past you went through that academy class, you learned the tools to learn Spanish. You might not have the right verb but you could probably conjugate it and get your point across well. And so we lost that and where it did trickle down to in the station was the processing piece.

Agents just couldn't do that part of the job very well. Supervisors had to make adjustments based on who could speak Spanish.

USBP31 stated, "I found way too many times a new agent telling me they could not be assigned to processing because they did not know enough Spanish or even calling in sick when they were going to be assigned processing." He further added, "I would never have thought of doing that when I was a trainee."

Due to the language deficiency, USBP17 and USBP28 explained supervisors had to adapt and now consider language ability before making assignments. Previous to the curriculum change at the basic training academy, supervisors rarely considered Spanish language ability when making daily assignments. USBP6 stated, "I have never heard of an agent go on a call to assist another agency and then ask for a Spanish language translator before the change at the basic training academy." He said, "This was occurring much more often and embarrassing to the agency since speaking the Spanish language is a daily necessity." One supervisor described the depth and impact of Spanish language speaking abilities to field operations in the following manner:

We actually had to make some changes, Mike and I, were actually setting up the tele-video conferencing system for processing. When we were doing that we found that trying to assign someone to process on a daily basis was not happening very well. The fact is you would run into these non-native speakers who couldn't communicate in Spanish. It was painful and we had to change up the way we did things and create these processing teams. We did this just so we could be efficient in processing. This was really unheard of because we had always prided ourselves in "cleaning what we caught." (USBP12)

Several supervisors recall when they were first level supervisors, prior to the curriculum change, Spanish language ability was not a consideration when making daily assignments. USBP3

explains supervisors now started to ask themselves, “Do I put them in a place where they’re unlikely to process or contact someone?” The new dynamic was a change from how supervisors traditionally made daily assignments. USBP33 stated, “It used to be a Border Patrol agent was a Border Patrol Agent with the same skill sets, but this is not the case anymore.”

USBP12 described the language deficiencies as unheard of because in the past agents prided themselves in “cleaning what we caught.” Several research study participants described, “cleaning what we caught” as an idiomatic term to indicate arresting agents were responsible for fully processing individuals they arrested. Fully processing individuals at the minimum required interviewing the individual, usually in the Spanish language, in order to obtain biographical information. At the most, fully processing includes executing sworn statements in the Spanish language. USBP29 explains that nearly ten years later there are agents who cannot interview or take a sworn statement in the Spanish language. He succinctly explained, “[...] they cannot speak a lick of Spanish.” USBP3 added, “You know if nothing else it resulted in allot of agents not being mission ready.” Supervisors explained because they were more cognizant of the Spanish language abilities of trainees the indirect impact was a heavier burden on the more experienced agents. The more experienced agents were now performing more of the tasks that required the Spanish language.

Whether it was at PDN (Paseo Del Norte) or in a plain clothes capacity they got this load, it's 1 on 10 or 2 on 6 whatever the case may be you have to supervise differently and there were some cases where again that 10-8 Spanish-speaking agent would be like, “what gives man” it's his case, he's got to clean it, well the supervisor would have to go explain “yeah well he has a little trouble putting it together,” not with the technical piece but the communication piece. Now you begin to supervise differently. (USBP16)

USBP25 explained that not only did supervisors adapt so did the experienced agents. He stated, “The more experienced agents began to tell the new agents to get out of the way and go do something else like roll prints.” He added, “The agents would say, let me knock out this conversation part because we need to get this information and we don't have the time to be waiting.”

USBP3 noted, “The Spanish language deficiency will become an even greater burden to supervisors in the future because the agency is not equipped, once that trainee is in the field, to help them.” He suggested Spanish speaking abilities are a diminishing skill if not practiced. USBP17 asked rhetorically, “What happens if their language knowledge base is not strong to begin with? Supervisors are not intended to be Spanish instructors.” USBP15 wondered, “If agents are not fluent in the Spanish language, nobody is looking, and they know they have to speak Spanish to talk to someone will they stop the vehicle or initiate that consensual encounter.” He believes the Spanish language issues have a wide variety of effects on the United States Border Patrol. Lastly, several research study participants indicated the experienced agents worried about the safety of the new agents because they communicated so poorly. USBP21 described the officer safety issue by retelling a conversation he had with a Border Patrol Agent.

USBP21 asked the agent, okay so if I said “matalo” (kill him) to you does that mean anything to you? No? Okay do you know what the verb “matar” (to kill) is? He had no clue what I was telling him. He said that he had never heard the word before. I just think we put people in harm's way, they don't even understand the verb to kill you.

### **Managing and Teaching More**

Twenty-eight research study participants made 160 references to having to manage more both the experienced and newer agents while having to teach fundamental skills to the newer

agents. Supervisors generally referred to managing as leading, motivating, encouraging and influencing the Border Patrol Agents they supervised. As Engel and Worden (2003) pointed out, a police supervisor must manage subordinate police officer's discretion in an environment that is less stable and predictable than most professions, and now supervisors must provide more management to the agents. USBP11 described the increased management of the agents has a greater burden on supervisors who were already adapting in their roles due to the lack of Spanish language skills and cohesiveness of the new agents. Multiple participants directly or indirectly described having to teach the newer agents skills that they believe should have been taught at the basic training academy. Research study participants spoke about managing and teaching agents when answering the following questions: (1) Did you have to adapt in your role as a supervisor to supervise the new agents; (2) what results or consequences of the academy decision surprised you the most; and (3) what results or consequences of the academy decision do you believe surprised the organization.

One research study participant referred to managing the mixture of experienced and newer agents as a supervisory dynamic that challenged traditional supervisory roles. Another supervisor noted the socialization process was so different between the types of Border Patrol agents that a supervisor's management style had to evolve. USBP8 emphasized previous to the basic training academy change supervisors did not experience the varying personalities and attitudes of the newer agents. USBP1 noted supervisors could not take a "cookie cutter" approach to mentoring, coaching, or leading and had to adapt. He further stated, "Honestly, just to be blunt, I think it became a lot more about babysitting." USBP4 added, "it took the supervisors a little bit more of managing people's style, instead of just concentrating on operations. It was difficult because we were getting our butts kicked." USBP2 offered the increased level of management required for

both the experienced and newer agents could be challenging for supervisors. One research study participant described the combination of high illicit activity levels, increased citizen activism, and the requirement to teach more as the following:

Man, the work was really heavy during that time. It seemed like we were getting killed with big groups and dope almost every day. At the same time, we had all those groups coming out placing water stations in the desert and others who wanted to be Border Patrol Agents trying to patrol the border, what a mess. To make things worse we start to get a lot of trainees who were not prepared to do the job, and journeymen agents who were asking us why the new guys couldn't do the job. What could we tell them? It was tough enough trying to manage the trainees, but you add journeymen who are not happy makes it real tough on supervisors. (USBP27)

Several supervisors noted the increased managing of agents also extended to a large portion of the experienced agents. USBP8 believed the basic training academy change had a negative impact not only on the agents coming out of the academy, but for the rank and file agents in the field as well. He recalls experienced agents asking him why the academy changed and he did not have an answer. USBP11 noted the integration of the new agents into the workforce not only forced supervisors to adapt and view their role differently, but the experienced agents also had to adapt. USBP32 described the non-supervisory adaptation as a re-educating the more experienced agents. The term re-education was a general reference on supervisor's attempts to remind the more experienced agents the culture of the organization was to help socialize and teach the job to the agents. USBP13 noted, "We knew the organization had abbreviated the academy for the new guys and we naturally just lowered our expectations for them without even thinking about it." He further added, "I believe the same thing happened with our journeyman agents when they looked at the

new agents.” USBP33 described the general sentiment of the impact of the basic training academy curriculum change in the following manner:

We made this change to a process and at first it may seemingly point to a more efficient means to an end to some. I will tell you to those that are dealing with the change it is a difficult thing departing from what we knew as tradition. Now you have, I think it’s having one class come in, now you are having two classes come in from just a logistical stand point in trying to get them acclimated into the workforce and it takes more effort. Sups had a tough time and so did the journeymen because it was so different everyone had to adapt.

USBP19 recalls he would have to remind his first level supervisors they would need to adapt and verify the field was training the new agents correctly. Generally, research study participants expressed they had to spend more time, more energy, and more manpower managing agents in the field.

Several supervisors emphasized the biggest surprise for them was that they expected to get trainees out of the basic training academy ready to perform basic essential job functions. The supervisors argue they did not receive new agents ready to perform basic functions. They suggest supervisors had to start from the beginning with the new agents. USBP6 described “having to teach the new agents from square one.” USBP31 stated, “Sometimes I felt like a field training officer because of the basic stuff we had to cover, but hey it is all part of the job being a supervisor.” USBP22 noted, “We continued our own training regimen which a lot of folks were doing. You almost had to because you had folks who couldn’t complete a case without it. That is what we did to adjust.” One supervisor described the level of teaching he felt he had to do in the following manner:

The problem is that after the trainees completed the academy we had to help them with basic stuff. You know the stuff that they should have learned at the academy but they didn't. I found way too many times a trainee telling me they couldn't be assigned to processing because they did not know enough Spanish. I guess I was much more hands on with the new agents because it was not like we could just let them go with minimum supervision it took a lot. I guess that is what my job is, right? I am supposed to teach them; I just did not think it would be for basic stuff. To the credit of some agents they hired tutors to teach them Spanish so they could get better at their job while others really had the mentality of "What for?" I already got the job. It is the last group that becomes the problem. I just had to work with those a lot more than the other agents. (USBP31)

The research study participants noted the United States Border Patrol had always provided some form of field training for new agents graduating from the basic training academy. Most supervisors described post-basic training academy as honing basic and foundational skills that should have been previously learned. A general sentiment described by the research study participants was that the newer agents graduating from the changed basic training academy lacked several basic and foundational skills.

The difference between the "old patrol" and the 12-week agent is that you have to spoon-feed the new agents. This even applied to those individuals who could test out of the Spanish language, the ones who had the ability to speak Spanish. I do not think they were coming out of the academy with a full comprehension of our authorities. Unfortunately, I do not think they understood the basic job functions of a Border Patrol Agent. Can you imagine not understanding your basic authorities? This means a lot of work has to be done by the supervisors. (USBP6)

Multiple research study participants explained traditionally good supervisors had always taken the time to teach and make sure that whenever someone was lacking in a skill the supervisors would create opportunities to close that gap. USBP13 stated, “The problem was there were more people who needed more guidance and to be taught the essentials of the job than there were experienced agents and supervisors.” USBP24 explained supervisors were more hands on with newer agents and did not consider it in a negative manner, “but it takes away from our other duties as well.”

One research study participant emphasized it was the responsibility of first level supervisors to make sure they provided opportunities to help the new agents develop or sharpen skills. USBP21 noted, “Supervisors had to become more hands on because there was no longer that Senior Patrol Agent to take the trainee under his wings, recognize the deficiency, teach and show him.” As USBP20 noted, “we had to supervise bigger teams with less experienced agents while training others that were arriving almost weekly.” USBP28 explained the struggle of supervisors managing bigger teams with less experienced agents in the following manner:

With the supervisory ratio going the other way made me understand, well the change was hitting at the operator level. The ratio was getting wider and it was not going up to where it needed to get. We were adding agents, we were asked to do 100% pre-primary inspection, and so now you had pull your more seasoned agents to do this. This was usually the K-9 handlers, and putting them on more pre-primary time. Which is very effective in the enforcement part, but now you are pulling them out of the training and mentorship part that journeymen provide. Now you got the requirement for the supervisors, again to be more engaged, to be more of a direct teacher and mentor at a time we are having more agents per supervisor at any other time. At that time the machine was really rolling, cranking out more and more agents.

## **More Mentorship Required**

Thirty research study participants made 119 references to having to provide more mentorship to the new agents graduating from the basic training academy. Several research study participants explained more people needed more attention when compared to times before the basic training academy change. The attention was not simply teaching job skills, but also extended to mentorship. USBP18 emphasized the speed of the agents graduating from the academy and the lack of their skills placed a heavier workload on supervisors. He wanted to make clear that mentoring had always been part of a supervisor's job, but "the sheer number of agents resulted in more mentoring on a more frequent basis." USBP15 added, "Supervisors were much more of a big brother when it came to processing arrestees and basic law enforcement techniques." USBP27 stated, "Supervisors had to step up and do a ton more mentorship" because of all the things that were not developed at the basic training academy. USBP4 remembers it took a great deal of supervisory time to mentor, mold, and teach the new agents. He states the new agents were not low character people, he described them as "just different [...] they had a different demeanor." USBP16 added, "Supervisors had to adapt in their role and become mentors as well." One research study participant described the new agents in the following manner:

Do not get me wrong there is still good hard working agents, but the overarching theme is that they get in more trouble. It seems like they forget they are federal law enforcement officers when it comes to their off-duty time. They abuse leave more and they are not preparing for their future. These agents do not invest in TSP (Thrift Savings Plan), it is like they didn't get that mentoring or that advise or they are not seeing the reality of it. (USBP7)

USBP8 described the duties of a first level supervisor, at the time, as ‘herding cats’ while trying to be a mentor and maintaining several other responsibilities. He offered that it was a real challenge for supervisors. USBP18 further added, “As a supervisor you had to provide more detailed explanations as to why certain things have to be done and how we want them done.” Several research study participants commented when a supervisor put more effort into becoming a mentor there was an expectation the trainee agent would strive to improve their work performance. As USBP3 observed, “the level of commitment or self-dedication to do self-development by the trainee agent did not meet expectations.” Multiple research study participants described the increased mentorship caused a dependency by the trainee agents on supervisors. USBP29 explained, “Border Patrol Agents are expected to make decisions and be able to operate on their own without constantly having a supervisor nearby telling them what to do.” USBP7 described the general sentiment of the research study participants regarding the increased level of mentorship required in the following manner:

It really becomes even more important to know your people especially as a first liner. What motivates that individual? Certainly all this leadership training that is out there that we can apply. At the end of the day we are still a law enforcement agency. You have a lot of freedom, especially in the Border Patrol. You are expected to make decisions and be able to operate on your own without constantly having a supervisor at your side to tell you yes or no. That is one of the challenges at my station specifically. The agents are always asking, where is the supervisor? I just think, you are a GS-12 federal law enforcement agent, you need to make some of those decisions on your own and justify it. What kids!

USBP26 noted, “My job is to give the agent the vision, how it gets done is up to the agent. I am giving them that freedom and latitude, but we don’t see that anymore.” USBP2 explained, “The new agents simply do not operate very well without specific instructions.”

### **Discussion of Results**

Data generated through the research study participant’s interviews was the cornerstone for the development and examination of patterns and themes. Since the study participant’s experiences fostered the identification of connections and links between events grounded theory was an appropriate data analysis framework (Guba & Lincoln, 2000; Schwandt, 2000). In this case, the purpose was to understand the perceptions and experiences of United States Border Patrol supervisors to learn how supervisors adapted in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process changed. Grounded theory allowed me to derive a general abstract theory, grounded in the views of the research study participants, of how supervisors adapted in their role as supervisors when the initial basic training academy socialization process changed.

All 32 research study participants were supervisors for the United States Border Patrol since October 1, 2007. The date is significant because it is the date the basic training academy for the organization implemented a curriculum change that would impact the initial socialization process of the agency. The research study participants reflect diverse supervisory experiences from both southern and northern border sectors of the United States Border Patrol. The supervisory diversity reflected in this research study is sufficient to inform the research study’s central question: how do supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process has changed. The analysis of the research data clearly pointed out supervisor adaptation during a period of changing organizational socialization was significantly influenced

by expectations based on previous experiences. The most meaningful and relevant findings for this study were presented.

The findings of this study show supervisors did adapt in their role as supervisors when the basic training academy changed the initial organizational socialization process. Coding of this research study's data resulted in the sorting of codes into two areas. First, influential constructs helped to understand how supervisors interpreted their experiences (Harris, 1994; Shafritz & Ott, 2001) when confronted with initial organizational socialization change. Brickson's (2007) idea of a collective identity based on shared organizational experiences suggest supervisors role identity is strongly aligned with perceptions and expectations first developed in the socialization process. Based on the collective identity developed at the basic training academy (Van Maanen, 1983) organizational perceptions and expectations are established. It is these perceptions and expectations that are influential to an individual's view on organizational changes and provide insight into the perceptions, by supervisors, of the socialization process change (Brickson, 2007; Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Harris, 1994). The influential constructs for this study are:

1. Supervisory preparation
2. Supervisory challenges
3. Trainee preparedness

Literature about memories of experiences (Clark, 2002; Mosak & Di Prietro, 2006) notes that five to seven memories of experiences are required to develop patterns and themes within an individual. Padaki (2000) suggests patterns and themes from supervisor's recollections of their own initial socialization into the organization provide an understanding into the supervisor's value system. Research study participants were asked about their basic training academy experiences and what they believed to be the formal and informal purpose of the basic training academy. None

of the research study participants had difficulty recalling their own experiences even after two or three decades. Nearly all of the supervisors interviewed provided eight or nine examples of their own basic training academy experiences. Among the experiences recalled, all research study participants noted a divergence from their own experiences and expectations compared to their perceptions of the curriculum change at the basic training academy. Padaki (2000) argues certain beliefs developed through experiences in the socialization process are peripheral, while others are central and help shape their view of their supervisory role. The influential constructs do not explain how supervisors adapted in their supervisory role, but they do help explain why they felt they needed to adapt.

Second, 29 research study participants presented specific references on how they adapted in their supervisory role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process changed. Coding of this research study's data resulted in the coding of four thematic areas of supervisory role adaptation. Research study participants adapted in their roles by:

1. Increased team building
2. Making assignments based on Spanish language abilities
3. Managing and teaching more
4. Providing more mentorship

As in the work of Chao et al., (1994) the data for this research study suggests the change in basic training academy procedures, perceived organizational values, and socialization triggered a need for role adjustment by supervisors. Supervisors in this study perceived the change in the basic training academy as a change in the socialization process and to a large degree a change in organizational values. The organizational value most often cited by the research study participants was the reduction of esprit de corps. Organizational esprit de corps was discussed by nearly all

research study participants as a basis for learning and improving their occupational skills. Basu and Palazoo (2008) argue supervisory role adjustment is often predicated on how supervisors translate their experiences into organizational realities and perceptions.

The interaction and dynamics of the internal organizational dimensions (ecology, milieu, culture, and organizational structure) form the constructs for individual and organizational behavior (Gioia & Thomas, 1996; Owens & Valesky, 2007). Not only do the constructs shape the formal and informal behavior of an individual but they help frame organizational views and experiences (Wieck et al., 2005). As a result sensemaking occurs within the individual. Sensemaking is generally framed as an individual's set of theories and assumptions about organizational realities and relationships that help define their knowledge and reality of the organization (Harris, 1994; Shafritz & Ott, 2001). The theories and assumptions then become the outlines of expectations with certain ranges of acceptability providing meaning. In periods of change, uncertainty, ambiguity and organizational growth (Harris, 1994; Owens & Valesky, 2007; Wieck et al., 2005) individuals, in this case supervisors, adapt in their roles when there is a divergence from their expectations. In this research study, supervisors adapted in their role because they perceived the curriculum change at the basic training academy resulted in less skilled, less cohesive, and more supervisory dependent employees.

### **Relevancy of the Study**

Organizational socialization is a directed process that establishes itself in formal and informal manners in early employment (Baker & Feldman, 1990). The strength of the literature (Ashforth et al., 2007; Britz, 1997; Chao et al., 1994; Harro, 2000; Paoline, 2003; Taormina, 1997; Violanti, 1993) in organizational socialization centers on the notion of the impact on long-term job satisfaction. Police socialization studies (Baker & Feldman, 1990; Hopper, 1977; Fielding, 1984;

Karp & Stenmark, 2011; Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) also examine long-term job satisfaction and how newcomers are socialized into the organization. In addition, the studies generally focus on the basic training academy and field training officers. Supervisors, who are an organizational product of the formal and informal socialization process, are often examined in their role as an incumbent in a pre-existing and shared socialization process. This study examined how supervisors adapted in their role as supervisors when the organizational socialization process changed. This research study provides insight into how supervisors view their supervisory role as it relates to organizational values and expectations as an outcome to the socialization process. The findings suggest supervisor's own organizational socialization experiences influences their role as supervisors.

## **Chapter 5: Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations**

The purpose of this constructivist grounded theory study was to understand the perceptions and experiences of United States Border Patrol supervisors to learn how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process changes. This study, as in constructivist research, sought to understand the multiple layers of individual experiences through the meanings they attach to their own experiences (Guba & Lincoln, 2000; Schwandt, 2000). A constructivist design for this study was appropriate because the focus of the analysis was centered on the meanings attributed by the research study participants (Charmaz, 2000). In addition, this research study emphasized research study participant's interpretations of events, assumptions, and implicit meanings grounded in their experiences, thus grounded theory as the data analysis framework is not only useful but appropriate (Colker, 2008). In this case, the process of examining supervisory role adaptation and constantly comparing the data to other research study participants explained how supervisors adapted and will help predict future role behavior.

### **Summary of the Findings**

The purpose of this study was to determine how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial socialization process changes. Police organizational socialization is widely researched to determine long-term effects on job satisfaction, but very little has been done to study how supervisors adapt in their role due to a change in the socialization process of the organization. Chao et al., (1994) suggest the change in work procedures, organizational goals and values, or socialization may trigger a need for role adjustment by the supervisor. The findings indicate supervisors do indeed adapt in their supervisory role and they do so by: (1) increasing team building; (2) assigning duties based on skill levels; (3) managing and teaching more; and (4) providing more mentorship. The significance of this study is that the findings could potentially

contribute to the theoretical development of understanding how supervisors interpret their experiences and adapt in their role when the organizational socialization process is significantly altered. The study addresses two literature gaps:

1. What influences supervisors to adapt when the initial organizational socialization changes.
2. How supervisors adapt in their roles as supervisors.

### **Discussion Based on the Findings**

These research findings are consistent with previous research on the formal and informal purpose of a basic law enforcement training academy. Results of this study indicate the initial socialization at the basic training academy is consistent with the body of scholarly literature. In terms of the research question asking the study participants about their own experiences at the basic training academy the findings are consistent with the literature reviewed in chapter two. The body of literature has suggested newcomers into police organizations aim to demonstrate skill proficiency and acceptable reaction to the organizational socialization process in order to be accepted (Ashforth et al., 2007; Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Fielding, 1984; Jones, 1986; Morrison, 1993; Taormina, 1997; Van Maanen, 1973; 1978; Violanti, 1993). It is during the socialization process that a psychological contract is developed between the police recruit and the organization. Post (1992) described police academy training as a method to expose new police officers to the culture of the profession. The analysis of this study data aligns with the premise proposed by Post. The socialization of the profession is so persuasive supervisor's in this study indicated role adjustment was primarily predicated on expectations developed at the basic training academy.

Research study participants were asked to express their opinion of the formal and informal purpose of the basic training academy. Supervisors described the formal and informal purpose of

the basic training academy as a series of rites of passages. Successful completion of a segment means the individual is closer to full acceptance by organizational incumbent members. The findings of this study builds, in particular, on the work of Chappell-Lanza-Kaduce (2010), Haarr (2001), Karp and Stenmark (2011), and Van Maanen and Schein (1979). These studies characterize the formal and informal processes at a police basic training academy as well defined stage model systems, yet some aspects are invisible and persuasive throughout the process. The results of my research study builds upon previous research work.

The next finding indicates supervisory socialization expectations are largely based on the supervisor's own experiences of socialization at the basic training academy. Generally, almost every police officer in the organization share common experiences of having worked in the field upon graduation from the basic training academy (Densten, 2003). More specifically, these same experiences provide the influential frameworks on how they view their supervisory role. The findings of the central question of this study, how do supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process has changed, is consistent with the literature. Supervisory adaptation occurs when new variables are inserted into the supervisor-employee relationship (Chao et al., 1994). In this case, the new variable introduced was the change in the basic training academy curriculum. The change resulted in an alteration of the long established socialization process. Aligned with the work of Van Maanen (1984) the data analysis for this study indicated role adaptation is based on the lessons and culture learned in the supervisor's old roles.

One of the main concepts that emerged from this research study is the collective identity of the supervisor-employee relationship, based on the initial socialization process, may be stronger than the literature suggests. HaberFeld (2002) and Quinet et al., (2003) have proposed field

training officers and peers have the strongest impact on new employee socialization. Additionally, Ingram (2013) described the supervisor-employee relationship in policing as one demarcated by a top-down approach suggesting little room for informal supervisory influence. The demarcation is generally described as a clear and separate layer of responsibilities. This study suggests supervisor and employees, within the same organization and who share the same socialization experiences, have stronger informal bonds than those supervisors and employees who do not share the same experiences. The analysis demonstrated supervisors identified those employees with the same socialization background as one group, while others who had a different socialization experience as a separate group. The data suggests a splintered socialization process influences how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors, and how they align themselves with the workforce. The variation of alignment in this study suggest supervisory adaptation is influenced by their own experiences in the organization's socialization process is greater than suggested in the literature.

An analysis of the data clearly suggests supervisors placed a heavy emphasis on their socialization experiences at the basic training academy as the foundation for supervisory expectations and their subsequent role adaptation. Generally, supervisors viewed the formal purpose of the basic training academy as providing the skills and job knowledge to perform the day-to-day job functions. Research study participants viewed the curriculum change at the basic training academy as diminishing language skills training. Although supervisors believed the responsibility of the language training rested with the basic training academy, the supervisors adjusted in their role to compensate for the perceived weakness. Research study participants described the informal purpose of the basic training academy as the method to inform new employees the culture, habits, and accepted behavior by the organization. Learning in the informal portion of the basic training academy resulted in strong sense of esprit de corps and organizational

cohesiveness. It is the emphasis placed on esprit de corps by supervisors that provided the framework for supervisory role adaptation.

There are at least three potential contributions to the literature of socialization and supervisory policing. First, supervisor-employee socialization is a multiple dimensional dynamic that is linked to the initial socialization process. The link is potentially stronger and more influential than previously believed. Supervisory influence over subordinates has been earlier believed to be the weakest informal influence on the employee post basic training academy. Generally, the literature has argued the field training officer and peers have the strongest influences. Second, sensemaking by supervisors plays a significant role in how they interpret change. Interpretations are based on their own experiences, in which they attach meaning and make assumptions to act. Interestingly, nearly all of the research study participants had been employed by the agency for over two decades and one for over three decades, yet the socialization process that occurred so distant still had a meaningful impact in how they viewed their supervisory role. Third, supervisors will adapt, effectively or ineffectively, to a change in the initial organizational socialization process with or without leadership development or training. As multiple research study participants noted, some supervisors are very good at effective adaptation, while others fail.

### **Implications of the Study**

This section of the research study report addresses the implications of the research study findings. I suggest my study offers evocative evidence to the larger body of literature on supervision and could potentially inform policy makers on the impacts of organizational change. The implications stemming from the data analysis is as follows: (1) theoretical contribution; (2) practical implications for leadership development; and (3) policy implications on organizational

change. The analysis of the research data clearly indicates the characteristics of supervisory role adaptation has to do more with how supervisors identify and relate with their own socialization experiences rather than what they do as supervisors.

### **Theoretical Contribution**

The lack of information about the effect of changing the initial organizational socialization process could limit the design and implementation of workforce developmental efforts for supervisors. The limitations also restrict researcher's efforts in refining theoretical approaches to this invisible as well as visible dynamic of organizational socialization. Parry (1998) argues limitations such as these could ultimately impact the quality of supervisory training received by supervisors, and eventually influence the quality of supervision they will provide to their subordinates. Understanding the views, experiences, and attitudes of law enforcement supervisors may further outline a theory about leadership approaches to organizational socialization change. For example, the Ladder of Inference Theory first conceptualized by Argyris (1993) and later expanded by Ross (1994) and Ayers (2002) offers a useful viewpoint on leadership development. The Ladder of Inference Theory has found a place in leadership development programs (Ayers, 2002; Tompkins, 2001). The theory provides an opportunity for supervisors to understand their own role behaviors, and how the behaviors are affected by their own past experiences.

The theory portrays human behaviors or actions as the top rung of a ladder that evolve from a mental process, the lower rungs of a ladder, that is used prior to an action occurring. The lower rungs of the ladder or the mental processes include selecting pieces of data, attaching meaning to the data, making assumptions, drawing conclusions, and adopting beliefs that transition to human behaviors or actions (Argyris, 1993; Ross, 1994). The bottom rung of the ladder is information we gather from our senses and is what propels a person to climb the ladder eventually taking action.

Climbing the ladder, figuratively, occurs within seconds and in most cases the leader is unaware the behavior or action was a result of gathering information (visual or non-visual cues), attaching meaning, making an assumption, concluding, and forming beliefs (Lambruschini, 2016). The theory's tenets are similar to Wieck's (1995) theory of sensemaking. Sensemaking is generally framed as the individual's set of theories and assumptions about organizational realities and relationships. The theories and assumptions then become the outlines of expectations.

The theory implies an individual collects data and attaches meaning in almost a vacuum without consideration or influences from past experiences within the organization. The literature on organizational socialization indicates supervisors use their own previous experiences to sort which pieces of data they will use and help define its meaning. The data from this study makes it clear the organizational socialization process is persuasive in the decision making process of individuals. Socialization literature (Brickson, 2007; Britz, 1997; Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Chao et al., 1994; Falcione & Wilson, 1988; Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) indicates formal and informal processes, to include anticipatory socialization, has significant impact on shaping how individuals view their role. The data analysis of this study strongly aligns with the socialization literature on how occupational role behavior is shaped and formed. Incorporating the organizational socialization process into the bottom three 'rungs' (selecting pieces of data, attaching meaning, and making assumptions) of the Ladder of Inference Theory (Argyris, 1993) provides a better understanding of supervisory role behavior and provides additional depth to the theory. Strengthening the theory by considering the organizational socialization process provides a broader base of understanding why behaviors and actions take place. Further development of the theory can potentially improve leadership development programs.

Applying this study's results to the Ladder of Inference Theory (Argyris, 1993) and in particular supervisor data selection, developing meaning, and making assumptions would provide greater clarity on supervisor behavior in role adaptation. Karp and Stenmark (2011) argue organizational socialization creates formal and informal points of reference for new employees into the organization. The points of reference for the new employee, or in this case the supervisor, provides expectations of organizational values, culture, and milieu. Divergences from these points of reference can potentially create negative perceptions of the change. In this example, the change was the ability of new agents to 'test-out' of the Spanish language portion of the basic training academy. Spanish language training had long been associated as part of the socialization process and role identification. The research study participants attached meaning to the change, generally negative, and made assumptions based on the meaning attached. I propose the organizational socialization process should be considered an intricate piece of the base in which the Ladder of Inference Theory sits atop. In doing so, supervisory behavior to include why and how role adaptation occurs would be better understood.

### **Practical Implications for Leadership Development**

The field of supervision and leadership continues to evolve from early leadership theories centered on studying individual leaders to the most recent theories on the impact of the organizational environment on leadership (Lambruschini, 2016). Organizational topics such as milieu, culture, and organizational structure have long been considered (Owens & Valesky, 2007) when attempting to understand the behaviors of an organization. These same topics are viewed as key when studying leadership and supervision characteristics within the organization. Lambruschini (2016) argues studying leadership and developing leadership programs should include a wider range of variables. I assert without considering the organizational socialization

process in leadership research we are only receiving ‘part of the picture’ of how supervisors make sense of their experiences and adapt in their role. This research study provides the opportunity to gain a better understanding of the ‘entire picture’ of what influences supervisors and how they adapt in their role during times of organizational socialization change. This supposition aligns well with previous work conducted on leadership tenets (Ayers, 2002; Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Colker, 2008; Densten, 2003; Lambruschini, 2016).

Understanding the role of supervisors in the organizational socialization process provides additional clarity and is closer to the ‘entire picture’ on how and why supervisors adapt. As a result, one implication is that leadership is cultural (Colker, 2008). What I mean by this term is that leadership is much more than an approach, but rather includes environments and experiences that shape supervisor’s perspectives. An analysis of this study’s data clearly indicates supervisors enter the new position with the lessons and experiences learned in their old roles and socialized into the organization as those they supervise. In this case, nearly half of the agents they supervised did not experience the same socialization process. Research study participants described how the change created three types of socialization for employees of the same organization. The varying types of socialization caused supervisors to modify their role as supervisors. Understanding how supervisors make sense of their experiences may provide insight as to why some supervisory behaviors and values are more predominate over others. The study highlighted the high value supervisors placed on their own experiences and interpersonal connections with those they supervise.

Another implication for leadership development is a review of the abilities of supervisors to build teams, to teach, and provide mentorship in an efficient manner. One research study participant described how he adapted in his role as “we just did it” because there was a need to

adapt. His response was typical of the sentiment by the study participants in which they used intuition to sense deficiencies in teamwork and mentorship. Supervisors use intuition regularly and consider it important in periods of chaos, making judgments of people, and organizational change (Lambruschini, 2016). Although nearly all supervisors described role adaptation, none spoke about any training regarding building teams, teaching, and developing mentorship. The general expectation is that supervisors needed to provide those elements, and were simply expected to do them well. Unfortunately as one supervisor pointed out, not all supervisors were able to efficiently adapt in their role. As a result some new agents were the recipients of good role adaptation while others were not.

A final suggested implication for leadership development is the idea of working with a coach or mentor. Generally, the idea of coaching and mentorship for leadership development is conducted within the organization itself (Lambruschini, 2016). My study reflected supervisor's perspectives are largely based on their own socialization into the organization creating a collective identity. Research study participants adapted in their role because they attached meaning, made assumptions, and drew conclusions (Ayers, 2002) of the organizational change at the United States Border Patrol basic training academy. Perhaps, designing a leadership development program that includes a coach or mentor from outside the organization would provide an opportunity for supervisors to better understand how they make sense of their behaviors. This approach would reduce the organizational 'lens' that may cloud the perspective. For example, United States Border Patrol supervisors could have coaches or mentors from other Department of Homeland Security law enforcement entities who do not necessarily understand the agency but do understand the department. An organizational approach to 'cross-pollinating' coaches and mentors would provide an opportunity to learn broader perspectives of supervision.

## **Policy Implications on Organizational Change**

Rapid organizational growth of state and federal government entities is generally a response to an issue rising to the top of a policy agenda (Sabatier & Weible, 2014). In the case of border security, policy decisions in the early 2000's led to the doubling of personnel for the United States Border Patrol. The intent of the policy decision was to increase the size of the agency coupled with other resources, in a short period of time, to increase the level of border security. This research study suggests there are at least two implications for policy makers in regards to organizational growth. First, organizational decisions have unintended consequences on the organizational values and perceptions. In this case, the change to the basic training academy was not clearly communicated and was viewed by supervisors as a change to organizational tradition. Second, the analysis of the data suggests leadership and organizational socialization are not two separate issues but intertwined in experiences, expectations, and behaviors. Policy makers should consider organizational changes in a holistic view rather than satisfying an immediate policy agenda. A broader view of the intended and unintended consequences of potential change may better inform the decision making process.

## **Recommendations**

### **Future Research**

I have two suggestions for further research. First, I would suggest utilizing a mixed methods approach in which the supervisor background questionnaire is further expanded. Although this research study utilized a questionnaire, this was not a mixed methods study. An expanded questionnaire could provide further depth into such areas of supervisory training topical areas, frequency and adequacy of training, and the role of socialization in supervisory training programs. In addition, a deeper probing of supervisor's perspectives on the formal and informal

purpose of the basic training academy would provide a richer understanding of how supervisors interpret their experiences. An expanded look into the importance of socialization at the supervisory levels may provide insight into the mental process of deciding how individuals adapt in their supervisory role. Second, my research question focused on better understanding how supervisors adapt in their role as supervisors when the initial organizational socialization process changes. I suggest further research include non-supervisory personnel who are impacted by supervisory adaptation directly and indirectly. The additional data would provide robust information from another perspective on how well the adaptation occurred. It is my belief organizational socialization and leadership are only half the picture without studying both supervisors and those being led.

## **Leadership**

The results of this research study has led to multiple observations and two recommendations that directly apply to supervisors of the United States Border Patrol. The United States Border Patrol status as a law large federal law enforcement agency that has been the focus of policy makers and the public for at least two decades (Longmire, 2014) makes this organization a relevant case study. The findings certainly suggest the recommendations are generalizable and applicable to the broader spectrum of law enforcement organizations.

**Alignment of organizational values and supervisory experiences.** The commitment and passion for the esprit de corps described by the research study participants is persuasive and unified by the supervisors interviewed. It is apparent how supervisors applied and used their own socialization experiences as part of their own role adjustment within the organization. Role adjustment was primarily predicated on experiences developed at the basic training academy. The idea of sense-making by supervisors played a significant role on how supervisors interpreted

organizational change. The themes of esprit de corps, cohesiveness, and teamwork by organizational team members at all levels was an emphasis by the research study participants and important to the collective identity of the organization. The organizational change at the basic training academy appears to have fractured the collective identity of the organization. In case of future agency growth, the United States Border Patrol or other law enforcement agencies should emphasize the practice of those behaviors, valued by the organization, at the basic training academy. In addition, those organizational values should be consistent throughout all levels of the organization. Given the importance of organizational values and supervisory experiences are to the interpretation of organizational change, organizations should develop strategic training plans that include the impact of the organizational socialization process on supervisors.

Van Maanen (1978) argued a shared organizational socialization process and resulting experiences are the drivers for employee motivation, behavior, and role adjustment. Strong socialization processes that are consistent throughout an employee's career creates a collective organizational identity (Brickson, 2007). Organizations with a consistent collective organizational identity are more likely to have employees who maintain a strong association through esprit de corps, cohesiveness, and teamwork. The sense of shared common values has a significant impact how supervisors view their role and adapt to change. Leaders in the United States Border Patrol and in the broader sense of law enforcement organizations should strive to create consistent experiences and expectations that are rooted in the collective identity of the organizational values. Consistency may reduce supervisory uncertainty in role adaptation and improve role efficiency.

**Supervisory role adaptation with or without organizational assistance.** Literature in policing and this study clearly demonstrate that police supervisors must demonstrate a unique set of competencies and attributes to manage police operations. Research study participants discussed

the ideas of team building, managing and teaching more, and providing more mentorship to those they supervise. Supervisors clearly expressed the professional development of others and preparing their subordinates for the future was not only important, but a supervisor's responsibility. The organizational change that resulted in the change of the initial socialization process presented supervisors with a unique and complex challenge. Nearly all the research study participants described how they adapted in their supervisory role, but not one single supervisor described or implied the organization prepared them for the change. In some cases, supervisors doubted the effectiveness of the role adaptation. In many cases, study participants described how the organization was surprised at the informal consequences to the socialization change.

The professional development of others by supervisors, in this case, did not appear to have much influence by higher level leaders and management of the organization. The literature (Allen, 1982; Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Bennett & Hess, 2004; Ingram, 2013; Ingram & Lee, 2015; Van Maanen, 1978) certainly suggests supervisors will adapt in their role with or without organizational assistance. Considering the level of public scrutiny on police it appears that leadership in police agencies place their organizations at high risk for failure by not shaping supervisory role behavior or adaptation through training (Brickson, 2007). Research study participants described a process in which they were allowed a high level of latitude to address new employee shortcomings independently. The United States Border Patrol must integrate the impact of organizational changes into supervisory training as a core strategy for supervisory professional development. In confronting organizational issues the United States Border Patrol and other police organizations must help supervisors develop organizational wide solutions for the most complex issues. Developing a supervisory development program that reduces role ambiguity through training would allow supervisors to adjust to organizational change quickly and effectively. In

addition, police organizations would be in a better position to shape and inform supervisory role adaptation.

### **Limitations**

I identified four potential limitations to this research study. First, the sample did not include Native Americans, Asians, African-Americans, and Hawaiians or Pacific Islanders. However, this was not by design, but rather self-selection by the research study participants. The United States Border Patrol workforce is comprised 4.1% of these ethnicities. Perhaps, a research study participant from one of the groups would have provided an insight not captured in the other 32 research study semi-structured interviews. Second, 26 of the 32 semi-structured interviews were conducted telephonically. The 26 research study participants who participated telephonically in the semi-structured interviews were nationally geographically dispersed making face-to-face interviews cost prohibitive and time consuming. Conducting the semi-structured interviews face-to-face would have allowed for the subtleties and nuances that are observed during in-person interviews. However, there was no noticeable difference in the responses between the telephonic and face-to-face interviews. Third, due to the limitations of being a part-time doctoral student and having full-time employment my semi-structured interviews were conducted within a relatively short time period. Additional time between interviews to ponder about the ideas being raised would have been useful. Although I received assistance in transcribing 12 of the interviews, I transcribed 20 of the 32 interviews which provided some time to reflect. Lastly, since I was employed with the United States Border Patrol for nearly 23 years the possibility of bias exists. However, I have been translucent about my previous experiences with the United States Border Patrol. In addition, I remained conscientious about conducting an analysis from the data and not

from my own experiences. I also employed member checking by the research study participants in order to ensure accuracy, credibility, and validity.

### **Concluding Thoughts**

As we have seen with quick growth of the Miami-Dade police department in the mid-1980s and the Los Angeles Police Department in the mid-1990s not understanding the consequences of organizational change can have detrimental impacts. The policy decisions and citizen concerns of those time periods demanded growth of those police agencies. Currently, the calls for increased border security, and generally the homeland security enterprise means, a focus on growth and resources. The national debate in the United States' 2016 Presidential election and current discourse places border security high on policy maker's agendas. The discussions have included calls for increasing the number of federal law enforcement officers with homeland security responsibilities (Executive Order No. 13768, 2017). The suggested personnel increases equate to 25% to 35% growth in a four-year time span. Unfortunately, the topic of border security is evolving faster than it can be studied. Although this study does not involve the study of border security, it does involve an agency with border security responsibilities. It is these responsibilities that align with police work and the general literature of policing. As in police organizations, border security organizations will face the challenges of quick growth.

The challenges to organizations will come in several ways, and this research study helps address two of the challenges: (1) leadership development and (2) policy considerations for organizational growth. Leadership development has now become a popular discussion point, but the frameworks put in place rely heavily on leadership approaches and technical skills. These programs do not typically have in place policies that address a holistic view of leadership that considers the organizational values and socialization process of those entering the organization

and those who are incumbents of that process. My research suggests most supervisors rely on own their experiences in role adaptation and in the absence of any formal training will fill the void with their expectations. Organizational decision and policy makers could fill the void through thoughtful consideration of organizational growth and leadership development. Through improved leadership development and thoughtful organizational growth plans supervisory role adaptation does not have to be a “crap shoot” as one research study participant described.

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## Appendix

### Appendix A: Border Patrol Supervisors' Association Letter of Agreement



Border Patrol Supervisors' Association

*Border Patrol Supervisors' Association  
3755 Avocado Boulevard, #104  
La Mesa, CA 91941*

October 16, 2017

Victor M. Manjarrez, Jr.  
The University of Texas at El Paso  
Center for Law & Human Behavior  
500 West University Avenue  
El Paso, Texas 79968

Mr. Manjarrez,

The Border Patrol Supervisors' Association was established in 1990 dedicated to the advancement of leadership, professionalism, and excellence. The association is happy to hear that research is being conducted on how Border Patrol Supervisors work in the field. We look forward in collaborating with you on this important research project. We believe the information learned from this study will provide the agency the ability to identify issues that are important to Border Patrol supervisors and possibly inform future supervisory workforce development. We will place a message of solicitation for research participation in the "Forum" section of our website and send, through the association's monthly newsletter, a copy of the solicitation for research participants. We agree that supervisor participation in the study must be voluntary and the data collection anonymous. Please let us know if there is anything else we can do to make this a successful project.

As the designated representative for the Executive Board of the Border Patrol Supervisors' Association, I agree that Mr. Manjarrez' research study participant solicitation message will be placed in the "Forum" section of our website for members to view and participant - if they chose. In addition, we will provide our members, via association newsletter, a copy of the solicitation for research study participant message.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Richard Haynes".

Richard Haynes  
President  
Border Patrol Supervisors' Association

**U.S. BORDER PATROL – THE FIRST LINE IN HOMELAND DEFENSE**

## Appendix B: Request for Volunteers

### Border Patrol Supervisors:

My name is Victor M. Manjarrez, Jr., and I am a doctoral student at the University of Texas at El Paso, in the Educational Leadership and Administration Program, College of Education. I am seeking individuals who are Border Patrol supervisors to volunteer to be part of my research study aimed at better understanding how supervisors adapt in their role as a supervisor based on policy changes. My particular interest are supervisors who supervised Border Patrol Agents who graduated from the Academy from October 1, 2007 through September 30, 2015. The U.S. Border Patrol on October 1, 2007 altered the curriculum of the basic academy allowing for training agents to “test out” of the Spanish language. The curriculum changes not only changed the structure of the academy but it also changed the initial organizational socialization of the U.S. Border Patrol. Organizational socialization changes as it relates to supervisory experiences have largely been ignored in police literature and in particular federal law enforcement. Law enforcement organizations are embracing the idea that organizational socialization impacts more than just job satisfaction; however not much is known of the impacts on supervisors. The results of this research could help law enforcement organizations shape and form future supervisory professional development courses.

I am seeking officer-corps supervisors, at various levels of supervision and duty stations, who have been a supervisor since November 1, 2007, at any level. Participation in the research study must be voluntary. In addition, the identity of participating supervisors, during data collection (survey and interviews) and in the final report, will be kept confidential by not using names or any identifiers that can be linked to any individual. Each participant will be asked to complete a short online background questionnaire (approximately 5 to 6 minutes) and to participate in an interview, which will take approximately one (1) hour. You will be given the opportunity to read the final section of the report that relates to your interview to ensure that the information for the final report accurately portrays your perspective. You will also receive a copy of the final report.

If you are willing to participate in this research study, click on the link below:

**<Border Patrol Supervisor Research Project Link>**

# Supervisor Background Questionnaire

---

## CONSENT FORM

### DESCRIPTION:

I am interested in exploring the experiences of Border Patrol supervisors who are responsible for leading Border Patrol Agents who have graduated from the USBP basic academy after October 1, 2007. While there is a significant body of literature on organizational socialization in policing, there is a paucity of research on police organizations who have significantly altered their basic police academy and the effects on supervisory staff. The purpose of this research is to better understand supervisory experiences and how they adapt to changes. This research project will occur in two stages:

- During the first stage you will complete a web-based questionnaire, which is being used to gather background information about your supervisory and academy experiences. The first stage will take about 5 to 6 minutes of your time.
- During the second stage you will participate in will be a face-to-face interview, which will be about 60 minutes. I will audio tape the interview.

Your responses will not be linked to your name or other personal identifiers in any written or verbal report of this research project. To ensure data collected during the interview accurately reflects the study participant's perceptions, the section of the final report, which summarizes data collected from you, will be sent you for review, further input, corrections, and clarification.

You are being asked to be in the study because you are, at a minimum, a Supervisory Border Patrol Agent and have been since November 1, 2007. The number of anticipated study participants who will be part of both the survey and interview phases is expected to be between 25 to 30 individuals.

### CONFIDENTIALITY:

If you elect to participate in the semi-structured interview you will be asked to provide contact information (name and email or telephone number) so that an interview date and time can be scheduled. The contact information is in essence a 'referral system' for the researcher to schedule the interview and is disconnected from the data analysis. Once the interview is scheduled, the contact information will be erased. Given there are approximately 2,600 Border Patrol supervisors in the nation, no specific identifying information will be used as part of the data analysis (i.e. name, DOB, employee number), and the findings will be reported in aggregate, there is no possibility of directly or indirectly identifying you.

The data collected from both the background questionnaire and the interview will be compiled into a report and your identity will not be revealed. I will use pseudonyms during coding and in the final report to insure confidentiality. I will be the only person to have access to the raw data (surveys and interview data). All personally identifying information will be removed. Any information that I will use for my research dissertation will not identify you. The digital audio files will be kept on an external hard drive

that is password protected and in a locked file cabinet within a locked office. The audio files will not be used for any other purpose without your written consent. At the conclusion of this study, the audio files will be kept in a locked filing cabinet up to 30 days after I successfully defend the research dissertation. The files will be erased, by me, after the expired time period.

This signed consent form will be stored in a non-shared office and in a locked file that is only accessible by me.

**BENEFITS:**

Although there are no known benefits to you for participating in this project, possible benefits include contributing to a greater understanding of supervisor experiences. This information could assist law enforcement organizations plan and provide better supervisory professional development opportunities.

**RISKS:**

There are no known risks to you for participating in this project.

**CONTACT PEOPLE:**

If you have any questions about this project, please contact me at the number listed above. This research report will be submitted as a final project for my dissertation at the University of Texas at El Paso. My advising professor for this research project is Rodolfo Rincones, Ph.D. and he can be reached at (915) 747-7614 or at [rrincones@utep.edu](mailto:rrincones@utep.edu). A copy of this consent form will be sent to your e-mail address.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a subject in this study, you may contact the University of Texas at El Paso's Institutional Review Board (IRB) at either (915) 747-7693 or [irb.orsp@utep.edu](mailto:irb.orsp@utep.edu).

**SIGNATURE:**

Your signature on this consent form indicates that you have read the information in this letter and have decided to participate in this study. Your participation in this research project is voluntary. If you do not wish to participate, or would like to end your participation in this project, there will be no penalty or loss of benefits to you which you are otherwise entitled. In other words, you are free to make your own choice about being part of this project or not, and may quit at any time without penalty. Please notify me verbally or in writing if you decide to withdraw from this study.

Victor M. Manjarrez, Jr.  
Doctoral Student  
The University of Texas at El Paso  
(915) 747-7812  
[vmmanjarrez@utep.edu](mailto:vmmanjarrez@utep.edu)

- ☐ Yes, I have read and understand the information in the letter and have decided to participate in this study.
- ☐ No, I do not wish to participate at this time.

**Q1 Where you, at least, a Supervisory Border Patrol Agent on November 1, 2007?**

- ☐ Yes, please continue.
  - ☐ No, this will end the survey. Thank-you for your time and consideration.
- 

**Q2 How long have you been in the U.S. Border Patrol?**

- ☐ 10 -15 Years
  - ☐ 16 - 20 Years
  - ☐ 21 - 25 Years
  - ☐ 26 - 30 Years
  - ☐ 30+ Years
- 

**Q3 When did you first become a Supervisory Border Patrol Agent?**

- ☐ 1990 - 1992
  - ☐ 1993 - 1995
  - ☐ 1996 - 1998
  - ☐ 1999 - 2001
  - ☐ 2002 - 2004
  - ☐ 2005 - 2007
- 

**Q4 In what Sector did you first become a Supervisory Border Patrol Agent?**

- ☐ San Diego
  - ☐ El Centro
  - ☐ Yuma
  - ☐ Tucson
  - ☐ El Paso
  - ☐ Big Bend
  - ☐ Del Rio
  - ☐ Laredo
  - ☐ Rio Grande Valley
  - ☐ New Orleans
  - ☐ Miami
  - ☐ Ramey
  - ☐ Blaine
  - ☐ Spokane
  - ☐ Havre
  - ☐ Grand Forks
  - ☐ Detroit
  - ☐ Buffalo
  - ☐ Swanton
  - ☐ Houlton
  - ☐ U.S.B.P. Academy
  - ☐ Other
- 

**Q5 Where did you attend the basic U.S. Border Patrol Academy upon entering on duty (EOD)?**

- ☐ Glynco, GA (Brunswick)
  - ☐ Charleston, SC
  - ☐ McClellan, AL
  - ☐ Artesia, NM
  - ☐ Other
-

**Q6 What Spanish Language group were you assigned while at the U.S. Border Patrol Academy as a trainee?**

- ☐ Group 1 (Fluent in the Spanish Language)
  - ☐ Group 2 (Mostly fluent in the Spanish Language)
  - ☐ Group 3 (Some fluency/knowledge of the Spanish Language)
  - ☐ Group 4 (No fluency/knowledge of the Spanish Language)
  - ☐ Other
- 

**Q7 In what Sector did you first enter on duty (EOD) for the United States Border Patrol?**

- |   |                                   |                               |                              |
|---|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> San Diego         | <input type="radio"/> El Centro   | <input type="radio"/> Yuma    | <input type="radio"/> Tucson |
| <input type="radio"/> El Paso           | <input type="radio"/> Big Bend    | <input type="radio"/> Del Rio | <input type="radio"/> Laredo |
| <input type="radio"/> Rio Grande Valley | <input type="radio"/> New Orleans | <input type="radio"/> Miami   | <input type="radio"/> Ramey  |
- 

**Q8 Current Sector/Location**

- |   |                                   |                               |                                   |
|---|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> San Diego         | <input type="radio"/> El Centro   | <input type="radio"/> Yuma    | <input type="radio"/> Tucson      |
| <input type="radio"/> El Paso           | <input type="radio"/> Big Bend    | <input type="radio"/> Del Rio | <input type="radio"/> Laredo      |
| <input type="radio"/> Rio Grande Valley | <input type="radio"/> New Orleans | <input type="radio"/> Miami   | <input type="radio"/> Ramey       |
| <input type="radio"/> Blaine            | <input type="radio"/> Spokane     | <input type="radio"/> Havre   | <input type="radio"/> Grand Forks |
| <input type="radio"/> Detroit           | <input type="radio"/> Buffalo     | <input type="radio"/> Swanton | <input type="radio"/> Houlton     |
| <input type="radio"/> U.S.B.P. Academy  | <input type="radio"/> Other       |                               |                                   |
-

**Q9 What is your current level of supervision?**

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <input type="radio"/> Supervisory Border Patrol Agent                                     | <input type="radio"/> Field Operations Supervisor                             |
| <input type="radio"/> Watch Commander   | <input type="radio"/> Deputy Patrol Agent in Charge or Patrol Agent in Charge |
| <input type="radio"/> Operations Officer, Assistant Chief Patrol Agent, or Division Chief | <input type="radio"/> Deputy Chief or Chief Patrol Agent                      |

**Q10 Have you ever been permanently assigned to any other sector or Border Patrol Headquarters element other than your current assignment?**

- |                           |                          |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> Yes | <input type="radio"/> No |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|

**Q11 Have you ever been detailed or permanently assigned to the U.S. Border Patrol Academy?**

- |                           |                          |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> Yes | <input type="radio"/> No |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|

---

**Q12 Have you ever served in the U.S. military?**

- |                           |                          |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> Yes | <input type="radio"/> No |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|

**Q13 What is your gender?**

- |                              |
|------------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> Male   |
| <input type="radio"/> Female |

---

**Q14 What is your current age?**

- |                             |                             |                             |                             |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> 21-25 | <input type="radio"/> 26-30 | <input type="radio"/> 31-35 | <input type="radio"/> 36-40 |
| <input type="radio"/> 41-45 | <input type="radio"/> 46-50 | <input type="radio"/> 51-57 |                             |

---

**Q15 With which of the race/ethnicity do you most identify?**

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <input type="radio"/> White/Caucasian    | <input type="radio"/> African American        |
| <input type="radio"/> Hispanic or Latino | <input type="radio"/> Other (please specify): |

---

**Q16 What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?**

- ☐ Less than high school degree
- ☐ High school graduate (high school diploma or equivalent including GED)
- ☐ Some college but no degree
- ☐ Associate degree in college (2-year)
- ☐ Bachelor's degree in college (4-year)
- ☐ Master's degree
- ☐ Doctoral degree
- ☐ Professional degree (JD, MD)

---

If you **would like to participate** in the second portion of the research study, semi-structured interview, please provide contact information (name and telephone number or email). The contact information will be used solely by Victor M. Manjarrez, Jr. to contact you to arrange for an interview. The contact information will be disconnected (deleted) from the study data and not used in any of the analysis.

☐ \_\_\_\_\_

---

If you **do not want to participate in the second portion of the research study**, semi-structured interview, please select “no” and no further attempt will be made to contact you.

Thank-you for participating in this portion of the research study.

- ☐ No, I do not want to participate any further in this study.

**End of Block: Default Question Block**

---

Start of Block: Block 1

---

## Appendix D: Consent Form

### CONSENT FORM

**Interviewer:**

Victor M. Manjarrez, Jr.  
Doctoral Student  
The University of Texas at El Paso  
(915) 747-7812  
vmmanjarrez@utep.edu

**DESCRIPTION:**

I am interested in exploring the experiences of Border Patrol supervisors who are responsible for leading Border Patrol Agents who have graduated from the USBP basic academy after October 1, 2007. While there is a significant body of literature on organizational socialization in policing, there is a paucity of research on police organizations who have significantly altered their basic police academy and the effects on supervisory staff. The purpose of this research is to better understand supervisory experiences and how they adapt to changes. This research project will occur in two stages:

- (1) During the first stage you will complete a web-based questionnaire, which is being used to gather background information about your supervisory and academy experiences. The first stage will take about 5 to 6 minutes of your time.
- (2) During the second stage you will participate in will be a face-to-face interview, which will be about 60 minutes. I will audio tape the interview.

Your responses will not be linked to your name or other personal identifiers in any written or verbal report of this research project. To ensure data collected during the interview accurately reflects the study participant's perceptions, the section of the final report, which summarizes data collected from you, will be sent you for review, further input, corrections, and clarification.

You are being asked to be in the study because you are, at a minimum, a Supervisory Border Patrol Agent and have been since November 1, 2007. The number of anticipated study participants who will be part of both the survey and interview phases is expected to be between 25 to 30 individuals.

**CONFIDENTIALITY:**

If you elect to participate in the semi-structured interview you will be asked to provide contact information (name and email or telephone number) so that an interview date and time can be scheduled. The contact information is in essence a 'referral system' for the researcher to schedule the interview and is disconnected from the data analysis. Once the interview is scheduled, the contact information will be erased. Given there are approximately 2,600 Border Patrol supervisors in the nation, no specific identifying information will be used as part of the data analysis (i.e. name, DOB, employee number), and the findings will be reported in aggregate, there is no possibility of directly or indirectly identifying you.

The data collected from both the background questionnaire and the interview will be compiled into a report and your identity will not be revealed. I will use pseudonyms during coding and in the final report to insure confidentiality. I will be the only person to have access to the raw data (surveys and interview

data). All personally identifying information will be removed. Any information that I will use for my research dissertation will not identify you. The digital audio files will be kept on an external hard drive that is password protected and in a locked file cabinet within a locked office. The audio files will not be used for any other purpose without your written consent. At the conclusion of this study, the audio files will be kept in a locked filing cabinet up to 30 days after I successfully defend the research dissertation. The files will be erased, by me, after the expired time period.

This signed consent form will be stored in a non-shared office and in a locked file that is only accessible by me.

**BENEFITS:**

Although there are no known benefits to you for participating in this project, possible benefits include contributing to a greater understanding of supervisor experiences. This information could assist law enforcement organizations plan and provide better supervisory professional development opportunities.

**RISKS:**

There are no known risks to you for participating in this project.

**CONTACT PEOPLE:**

If you have any questions about this project, please contact me at the number listed above. This research report will be submitted as a final project for my dissertation at the University of Texas at El Paso. My advising professor for this research project is Rodolfo Rincones, Ph.D. and he can be reached at (915) 747-7614 or at [rrincones@utep.edu](mailto:rrincones@utep.edu). A copy of this consent form will be sent to your e-mail address.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a subject in this study, you may contact the University of Texas at El Paso's Institutional Review Board (IRB) at either (915) 747-7693 or [irb.orsp@utep.edu](mailto:irb.orsp@utep.edu).

**SIGNATURE:**

Your signature on this consent form indicates that you have read the information in this letter and have decided to participate in this study. Your participation in this research project is voluntary. If you do not wish to participate, or would like to end your participation in this project, there will be no penalty or loss of benefits to you which you are otherwise entitled. In other words, you are free to make your own choice about being part of this project or not, and may quit at any time without penalty. Please notify me verbally or in writing if you decide to withdraw from this study.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to ask them now or at any time throughout the project.

Signature\_\_\_\_\_ Date\_\_\_\_\_

## INTERVIEW PROTOCOL AND QUESTIONS

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### Introductory Protocol (Script)

Thank-you for agreeing to meet with me today.

To facilitate my note-taking, I would like to audio tape our conversation today.

Do you agree to allow me to tape-record this interview?

*(If NO, I will turn off the audio recorder then will ask for permission to take notes and continue with the interview protocol; If YES, I will proceed with the interview).*

For your information, I will only be privy to the tapes which will be eventually destroyed after they are transcribed. In addition, you must sign a form devised to meet our human subject requirements. Essentially, this document states that: (1) all information will be held confidential, (2) your participation is voluntary and you may stop at any time if you feel uncomfortable, and (3) I do not intend to inflict any harm. Once again, thank you for agreeing to participate and if the conditions are satisfactory please sign the release form.

What you share in this interview will be kept confidential. You may be identified in the study report in a way that will not reveal your individual identity such as, “a supervisor said”, so please tell me what you really think and feel. Your open thoughts will be helpful in understanding the experiences of Border Patrol supervisors.

I have planned this interview to last no longer than one hour. During this time, I have several questions that I would like to cover. If time begins to run short, it may be necessary to interrupt you in order to push ahead and complete this line of questioning.

### Interview Information

Date of Interview:

Time: From \_\_\_\_\_ To \_\_\_\_\_

### Interview Questions

1. How long have you been with the agency?
  - a. By any chance do you remember your class session number and class motto?
2. How long have you been in your present position?
3. What did you do before joining the U.S. Border Patrol?
  - a. What made you decide to apply for the U.S. Border Patrol?

4. What were your views of the agency before you joined?
  - a. What surprised you?
5. How would you describe your experiences as a trainee at the basic Border Patrol Academy?
  - a. What did you like the most from your time as a trainee at the academy? Why?
  - b. What did you like the least from your time as a trainee at the academy? Why?
6. Would you have changed anything from your basic academy experience? If so, what and why?
7. What do YOU believe is the formal purpose of basic training at the academy?
  - a. Has your beliefs changed over time? How so?
8. What do YOU believe is the informal purpose of basic training at the academy?
  - a. Has your beliefs changed over time? How so?
9. On October 1, 2007 the U.S. Border Patrol Academy changed its curriculum allowing trainee agents to test out of Spanish language training. What do you believe were the consequences of the academy change?
  - a. Did you have to adapt in your role as a supervisor to supervise the new agents? If so, how?
10. What results or consequences of the academy decision surprised you the most? Why?
11. What do you believe were the biggest surprises for the U.S. Border Patrol when the curriculum changed?
12. How would you describe the supervisory oversight and mentorship required for those trainees that were part of the classes who could test out of the Spanish language?
  - a. Did you have to adapt? If so, how?
  - b. How have your experiences changed over time?
  - c. What have been the biggest surprises to you?
13. How do these experiences compare to the experiences of supervising individuals who went to the basic academy before the ability to test out of Spanish was implemented?
14. Is there anything else you would like to add or is there something I should have asked but did not?

## **Closing the Interview**

Thank-you very much for your participation. I will be transcribing this interview and providing you a summary of the interview for clarification and/or further input. Would you prefer that I provide your copy?

1. Via e-mail?
2. Postal mail?
3. Or both?

If you have any further thoughts before your receive the summary, please feel free to email me at [vmmanjarrez@utep.edu](mailto:vmmanjarrez@utep.edu) or call me at (915) 747-7812.

## **Researcher's Interview Notes**

1. Comments about the tone and progression of the interview.
  - Was the participant comfortable and forthcoming, restrained, hostile, etc.?
  - Were there interruptions that changed the pace or effectiveness of the interview?
  - What are my feelings & perceptions about the person I interviewed and the interview tone and progression?
  - What else occurred/emerged as a result of this interview?
2. Comments on Interview Protocol
  - Problems encountered, anything I would possibly change before I use this protocol again?

## Vita

Victor M. Manjarrez, Jr. was born in Tucson, Arizona to Victor M. Manjarrez, Sr. and Maria Manjarrez. He served for more than 20 years in the United States Border Patrol and retiring as part of the U.S. federal government's senior executive service corps as the Chief Patrol Agent of the Tucson Sector Border Patrol. He filled key operational roles both in the field and at the U.S. Border Patrol's headquarters over the course of his extensive homeland security career. Many of his innovative border security methods, and ideas are still the basic cornerstones for the U.S. Border Patrol that are still being utilized today. Due to his expertise he has testified on multiple occasions in front of U.S. Congressional Sub-Committees. Following his retirement he performed consulting services for two border security related international companies. Seeking a profession that was more rewarding he entered the field of higher education research at the University of Texas at El Paso. At the University of Texas at El Paso he has served as the Associate Director for two distinct research centers sharing his experiences in the homeland security enterprise while promoting and facilitating interdisciplinary research.

Mr. Manjarrez received his Bachelor of Arts in Social & Criminal Justice from Ashford University. He also earned a Master's of Art Degree in Homeland Security from American Military University. He is also a graduate of Harvard University's John F. Kennedy School of Government Senior Executive Fellow Program. Today he serves as the Associate Director for the University of Texas at El Paso's Center for Law & Human Behavior where he collaborates with other researchers in the disciplines of policing and the homeland security enterprise.

Permanent address: 500 West University Avenue  
El Paso, Texas, 79968

This dissertation was typed by Victor M. Manjarrez, Jr.