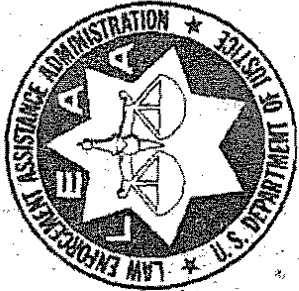


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Police Job-Task Analysis: An Overview



(Preliminary Draft)

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Office of Criminal Justice Education and Training
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U.S. Department of Justice

**Police
Job-Task Analysis:
An Overview**

Prepared by the
National Criminal Justice Reference Service
For the
Office of Criminal Justice Education and Training

November 1978



National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U.S. Department of Justice

SECTION I

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

INTRODUCTION

This document represents preliminary efforts by NCJRS to develop a technical information package addressing job task analysis. The final document should provide organizations involved in law enforcement selection, training, career development, and improved productivity with useful documentation on relevant projects and publications designed to provide assistance in developing a systematic approach to the law enforcement function.

This document contains four sections:

Section I - contains a bibliography on the subject of job task analysis.

Section II - contains a copy of Chapter 5 "Police Personnel" from the 1967 Task Force Report: The Police prepared by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice.

Section III - contains a copy of Chapter 16 from the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals report on Police.

Section IV - contains the Introduction to Project Star - Police Officer Role Training Program developed under the auspices of the California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training - 1974.

We are hopeful that through your input this preliminary effort can be turned into a document that will impact upon the quality of law enforcement in the years to come.

Robert N. Brenner
James T. Duncan
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SECTION II

PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION
TASK FORCE REPORT: THE POLICE

Chapter 5

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TASK FORCE REPORT: THE POLICE

Task Force on the Police

THE PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON LAW ENFORCEMENT AND
ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE

to be the case. Hence, because skills needed for fiscal planning or for research are unrelated to the skills required of police officers, police departments should not restrict such positions to sworn personnel. Instead, whether they be civilians or sworn officers, persons should be selected who possess the ability and academic background necessary to meet the demands of specialized positions.

Several departments have already recognized the value of using civilians with specialized skills in certain administrative and staff capacities. For one, Superintendent O. W. Wilson, of the Chicago Police Department, has utilized civilians in research and training, and recently hired a civilian as the department legal advisor; and the Ventura, Calif., County Sheriff's Department has a civilian business manager.

The President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia, in its "Report on the Metropolitan Police Department," suggested that several divisions within that department could be administered by civilians:¹⁷

In the future more responsibilities should be assigned to highly trained civilians. Civilians can bring needed technical disciplines to the Department as it begins the reorganization and modernization outlined by the IACP and recommended by this Commission. In the new organization plan there are important Divisions which could properly be commanded by civilian directors. In the areas of planning, training, communications, public information, recordkeeping, computerization and many others, there are important jobs requiring professional skills not now available within the Department. The reorganization presents a unique opportunity to add to the Department's complement of skills and thereby equip it to provide better service to the community.

The recommendation that certain administrative and staff positions should be assigned to specialists does not mean that sworn personnel should be precluded from serving in these positions. It does mean, however, that sworn personnel should be selected for administrative, supervisory, and staff assignments only if they possess the requisite skills.

THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN POLICE WORK

Women were first appointed to the American police service 56 years ago by the Los Angeles department. This was 4 years before they were appointed to the Metropolitan Police of London and 7 years after the first female was commissioned on the European Continent in Stuttgart, Germany.¹⁸ The first American woman police were charged with:¹⁹

The protection of young girls and the prevention or minimization of social evils . . . the return of runaway girls to their homes, the warning of young girls, the suppression of dance hall evils, . . . petty gambling in stores frequented by children . . . [and] the sale of liquor to minors, service at railroad depots, the conducting of investigations and the securing of evidence.

In 1960, there were 5,617 female police officers and detectives in the United States. Of these, all but 400 served in urban areas.²⁰

The role of the policewoman today is essentially what it always has been. Female officers serve in juvenile divisions, where they perform investigative and social service oriented activities for women, teenaged females, preteen youngsters (both male and female), and infants. In addition, some larger forces, including those of New York, Detroit, and Los Angeles, routinely assign female officers to other operational commands, where they participate in narcotics and gambling law enforcement and routine patrolling.

Policewomen can be an invaluable asset to modern law enforcement, and their present role should be broadened.²¹ Qualified women should be utilized in such important staff service units as planning and research, training, intelligence, inspection, public information, community relations, and as legal advisors. Women could also serve in such units as computer programming and laboratory analyses and communications. Their value should not be considered as limited to staff functions or police work with juveniles; women should also serve regularly in patrol, vice, and investigative divisions. Finally, as more and more well-qualified women enter the service, they could assume administrative responsibilities.

NEEDED QUALITIES AND THE SELECTION PROCESS

It has often been stated that policing a community is personal service of the highest order, requiring sterling qualities in the individual who performs it.²² The Commission's evaluation of police work confirms this observation. Few professions are so peculiarly charged with individual responsibility.²³ Officers are compelled to make instantaneous decisions—often without clearcut guidance from a legislature, the judiciary, or from departmental policy—and mistakes on judgment could cause irreparable harm to citizens, or even to the community.

Complexities inherent in the policing function dictate that officers possess a high degree of intelligence, education, tact, sound judgment, physical courage, emotional stability, impartiality, and honesty.²⁴ While innumerable commissions and expert observers of the police have long recognized and reported this need, communities have not yet demanded that officers possess these qualities, and personnel standards for the police service remain low.

The failure to establish high professional standards for the police service has been a costly one, both for the police and for society. Existing selection requirements and procedures in the majority of departments, aside from physical requirements, do not screen out the unfit. Hence, it is not surprising that far too many of those charged with protecting life and property and rationally enforcing our laws are not respected by their fellow officers and are incompetent, corrupt, or abusive. One incompetent officer can trigger a riot, permanently damage the reputation of a citizen, or alienate a community against a police department. It is essential, therefore, that the requirements to

¹⁷ The President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia, "A Report of the President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia on the Metropolitan Police." (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1960), p. 31.

¹⁸ Elmer D. Graper, "American Police Administration." (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1921), p. 226.

¹⁹ *Id.* at pp. 229-233.

²⁰ U.S. Bureau of Census, "U.S. Census of Population 1960. Subject Reports: Occupational Characteristics—Final Report PC (2)-(7A)." Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1963, table 1, p. 9.

²¹ This was also recognized by the President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia, *supra*, note 17 at p. 30.

²² *Supra*, note 11 at p. 19; and Leonard V. Harrison, "Police Administration in Boston," vol. II. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1934), p. 28.

²³ Leonard V. Harrison, "Police Administration in Boston: Harvard Law School Survey of the Boston Police Department," vol. III. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1934), p. 30.

²⁴ *Supra*, note 12 at p. 223.

serve in law enforcement reflect the awesome responsibility facing the personnel that is selected.²⁵

Higher standards . . . must be established. Whatever may be achieved in remedying police defects must be done through enlisting the services of intelligent men of excellent character, who are sufficiently educated to perform the duties of a policeman. . . . The police organization suffers in reputation and society pays the bill when policemen are dishonest, brutal, stupid, or physically or temperamentally unsuited.

The purpose of this section is to determine what attributes must be possessed by police personnel, what characteristics should preclude an applicant from serving the community as a law enforcement officer, and what deficiencies exist in the current selection process.

EDUCATION

The Need for Advanced Education. The quality of police service will not significantly improve until higher educational requirements are established for its personnel. As was indicated earlier in this chapter, the complexity of the police task is as great as that of any other profession. The performance of this task requires more than physical prowess and common sense:²⁶

It is nonsense to state or to assume that the enforcement of the law is so simple that it can be done best by those unencumbered by a study of the liberal arts. The man who goes into our streets in hopes of regulating, directing or controlling human behavior must be armed with more than a gun and the ability to perform mechanical movements in response to a situation. Such men as these engage in the difficult, complex and important business of human behavior. Their intellectual armament—so long restricted to the minimum—must be no less than their physical prowess and protection.

The need for highly educated personnel was recognized as early as 1931 in the report of the Wickersham Commission.²⁷ But despite the admonition of that commission to improve low entrance standards, educational requirements remain minimal in most departments.

In 1961, a survey conducted of over 300 police departments showed that 24 percent of those departments had no minimum educational prerequisite, while less than 1 percent required any level of college preparation.²⁸ In one region of the country, the New England States, over 72 percent of the departments surveyed did not even require their applicants to have high school diplomas.²⁹

Although minimal educational requirements have not prevented some persons with higher academic achievement from pursuing careers in law enforcement, these exceptions are few in number. In a survey conducted of 6,200 officers in 1964, only 30.3 percent had taken one or more college courses and only 7.3 percent possessed a college degree.³⁰ A more recent survey of over 5,700 police officers employed by police agencies in the metropolitan area of Detroit revealed that over 75 percent of these officers had not attended college.³¹ In the Metropolitan Detroit survey, it was further shown that nearly 13 percent of the officers had not received high school diplomas. In many departments, particularly in New England

and Southern States, a majority of the officers are not high school graduates. For example, a 1962 survey of one Connecticut department revealed that 53 of the 85 sworn officers had not completed high school.³²

Sworn personnel, who, in various unpredictable situations, are required to make difficult judgments, should possess a sound knowledge of society and human behavior. This can best be attained through advanced education:³³

A superior officer of any police department should certainly be conversant with the structure of our government and its philosophies. He must be well grounded in sociology, criminology, and human relations in order to understand the ramifications of the problems which confront him daily. He must understand what makes people act as they do and what impact his actions in the performance of duty will have on them.

Minimum Educational Requirements. Due to the nature of the police task and its effect on our society, there is need to elevate educational requirements to the level of a college degree from an accredited institution for all future personnel selected to perform the functions of a police agent. The demands on the police should preclude a lower requirement for persons responsible for confronting major crime and social problems. Functions to be performed by the police officer, although not as demanding, are also complex. Hence, all future personnel serving in that capacity should be required to have completed at least 2 years of college preparation at an accredited institution.

While such educational requirements could be implemented in only a limited number of departments today, it is imperative that all law enforcement agencies strive to achieve these goals as quickly as possible. As an appropriate first step, all departments should immediately establish a requirement that no person be employed in a sworn capacity until he has received a high school diploma and has demonstrated by appropriate achievement tests the ability to perform successfully college level studies.³⁴ Cities and counties which fail to recognize the vital necessity of upgrading the educational levels of their departments are guilty of perpetuating ineffective police service and are not providing their citizens with adequate police service and protection. To assist departments in ultimately reaching desirable requirements, educational standards should be increased progressively as conditions permit. The ultimate goal is that all personnel with general enforcement powers have baccalaureate degrees.

At least twenty-two departments, twenty-one of which are in California, have already established minimum college requirements, varying from one semester of college education to a 4-year degree. For example, the San Jose Police Department has had a minimum entrance requirement of 2 years of college since 1957 and the Berkeley Police Department has had the same requirement since 1960.³⁵ The only non-Federal law enforcement agency now requiring that all entering officers have a 4-year college degree is the Multnomah County Sheriff's Department in Oregon.³⁶

Although it is recognized that most departments are encountering difficulty in filling current positions under

²⁵ August Vollmer, "The Police in Chicago," in "Illinois Crime Survey," John H. Wigmore, ed. (Chicago: Association of Criminal Justice, 1929), p. 360.

²⁶ Quilan Tamm, "A Change for the Better" in "The Police Chief," (Washington: I.A.C.P., 1962), p. 5.

²⁷ *Supra*, note 4 at p. 56.

²⁸ George W. O'Connor, "Survey of Selection Methods," (Washington: I.A.C.P., 1962).

²⁹ *Ibid.*

³⁰ George W. O'Connor and Nelson A. Watson, "Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime: The Police Role," (Washington: I.A.C.P., 1964), p. 79.

³¹ Michigan State University, Institute for Community Development, "Police

Training in the Detroit Metropolitan Region: Recommendations for a Regional Approach," (Detroit: The Metropolitan Fund, 1966), p. 69.

³² "Police and Fire Services of the City of Meriden, Conn." (Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1962), p. 121.

³³ Statement of Stephen Kennedy, former Commissioner of Police, cited in Franklin M. Kreml, "The Role of Colleges and Universities in Police Management," "The Police Yearbook," (Washington: I.A.C.P., 1966), p. 46.

³⁴ National League of Cities, "National Municipal Policy," (Washington: National League of Cities, 1966), p. 67.

³⁵ Donald E. Clark and Samuel G. Chapman, "A Forward Step: Educational Backgrounds for Policemen," (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1966), p. 21.

³⁶ *Id.* at p. 2.

existing entrance requirements, little attempt has been made thus far to attract college students and graduates into the police service. In 1966, 55 percent of all high school graduates enrolled in college and this percentage will continue to increase.³⁷ The police service can be one of the most rewarding and challenging callings in government, and police departments should be in a position to compete for college graduates. Positive programs for attracting highly qualified students into law enforcement careers will be discussed in a later section of this chapter.

The need to elevate educational standards is not limited to sworn officers of lower rank. The 1964 national survey conducted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police disclosed that only 33.6 percent of the police administrators had attended college, and of this figure, only 9.2 percent possessed one or more college degrees.³⁸ These percentages approximate the educational level of subordinate officers, and with reason. In nearly all agencies, police administrators are selected from among men of lower rank within the department. Although a great majority of the chief administrators in our nation's police departments have achieved enviable records as outstanding police officers, only a few have achieved the appropriate level of training and education in management and administration to administer a law enforcement agency.³⁹

The police officer who has walked his beat as a patrolman, investigated crime as a detective, and managed the technical routine of stationhouse activity as lieutenant or captain, is not fitted by this experience to administer the complex affairs of a large police department.

In the early part of the 20th century, a police chief would typically be appointed by a mayor. On many occasions this appointment was used as a method of rewarding friends or repaying political favors. The misuse of this appointing authority was illustrated in the Wickersham Commission "Report on Police" in 1931:⁴⁰

As an illustration, a few years ago the mayor of Indianapolis was called upon to introduce the police chief of that city to an assemblage of police chiefs during one of their conferences. In the course of his introductory remarks the mayor said, "I know that my man is going to be a good chief because he has been my tailor for 20 years. He knows how to make good clothes; he ought to be a good chief."

Stringent civil service regulations were enacted in many communities to counter this evil, and the requirement that a chief of police had to be selected from among men presently in the department ensued. Stamping out one evil, however, simply created another, since the men selected were often not qualified to assume the administration of the department. The operation and management of a large police department is as complex as administering a business of comparable resources and requires similar skills.⁴¹

In that respect, there are problems of police management that are quite similar to problems of big business, and soluble in familiar managerial techniques; efficiency, planning, communication, and technological innovation.

It can no longer be assumed that the affairs of a police department can be administered effectively by a person whose single qualification is extensive police experience. With few exceptions, the completion of 4 years at a college or university is a minimum requirement for top administrative and staff positions in other branches of government.⁴² No less should be demanded of administrative and supervisory personnel in our police departments.

Therefore police departments, and particularly larger departments, should take immediate steps to establish the minimum educational requirement of a baccalaureate degree at an accredited institution for all major administrative and supervisory positions. The need for an influx of trained or experienced persons possessing college credentials into top management positions is a current and critical one. Although the educational requirements for many supervisory and middle management positions may have to be increased progressively—in the same manner as for the police officer and the police agent—a baccalaureate degree requirement should immediately be established for all future chief administrators. Further, and as will be more fully discussed in the later section on career development, all present supervisors, middle managers, and administrators should be exposed to advanced training in supervisory and management principles. If no candidate within a department is fully qualified to fill a vacancy for chief of police, this position should be opened to applicants from outside of the department who do possess the requisite qualifications. In some jurisdictions, this will require a revision of civil service regulations. The position of chief administrator has already been opened to outside applicants in such large cities as Chicago, Boston, Philadelphia, New York, Syracuse, Detroit and Baltimore, as well as numerous medium-sized and small departments.

Educational Programs for Law Enforcement. There is a current and rapidly growing movement among colleges and especially junior colleges to develop degree programs for potential and existing law enforcement personnel. In 1966, there were 134 degree programs which could be identified as oriented toward police service, 100 of which were 2-year degree programs in police science offered at junior colleges.⁴³ To encourage the development of such programs, the U.S. Department of Justice, through its Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, has been providing grants to institutions interested in establishing such programs or improving existing ones.

The Commission's examination of these programs disclose that many of them are highly vocational in nature and are primarily intended to provide technical skills necessary in performing police work. College credit is given, for example, for such courses as traffic control, defensive tactics and patrol procedures. Although there is a need for vocational training, it is not and cannot be a substitute for a liberal arts education.⁴⁴

The trained man has developed skills and attitudes needed to perform a complex task. The educated man has developed his capacity to judge the worth, the performance, and the excellence of human action.

³⁷ Figures obtained from the National Center for Educational Statistics, Office of Health, Education, and Welfare, Aug. 1966.

³⁸ *Supra*, note 38 at p. 79.

³⁹ Raymond B. Fosdick, "American Police System." (New York: The Century Co., 1921), p. 220.

⁴⁰ *Supra*, note 4 at p. 20.

⁴¹ Franklin M. Kream, "The Role of Colleges and Universities in Police Management," "The Police Yearbook." (Washington: I.A.C.P., 1966), p. 36.

⁴² *Supra*, note 1 at p. 166.

⁴³ "Police Science Programs of Universities, Colleges, Junior Colleges in the United States," "The Police Chief." (Washington: I.A.C.P., 1966), p. 50.

⁴⁴ *Supra*, note 41 at p. 39.

The wisdom of giving degree credit for technical courses, therefore, must be questioned. Training may be properly offered at college or junior college facilities but not as part of the school's basic program. The facilities of these institutions, since they are designed for teaching, may serve as the location for basic or specialized police training programs. Twenty-six out of forty-four California certified police academies are, for example, coordinated and financed through the junior college system in that State.⁴³ When courses are offered for vocational training, however, they should be considered as such and not as degree credit offerings of the institution.

While there has been some progress made in determining the training needs of police personnel, there has been far too little analysis either by the police or by colleges and universities of their educational needs. First of all, the diverse demands on the police dictate that departments recruit persons with specialized educational backgrounds in various disciplines. For example, lawyers are needed as legal and administrative advisors; business and public administration experts are needed for fiscal and management positions; engineers and scientists are needed for communications and other technological programs; and personnel with a variety of backgrounds are needed for planning and research.

That being the case, the educational requirements cannot be identical for all police positions. A police agency must select personnel on the basis of their qualifications to fulfill a particularized need. Although it is obvious that certain subjects such as sociology, psychology, history, and political science should be taken by police agents and officers in order to give them greater insight into human behavior and the governmental process, much more research is needed to determine which specific courses of study are most beneficial. Colleges and universities have long ignored the problems and educational needs of law enforcement.⁴⁴ As FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover has observed, these institutions "should be initiating and increasing courses of study oriented toward the development of a career police profession."⁴⁵

Until the educational needs of field officers are more fully evaluated, however, undergraduate programs should emphasize the social sciences and liberal arts. The complex responsibilities and duties of police work require that field personnel understand their community and conditions which breed criminal and delinquent conduct. This understanding can best be gained through a liberal education.

Independent Examination of Educational Qualifications. There are pitfalls in relying upon a college or junior college degree as the sole means of measuring whether an education is suitable to meet minimum requirements. Experience in other disciplines and in law enforcement has revealed that there are "diploma mill" institutions that award the requisite degree but that fail to provide a meaningful education.⁴⁶ For this reason, police departments should either require that a college degree be obtained from an institution accredited by a

recognized accrediting body or should independently test candidates to measure their educational achievement.

Also, until such time as educational requirements are elevated to acceptable levels, police departments should administer tests to all applicants to determine capacity and potential and should accept only those applicants who demonstrate an ability to perform successfully university level studies. Nearly all departments today administer written examinations to their applicants. In a survey conducted in 1961, 98 percent of the departments surveyed conducted entrance examinations to test mental ability.⁴⁷ However, many of these examinations either test for knowledge of police work alone or do not appropriately measure intelligence. For example, one written examination given to applicants of a metropolitan police department in Tennessee measured memory and general knowledge of police practices, local government, and general information only.⁴⁸ The written examination given to applicants of the Metropolitan Police Department of Washington, D.C., consists of an 80-question multiple choice aptitude test. When the examination was given to 206 applicants in three cities in June of 1965, 188 passed.⁴⁹

If a department accepts applicants with an educational achievement of a high school diploma or less, it should administer and have interpreted by trained experts an intelligence test of trustworthy reliability and validity, such as the Wechsler Bellevue, the California Mental Maturity Test, or the Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Tests.⁵⁰ Too, it should accept only those applicants whose intellectual capacity is above average.

INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

Just as advanced education and above average intelligence are fundamental requisites for law enforcement personnel, so are emotional stability, commonsense, and integrity. In addition, the law enforcement officer must be free of prejudices which might interfere with the proper carrying out of his responsibilities:⁵¹

The police are frequently confronted with emotion-charged situations that tempt strong responses from them. Important to success in dealing with such situations is a stability impervious to work-related and other emotional stresses and unhampered by prejudices and undesirable attitudes in getting along with people under trying circumstances. . . . Police service affords unusual opportunities and temptations to accept graft, to indulge in other forms of dishonesty, immorality, and excesses and to wreak vengeance on persons who have offended. Successful police service is predicated on the integrity, morality, and fairness of the members of the force.

It is doubtful whether current selection procedures in most police departments effectively screen out persons unsuited for police work. In the early years of this century, personal qualifications were deemed sufficient if laudatory letters were received from friends or "ward heelers" in support of a candidate.⁵² Although there have been improvements in procedures for evaluating personal characteristics in the past 35 years, they are not widely used. Further, there are as yet no reliable screening

⁴³ State of California, Department of Justice, Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, "California Peace Officers Standards Program." (Sacramento: California Department of Justice, 1966).

⁴⁴ L. Dana Gathin, "Police Chiefs Win Diplomas," *Christian Science Monitor*, (Boston), August 20, 1966, p. 3, col. 1.

⁴⁵ J. Edgar Hoover, "Message from the Director, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin," editorial, (Washington: U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation, May, 1964.)

⁴⁶ *Supra*, note 41 at p. 39.

⁴⁷ *Supra*, note 28.

⁴⁸ I.A.C.P., "A Survey of the Department of Metropolitan Police, Nashville-Davidson County, Tennessee." (Washington: I.A.C.P., 1964), p. 86.

⁴⁹ *Supra*, note 13 at p. 100.

⁵⁰ Robert L. Thorndike and Elizabeth Hagen, "Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Education." (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1956), p. 254.

⁵¹ Public Administration Service, "Police Services in Portland, Maine." (Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1965), pp. 109-110.

⁵² *Supra*, note 4 at p. 66.

devices to identify applicants who are emotionally unfit for police employment.⁵⁵ Although reliable methods may have been devised for measuring suitability for a limited number of other occupations and professions, these methods are not as effective in measuring fitness for police work.⁵⁶

Selection techniques in law enforcement cannot merely emulate those devised for business, industry, or teaching. Law enforcement, which vests authority and power in its representatives, also imposes on them stresses unlike those encountered in any other profession.

Even though it is not yet possible with existing knowledge to ascertain all factors which contribute to the development of a good or an unfit policeman, procedures for discovering undesirable traits in applicants do exist and are being used by some departments.⁵⁷ These methods, their value, and their limitations, are the subject of this section.

Character Investigation. If properly conducted a background investigation can provide invaluable information on the character of applicants.⁵⁸

In a recent survey by the National League of Cities, 278 of the 284 cities surveyed reported that a background investigation was employed to investigate the character of police applicants.⁵⁹ This survey indicated that a majority of the cities checked identification records at the local, State, and Federal levels, and also checked character references supplied by the applicants.⁶⁰ In many cities, however, character investigations are extremely limited in scope and investigators seldom probe deeply enough to uncover the information needed for professional evaluation.⁶¹

Few municipal forces have yet devoted enough attention to the character investigation of applicants. Civil Service routines often merely require that the applicant provide character vouchers or "references" which are accepted without further question.⁶²

This is not true, however, of all departments. For example, during the period between August 1957 and October 1964 over one-fourth of the applicants of the Los Angeles Police Department were rejected on the basis of intensive background investigations after they had successfully passed written, oral, and medical examinations.⁶³

No department should admit any person into the police service until his background has been comprehensively investigated. Trained investigators should examine school, credit, and criminal records; interview persons used as references and other persons in the applicant's neighborhood; and interview past and present employers. The investigative process should extend to other communities as well, if the applicant has lived elsewhere. To assist in the check of criminal records, the fingerprints of each applicant should be obtained. Prior convictions, work habits, prejudices, emotional stability, among other characteristics, should be determined to ascertain whether

the applicant is fit to perform police work.⁶⁴ Since background investigations are expensive, if properly conducted, they should be restricted to those who otherwise have qualified.⁶⁵

Emotional Stability. Within the past 30 years, many police administrators and educators have contended that prospective policemen should be examined for personality defects prior to their appointment.⁶⁶ The emotional stability to withstand the stresses of police work must, of necessity, be a primary requisite of police personnel. Officers must rationally cope with violence, verbal abuse, resentment, and emergencies. The emotionally unfit cannot meet these stresses. Although a comprehensive character investigation will eliminate many socially maladjusted applicants, personality defects in some of the applicants will be latent and not easily discernible.⁶⁷

For this reason, several police departments conduct psychological and psychiatric examinations. A survey of over 300 police departments by the International Association of Chiefs of Police in 1961 revealed that 50 departments administered such examinations.⁶⁸ In 1955, Thomas W. Oglesby, then a personnel technician for the city of Pasadena, Calif., conducted a survey that disclosed that 14 cities with population of over 100,000 had formalized programs for psychiatric or psychological testing of police applicants.⁶⁹ These examinations vary considerably. For example, in Philadelphia, applicants are interviewed by a psychiatrist; in Kansas City, a clinical psychologist interviews applicants. In Los Angeles, the psychiatrists who interview applicants also administer two tests—The Minnesota Multiphasic Personal Inventory (MMPI) and the Group Rorschach, primarily to determine neurotic and psychotic tendencies.⁷⁰

Between 1953 and 1957, of the 760 persons tested by the Los Angeles Police Department for personality disorders, 86, or 11.3 percent, were rejected as not meeting acceptable psychiatric standards.⁷¹ Fifty-one percent of these applicants were found to be latently or borderline psychotic and 22 percent were diagnosed as schizoid personalities.⁷² Although there is considerable conflict over the reliability of such tests as they relate to vocational success or failure in police work,⁷³ properly administered tests and interviews can eliminate many of the emotionally unfit.

Psychological tests, such as the MMPI, and interviews to determine emotional stability should be conducted by all departments. These examinations should be administered only by trained professionals and their limitations should be fully understood. Federal and State funds should be made available in the form of research grants for the purpose of devising reliable tests or other means of evaluating the characteristics of applicants which may be detrimental to successful police work.

A majority of police departments use another procedure, the oral interview, to assess the character of applicants.⁷⁴ Under this procedure, a selected group of offi-

⁵⁵ Dr. Ruth Levy, "Summary of Report on Retrospective Study of 5,000 Peace Officer Personnel Records," "The Police Yearbook," (Washington: I.A.C.P. 1966), p. 61.

⁵⁶ *Id.*, at p. 61.

⁵⁷ Dr. James H. Rankin, "Preventive Psychiatry in the Los Angeles Police Department," "Police," (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, July-August 1957), p. 20.

⁵⁸ Richard H. Blum, "Police Selection," (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1964), pp. 157-177.

⁵⁹ Raymond L. Bancroft, "Municipal Law Enforcement, 1966," "Nation's Cities," (Washington, D.C.: National League of Cities, February 1966), p. 20.

⁶⁰ *Id.*, at p. 20.

⁶¹ *Supra*, note 50 at p. 86.

⁶² *Supra*, note 16 at p. 130.

⁶³ Samuel Halg Jameson, "Controversial Areas in 20th Century Policing: Quest for Quality Training in Police Work" in Walter C. Reckless and Charles L. New-

man, "Interdisciplinary Problems in Criminology: Papers of the American Society of Criminology, 1964," (Columbus: Ohio State University, 1965), p. 130.

⁶⁴ *Supra*, note 58 at pp. 157-177.

⁶⁵ *Supra*, note 6 at p. 148.

⁶⁶ Thomas W. Oglesby, "The Use of Emotional Screening in the Selection of Police Applicants," "Police," (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, Jan.-Feb. 1950), p. 49.

⁶⁷ *Supra*, note 57 at p. 24.

⁶⁸ *Supra*, note 20.

⁶⁹ *Supra*, note 66 at p. 49.

⁷⁰ *Supra*, note 28.

⁷¹ *Supra*, note 57 at p. 27.

⁷² *Id.*, at p. 27.

⁷³ *Supra*, note 5.

⁷⁴ *Supra*, note 20 at Table 22.

cers or a combination of officers and civilian personnel specialists interview individual applicants, then subsequently determine the applicant's suitability. This procedure has numerous advantages. Representatives of the department have the opportunity to evaluate the demeanor and attitude of the applicants, and through probing questions can determine their ability to handle stress situations and to respond appropriately to judgmental questions.⁷⁵ However, since this technique of screening is primarily a subjective one, it has received criticism which arises out of three considerations:⁷⁶ (1) the difficulty of developing valid and reliable oral tests; (2) the difficulty of securing a reviewable record on an oral test; (3) public suspicion of the oral as a channel for the execution of political influence through the destruction of anonymity.

Although each department, utilizing skilled representatives, should have the opportunity to evaluate its applicants for police positions, the opinions derived from an oral interview, which is necessarily subjective, should not be the sole method used for disqualification. If this procedure is appropriately utilized along with background investigations and psychological testing, the selection process could become a reliable method for screening out the unqualified.⁷⁷

Even if more reliable devices for screening applicants were used in all departments, candidates with personality disorders or other defects cannot always be discovered before they are accepted into police service. It is essential, therefore, that procedures exist to remove such officers before permanent tenure makes removal extremely difficult. Such procedures are discussed in a later section on probationary period.

Physical Requirements. Any police officer working in the field must possess physical courage, stamina and agility. These qualities may help to save his own life or the lives of others. But existing requirements on physical stature and condition in many departments are unduly restrictive, with the result that many applicants, who may otherwise have exceptional qualifications, are summarily rejected because of height, weight, or vision. For example, in 1956, a survey conducted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police revealed that nearly 85 percent of the police departments surveyed had a mandatory height requirement of 5'8" or higher.⁷⁸

All departments should eliminate inflexible mandatory physical requirements. While physical characteristics and conditions such as freedom from disabling diseases or physical handicaps should be carefully considered in the selection process, factors such as height should be considered along with other attributes of the candidate, rather than be automatically disqualifying.⁷⁹

Height, like age, is a factor which must be evaluated in terms of the full abilities of the candidate. It should not be used as a hurdle with a fixed standard except to eliminate persons below normal standards lacking other compensation qualities. Physical stature is a single factor which should not deprive the police service of individuals who are capable of physically defending themselves. The police image is not likely to suffer any severe

damage if fully capable men are employed despite their lack of height.

Likewise, there is little justification for requiring near perfect uncorrected vision of all applicants. Sight requirements are often set at 20/20 uncorrected for both eyes, or slightly less for one eye, correctable to 20/20.⁸⁰

Other occupations, in which excellent vision is of equal necessity, have less stringent standards. For example, the Federal Aviation Agency will license commercial pilots whose vision is 20/100 as long as the vision is correctable to 20/20.⁸¹ Professional athletes, who participate in body contact sports such as basketball or football, often wear corrective contact lenses, and this does not adversely affect their ability to perform. Also, police departments continue officers in employment after selection even though they subsequently require corrective lenses.

Many departments are beginning to recognize the arbitrariness of traditional standards. In 1965, the Philadelphia Police Department lowered the height minimum from 5'8" to 5'7" and began accepting recruits with vision defects correctable by spectacles.⁸²

In place of mandatory rigid requirements for all entering personnel, physical requirements should be assessed on an individual basis. The opinion of an examining physician on whether an applicant is fit to serve would prove far more reliable than mandatory civil service requirements.⁸³

For this reason, a police administrator should be given the discretion to establish flexible standards. These standards may vary in relationship to the position being filled. For example, if a person is hired from outside of the department to fill a staff position, physical stature and vision would not have to meet minimum standards required of sworn personnel.

Residency Requirements. A major deterrent to recruiting is local restrictions on the residency of applicants. A 1961 survey by the International Association of Chiefs of Police revealed that nearly 75 percent of the responding departments had preservice residency requirements varying from 6 months to 5 years.⁸⁴

These requirements can be traced back to the depression era when employment was scarce and municipalities attempted to give job preferences to local residents.⁸⁵ Since nearly all police departments are encountering great difficulty in filling current positions, these restrictions now serve only to inhibit attempts to improve the quality of police personnel. Many departments, such as the Metropolitan Police Department of Washington, D.C., and the Public Safety Department of Dade County, Fla., have deleted residence requirements and nearly all police experts are calling for their removal.⁸⁶

Preemployment residence in the community should not be required of candidates, for it reduces the number of qualified applicants from whom the most promising may be selected. Qualified young men who are residents of other cities or of small communities and rural areas often lack attractive opportunities in their local police service and are frequently interested in service in the departments of a larger community. Local-residence candidates deny the community the opportunity to recruit prom-

⁷⁵ *Supra*, note 28.

⁷⁶ Statement from Stahl, as quoted in Blum, *supra*, note 50 at p. 102.

⁷⁷ A. C. German, "Police Personnel Management." (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1963), pp. 51-55.

⁷⁸ *Supra*, note 28.

⁷⁹ *Supra*, note 28.

⁸⁰ *Supra*, note 50 at p. 82.

⁸¹ Federal Aviation Agency, "Regulations: Part 57, Medical Standards and Certification" (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, Nov. 23, 1965).

⁸² The Sunday Oregonian (Oct. 30, 1966), sec. 4m, p. 24, col. 5.

⁸³ *Supra*, note 77 at p. 17.

⁸⁴ *Supra*, note 28.

⁸⁵ Federal Bureau of Investigation, "Police Management—Recruitment and Selection of Personnel," "FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin," (Washington: U.S. Dept. of Justice, FBI, Oct. 1966), p. 16.

⁸⁶ *Supra*, note 8 at p. 137.

ising candidates who may, in some instances, provide a quality of leadership lacking among local applicants.

Each department should attempt to obtain the best policemen that can be recruited anywhere in the country.⁸⁷ Police and city administrators should immediately take steps, therefore, to remove local residency requirements and should also encourage the removal of State residency requirements, if they exist. This is consistent with the recent recommendation of the American Bar Association in their minimum standards for police recruit qualifications and selection.⁸⁸

Age Requirements. In most cities, the minimum permissible age for becoming a policeman is 21, although some cities require that recruits be 25.⁸⁹ Thus, police departments that accept applicants who have completed high school or less cannot actively recruit persons until they have been out of school for at least 3 years. The effect of this delay is that many of the talented high school graduates will begin other careers, and therefore, will be otherwise committed before they are eligible for the police service.⁹⁰

The 21 years of age standard restricts recruitment. Potential police applicants who graduate from high school find it necessary to obtain other employment and are likely to fall in career channels which take them away permanently from their original police interests and aptitudes.

As a result, police departments often attract applicants who have already experienced one or more job failures.

If police departments required all applicants to possess a college degree, a minimum age requirement of 21 would not create a significant problem. But as long as the police continue to recruit high school graduates or even junior college graduates—and this is likely for some time—it is essential that the police be permitted to compete more effectively for younger men.

There are at least two potential methods of overcoming this problem. First, the minimum age requirement for police service could be reduced to 18, 19, or 20. This would allow the police to recruit persons before they become committed to other careers. At least five cities, Chicago, Oak Park (Michigan), Minneapolis, Houston, and Dallas, already hire persons under the age of 21 to serve as police officers.⁹¹ The Houston Police Department in 1964 hired 26 men under the age of 21. It was the unanimous view of that department's supervisors that these officers performed successfully and that the department would continue to select mature men of 19 and 20 to become police officers.⁹²

Police departments should carefully evaluate their existing minimum age requirements. In the light of the great responsibility of policemen, however, there is some question whether age requirements should be automatically lowered for all applicants. It may be more appropriate to establish a special procedure whereby the minimum age requirement could be waived when a person under the age of 21 demonstrates the necessary maturity and intelligence to merit special consideration.

The second, and possibly the most promising, method of bridging the period between graduation from high school and the age of 21 is the development of an entirely new type of cadet program—the CSO concept.

Under the traditional cadet or trainee program, a police department hires persons between the ages of 17 and 21 and assigns them the responsibility of performing non-sworn police tasks or assisting sworn officers until they qualify to take the entrance examination. Such a program has been in existence in England since the 1930's and now constitutes the primary source of recruiting men to police service.⁹³ In a 1966 survey by the National League of Cities it was reported that 52 police departments in the United States now have cadet programs.⁹⁴ In the New York City Police Department, those in its trainee program perform certain clerical and other tasks not directly related to crime control, receive police training and earn salaries competitive with other salaries paid to high school graduates. The trainee can take his qualifying examination before reaching 21 and when he reaches the minimum age required for sworn status, can immediately enter the service as an officer.

Many of the departments that initiated cadet programs found them wanting.⁹⁵ The primary reasons are that the work done by cadets often did not justify the expenditures for the program, that a limited number of persons were attracted to the program, and that many cadets left the program and did not become sworn officers.⁹⁶

Most cadets now perform clerical functions only and, therefore, learn little about police work or the rewards of a police career. If cadets were given financial aid to continue their education and received extensive police training as CSOs, assisting police officers and police agents, as well as performing noncrime related functions, CSO programs could serve as a valuable recruiting device and a method of upgrading the quality of personnel. Education and incentive programs for CSOs will be more fully described in the next section of this chapter.

In summary, the current minimum age in most police departments may unnecessarily restrict the recruiting base and discourage persons, otherwise qualified, from pursuing careers in law enforcement. Communities should adjust current requirements and should experiment with CSO-type programs for the purpose of interesting qualified persons in law enforcement careers.

Concomitant with minimum age restrictions, most communities impose maximum age restrictions on police department applicants. A 1961 survey by the International Association of Chiefs of Police revealed that 30 percent of the departments surveyed barred persons over 30 years of age and 80 percent barred men over 35 years.⁹⁷ Many police experts favor lowering the maximum age requirement to 29. For example, the International Association of Chiefs of Police has recommended that the maximum age be reduced to 29:⁹⁸

The upper age limit of 35 is considered to be too high. There are many advantages in lowering the upper limit. It assists in reducing turnover because young men, not having established themselves in a trade or occupation, are less likely than others to leave the force during periods of economic prosperity . . .

⁸⁷ *Supra*, note 53 at p. 116.

⁸⁸ "Minimum Standards for Police Recruit Qualifications and Selection: American Bar Association Project on Minimum Standards for Criminal Justice," Committee on the Police Function (Sept. 8, 1966), sec. II, p. 6.

⁸⁹ *Supra*, note 28.

⁹⁰ *Supra*, note 28 at p. 52.

⁹¹ Glenford S. Leonard, "Police Career Development", "The Police Yearbook" (Washington: I.A.C.P., 1966), pp. 87-89. *Supra*, note 62 at cols. 1-0.

⁹² *Id.* at p. 87.

⁹³ *Supra*, note 11 at p. 30.

⁹⁴ *Supra*, note 59 at p. 17.

⁹⁵ Indiana University, Department of Police Administration, "Recommendations Based Upon a Study of Police Cadet Programs in the United States," submitted to Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, Department of Justice (April 1966).

⁹⁶ *Ibid.*

⁹⁷ *Supra*, note 28.

⁹⁸ I.A.C.P., "A Survey of Police Services in Metropolitan Dade County, Fla." (Washington: I.A.C.P. 1963), p. 39.

Younger men can also be expected to fulfill their maximum working years with greater endurance for the tremendous physical exertions required of the working officer. In addition, younger men present easier training subjects and are probably more readily amenable to the discipline necessary in a police operation. For these reasons a maximum age should be established that is no higher than 29.

While every effort should be made to recruit younger men for police service, it is doubtful that mandatory maximum age requirements of 29 would always serve the best interests of a department. In some cases, a highly qualified person, who had pursued a successful career in another law enforcement agency or in another profession, such as the military service, may possess skills needed by a police department. To prevent the automatic rejection of such persons, maximum age requirements should be maintained at higher levels—the Federal Bureau of Investigation has a maximum age requirement of 41⁹⁹—or police administrators should be given wide latitude in waiving a lower maximum age requirement when they consider such waiver to be justified.

PROBATIONARY PERIOD

Regardless of how carefully a department may select and screen its personnel in accordance with the best techniques known today, these procedures alone do not accurately measure fitness to perform police work.¹⁰⁰ The police service and other government agencies have long recognized that a period of probation is necessary to judge the qualities of new employees. Full evaluation must be made of a police recruit's ability to determine whether he can cope with the unusual demands of the police service and to detect weaknesses which may develop under actual working conditions. Since civil service commissions, central personnel agencies, or police boards often select police personnel, a probationary period is the only method, aside from a brief oral interview, by which a chief administrator can evaluate officers and eliminate those who do not meet the needs of the department.¹⁰¹

In a 1956 survey of 368 departments by the International Association of Chiefs of Police, it was reported that 93 percent of these departments required new appointees to serve a period of time on probationary status.¹⁰² However, in over 74 percent of these departments, the probationary period was limited to 6 months or less.¹⁰³ Only 2 percent of the departments had a probationary period longer than 1 year.¹⁰⁴ In contrast, the probationary period for the police in England and Wales is 2 years.¹⁰⁵

Few departments today make appropriate use of the probationary process. An earlier national commission indicated that this was common of all government agencies:¹⁰⁶

In spite of the frequently heard complaint that the examinations are even now unsatisfactory, and that the departments are now filled with incompetents, this commission was able to find scarcely a single jurisdiction which is giving systematic attention to the probationary period.

Probation should involve a systematic evaluation of performance and a correction of deficiencies in the selection

process by "dismissing the inept recruit in the early stages of his service . . . before he has acquired the extraordinary protection thrown about him by tenure-of-office acts."¹⁰⁷ Since current selection methods cannot screen out all persons who are unsuited for police work, a comprehensive evaluation of recruits during probation is extremely important. For example, in the Berkeley, Calif. Police Department an average of 20 percent of the recruits initially accepted into the department are removed prior to the end of their 2-year probationary period.¹⁰⁸ Between October of 1961 and September 1962, 10 percent of the recruits hired by the Department of Public Safety of Dade County, Fla., were dismissed during their probationary period.¹⁰⁹

In most departments, however, the length of the probationary period and methods of evaluation are insufficient to measure the effectiveness or the personal characteristics of recruits. The first 3 to 6 months of a recruit's employment should be devoted to a training program. Thus, little opportunity will exist to observe performance in a variety of working situations until after training is completed. A reliable evaluation cannot be made in a few months. For this reason, a probationary period should be 18 months in length, and certainly no less than 1 year.

Even an extended period of probation will not be meaningful, however, unless a careful evaluation of each recruit is undertaken. In many departments, probationary officers are not closely supervised and no formal reports are made of their performance. As a result, it is typical for officers to be elevated to regular status automatically upon the completion of their probationary period. The performance of all officers, both during and after recruit training, should be systematically observed and formally rated by all training instructors, immediate supervisors, and carefully selected officers who have worked with the probationary officer.¹¹⁰ And if, for example, a probationary officer demonstrates biases which prevent him from impartially performing police work, he should be rated as unqualified. Along with ratings, citizen complaints rendered against probationary officers should be evaluated both to protect the officer and to determine possible derogatory qualities and conduct. All noted deficiencies in performance and aptitude should then be assessed to determine whether they are rectifiable. If they are not, the officer should be dismissed from the service.

Dismissal of probationary officers is complicated by the civil service law in many jurisdictions.¹¹¹ A 1961 survey showed that civil service regulations in 82 of the 345 cities surveyed required police departments to show the same documented cause for dismissing probationary officers as for dismissing regular personnel. Far greater latitude for dismissal should be granted to the hiring authority during a probationary period.

In many cities, however, incompetent personnel is not removed during probationary periods solely because of the unwillingness of chief administrators to exercise their power of dismissal.¹¹²

While much remains to be done to improve civil service law and regulations with respect to police probation, the whole prob-

⁹⁹ U.S. Department of Justice, "Facts About a Career in the FBI." (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966).

¹⁰⁰ *Supra*, note 28.

¹⁰¹ *Supra*, note 77 at p. 67.

¹⁰² *Supra*, note 28.

¹⁰³ *Ibid.*

¹⁰⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁰⁵ *Supra*, note 16 at p. 132.

¹⁰⁶ Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, "Better Government Personnel." (Washington: 1946, U.S. Government Printing Office), pp. 48-49.

¹⁰⁷ *Supra*, note 16 at p. 132.

¹⁰⁸ *Supra*, note 56 at p. 152.

¹⁰⁹ *Supra*, note 98 at p. 50.

¹¹⁰ *Supra*, note 13 at p. 104.

¹¹¹ *Supra*, note 28.

¹¹² *Supra*, note 16 at pp. 132-333.

lem will remain unchanged until municipal police administrators more frequently exercise the powers of dismissal lodged with them. Until this is done, little sympathy need be accorded to the police chief who complains that he does not possess sufficient power to discipline the rank and file; for even when the chief's powers in this respect are complete and unrestricted during the probationary period, almost never are they exercised, with the result that the errors arising out of inadequate selection processes quickly come under the full protection of civil service laws and regulations.

Thus, it is incumbent upon all chief administrators to take action quickly and remove any officer who does not possess the requisites to meet effectively and impartially the demands placed upon police personnel.

AUTHORITY FOR REMOVAL

Even the careful screening of officers during probation will not insure that a department will be free of personnel who are corrupt, incompetent, or emotionally unqualified to perform police work. While the need to protect career officers from arbitrary dismissal by chief administrators is recognized, civil service regulations in a majority of our cities unduly restrict the authority of an administrator to weed out undesirable officers. In many cities, he has no authority to dismiss, but only the authority to recommend that a civil service board determine whether there is cause for dismissal.

The experience of removal procedures under civil service has revealed that officers are normally dismissed only under flagrant circumstances. Even if an administrator is desirous of upgrading the quality of his personnel and removing all officers who do not meet the standards of his department, it is doubtful whether, under current procedures in many cities, he would be able to do so. Commission surveys report that these conditions contribute to a situation where too many officers remain in police departments even though they are unsuitable for public service and tarnish the image of all police personnel.

The primary authority for removal should be vested in the chief administrator of a police department. To curb abuses of authority, an independent agency, such as a civil service commission, should review dismissals.

THE EFFECT OF RAISING STANDARDS

This report has strongly urged that selection standards be significantly raised. This has been done with the full realization that the nation's police departments are seriously understaffed.

The raising of standards, however, should actually have the overall effect of attracting more and better candidates by bolstering the prestige of police service. There are many able young men who will be willing and even eager to enter police work if police departments offered professional opportunities. As a former Chief of Police of Kansas City, Mo., recognized almost 10 years ago:¹¹³

Some have reasoned that current police working conditions, longer hours, and lower salaries than private industry, are large

enough obstacles in the way of obtaining new police personnel. They say that if we add another barrier, such as preservice State examinations, the employment problem will become more acute. I have reminded them that there is no permanency to *status quo*; there must either be progression or regression in our push to better standards. If we make the acquisition of a police position too easy, we discourage incentive and invite inefficiency. Any move on our part that tends to make the attainment of the policeman role a more honorable and proud accomplishment will tend to attract more and better recruits, men of the kind and type we now seek with eagerness.

Departments which have college requirements, such as the Multnomah County Sheriff's Department, have reported that the elevation of standards has enhanced, not hindered, recruiting efforts.¹¹⁴

This of course will require more than a mere appeal to college men or better public relations. First, as was emphasized above, police departments should relax unduly restrictive standards relating to height, weight, eyesight and residency. Police departments will often have to decide which is more important—an officer who is intelligent and has insight into community enforcement problems or an officer with lesser intelligence and education who meets all the present rigid physical and residency requirements. The decision should be that modern professional policing must place a priority on education, intelligence, and emotional stability, and provide greater flexibility in physical requirements.

Second and most important, higher educational standards can be successfully implemented only if police organizations are drastically reorganized and improved to attract able recruits. The two can only be accomplished together. Consequently, the police departments of this nation must simultaneously work to recruit better educated personnel and to examine and change their own operations to make police service a challenging and rewarding career.

ATTRACTING PERSONNEL

The Nation's police departments are encountering serious difficulty in maintaining their forces at authorized strength. A survey conducted by the National League of Cities in 1966 disclosed that over 65 percent of the departments surveyed were understaffed; that these departments were 5,840 officers, or 5 percent below authorized strength; and were 11,864 officers, or 10 percent below preferred strength.¹¹⁵ In 1965, for example, Baltimore was 229 officers below strength; Cleveland, 512; Pittsburgh, 80; Kansas City, 215; and Memphis, 78.¹¹⁶

Since, on the average, police departments are currently 5 percent below authorized strength, since the authorized strength of police departments has increased at the rate of approximately 3 percent each year,¹¹⁷ and since an average of 5.4 percent of existing personnel leave their departments each year (due to resignation, dismissal, retirement, or death)¹¹⁸ 50,000 new police officers will be needed in 1967 alone.

Commission recommendations for the addition of community service officers and staff specialists will require

¹¹³ Bernard C. Brannon, "The Set of the Sall," "Police," (Sept.-Oct. 1957), p. 17.

¹¹⁴ Letter from Donald Clark, former Sheriff, Multnomah County, Portland, Oreg. (September, 1966).

¹¹⁵ *Supra*, note 59 at p. 16.

¹¹⁶ Police Department, Kansas City, Mo. "1965 Survey of Municipal Police Departments" (Cities of 300,000 population, 1960 Census), Oct. 25, 1965.

¹¹⁷ Memorandum from Michael S. March, Assistant Chief, Education, Manpower, and Science, U.S. Bureau of the Budget, May 11, 1966, table 4.

¹¹⁸ *Supra*, note 59 at p. 16.

even greater numbers of police personnel. But mere addition of manpower without accompanying efforts to make the best use of existing personnel strength might serve only to aggravate the problem of inefficiency. In many departments police personnel are being wasted on trivial duties. In others, increased investment in staff work or more sophisticated equipment would do more to improve police work than investment in more men. Switching from 2-man to 1-man patrol cars would in some instances free large numbers of policemen for added patrol or investigative duties. Each department should assess its manpower needs with considerations such as these in mind and ask for additional men only when the organization, policies, and practices of the department are such that the increased personnel can be effectively utilized in the reduction of crime. When the case for this need has been made, it is the responsibility of each jurisdiction to see that this need is met.

Although police departments are encountering difficulty in hiring new officers, this is not due to a dearth of applicants, but to a lack of qualified applicants. In 1961, only 22.3 percent of the applicants for positions in 368 police departments were accepted.¹¹⁹ The applicant success rate in many departments is far lower. For example, in 1965, only 2.8 percent of the candidates for the Los Angeles Police Department were eventually accepted into the force.¹²⁰ In 1966, only 29 of 1,033 applicants were hired by the Dallas Police Department.¹²¹

There is a critical need, therefore, for police departments to attract more acceptable applicants to careers in law enforcement. This is particularly true in light of the recommendation that educational standards be elevated and that candidates be more carefully screened to insure acceptable emotional stability. As was noted by the British Royal Commission on Police in 1962, police work is not inherently unattractive as a career.¹²² The investigation or prevention of crime, the protection or assistance of citizens, and the administration of a complex governmental agency all provide stimulating career opportunities for the talented and the educated.

This chapter has already discussed the inhibiting effect on police recruitment of the single level of entry into police work for recruits, and of restrictive physical and residency requirements. These are by no means the only deterrents to attracting able police recruits. There are other "policies and practices that are obsolete and inadequate in today's competitive labor market."¹²³

THE POLICE IMAGE

There is limited understanding by the public of the nature of the police task. The public as a whole may see the police as a whole as the front line of defense against crime, but more often than not individual citizens encounter individual policemen when the policemen are directing traffic, rendering emergency treatment, issuing citations for parking or traffic violations, providing information, or performing other routine duties. On the other hand, to some persons who are poor or who are in minority groups, the police are viewed as oppressive enforcers of

the status quo. Although support and respect for the police is increasing, the status accorded to the police is still far lower than that of other professions that compete for college graduates. In a 1961 survey of status given to occupations, the police ranked 54th out of 90 occupations, which tied them with playground directors and railroad conductors.¹²⁴

In short, the primary challenges confronting law enforcement are often not apparent to the public, and the police, to date, have done little to highlight the demands on their personnel that do call for professional skills. Little effort is devoted to describing the complexity of investigating or preventing crime, of reducing delinquent behavior, of administering police operations, or of solving community problems. Instead of promoting the advantages of a career in the police service, police departments, all too often, tarnish the attractiveness of police service. Police administrators frequently bemoan the plight of the policeman, the low compensation, the long hours, and the hostility and resentment of the public. Although the police should publicly discuss their problems, this can be accomplished, as it is in other professions, without undermining the attractiveness of police service itself. The hardships confronting the police, if positively presented, are precisely the challenges that could make the police service attractive to the highly skilled. As Glenford S. Leonard, the Director of Public Safety of Oak Park, Mich., recently stated:¹²⁵

If we continually complain that our image is being adversely affected by our problems . . . (then) it is being affected. I believe that we should start insisting and advertising that it is a career service of action, of prestige, and of the greatest importance in our democracy. We may even convince ourselves of this, and if we do, we have taken a big step toward attracting people. . . .

CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

Compensation. If the police service is to be an attractive career opportunity, it must offer compensation that is competitive with other occupations or professions that seek men of education or ability. In most communities, the police service presently does not offer competitive salaries to the college graduate or to other talented persons.

In 1966, the median starting salaries for patrolmen ranged from \$4,920 in smaller communities to \$5,834 in cities of over 500,000 population.¹²⁶ Starting salaries varied from \$2,820 in Durant, Okla., to \$8,790 in Anchorage, Alaska.¹²⁷ In most cities, the maximum salaries paid to patrolmen were not significantly higher than the entrance salary. The maximum median salary in 1966 was \$5,650 in smaller communities and \$7,008 in larger cities or an average increase of only \$730 and \$1,174 respectively over starting salaries.¹²⁸

Of the 228,798 sworn personnel reported in the 1960 census of occupational characteristics, only 464 earned salaries of more than \$15,000 and only 4,500 earned over \$10,000.¹²⁹ These figures clearly reflect the limited financial opportunities in the police service today.

¹¹⁹ *Supra*, note 28.

¹²⁰ American Trial Lawyers Association, "Crime and Its Causes in Los Angeles." (Laocaster, Calif.: Golden West Publishing Co., 1966), p. 7-8.

¹²¹ "Police Academy Accepts Only 3%," *The Times-Herald* (Dallas, Tex., Aug. 20, 1966), p. 1, col. 1.

¹²² Royal Commission on Police, "Royal Commission on the Police, 1962, Final Report" (London: Her Majesty's Stationary Office), p. 94.

¹²³ *Detroit Free Press*, Aug. 4, 1965, sec. B, p. 6, col. 1.

¹²⁴ Albert Reles, "Occupations and Social Status." (New York: McMillan Co., 1961).

¹²⁵ *Supra*, note 91 at p. 84.

¹²⁶ *Supra*, note 3 at p. 435.

¹²⁷ *Id.*, at p. 436.

¹²⁸ *Id.*, at p. 435.

¹²⁹ *Supra*, note 20 at p. 304.

Although it is difficult to determine what occupations or professions compete with the police for personnel, it can be seen that police salaries are below those of most skilled occupations. In 1960, the median salary for professional and technical workers was \$7,124; for craftsmen and foremen, \$5,699; and for police, \$5,321.¹³⁰

In Seattle, policemen are paid \$375 a month less than cable splicers;¹³¹ in Nashville, electricians earn an hourly rate of \$3.22 in contrast to the police rate of \$2.55;¹³² and retail buyers in Los Angeles earn a median salary of \$9,492 as compared with maximum salary of \$8,820 paid to patrolmen.¹³³

As earlier indicated, starting and maximum salaries for the police service should be competitive with salaries offered by other employers who seek men of the same age, ability, education, and experience. This will require that police salaries for all positions be increased in nearly all cities. For example, police departments must attract competent college graduates to perform as police agents. In many cities, this will require that starting salaries range from \$7,000 to \$10,000—based upon 1967 wage levels—with maximum salaries for police agents exceeding \$15,000. Special agents for the Federal Bureau of Investigation now earn starting salaries of \$8,421 and can ultimately earn \$16,905 in that same position.

Not all police salaries, at least in the foreseeable future, will have to be competitive with salaries offered college graduates. Many police officers will continue to be high school graduates or will have only completed 2 years of college. Salaries for this position, however, should at least be competitive with salaries paid to craftsmen and other skilled laborers.¹³⁴ In many communities this will require a starting salary—again based upon 1967 wage levels—between \$6,000 and \$9,000 with a maximum salary of at least \$12,000. Many large departments are already paying beginning salaries to patrolmen which fall within this range. For example, the San Francisco Police Department has a starting salary of \$8,220; Los Angeles, \$7,692, and New York, \$7,032.¹³⁵ But in these departments, as well as nearly all others, the maximum salary opportunity is limited. Although the starting salary in San Francisco is comparatively high, the maximum salary for patrolmen is only \$600 higher.¹³⁶ Since the number of supervisory and administrative positions in any police department are limited, relatively few sworn officers advance to these levels. Also, since it is essential that highly skilled personnel remain as police officers and police agents, all departments should create greater career opportunities within these positions.

The median salary for the top police executive, the police chief, ranges from \$7,504 in smaller communities, to \$17,600 in cities of over 500,000 population.¹³⁷ In only 8 of 38 cities of between 300,000 and 1 million population, do captains receive more than \$11,000. Sergeants receive \$9,600 or more in only nine cities.¹³⁸ Supervisors and administrators in police departments must receive salaries comparable with the magnitude of their responsibility. Administering a police department requires skills similar to those required of management in private industry. Before a police department can attract

persons who could ultimately assume management responsibility and who aspire to do so, the salary paid to supervisors and administrators must be closely competitive with analogous responsibility in that community.

In many cities, police salaries are tied to the salaries of other government employees. For example, it has been a tradition for police and fire department salaries to be identical. Police compensation should be based solely on the nature of work being performed by various classes of personnel within the department as well as within the entire structure of local government. Since policemen and firemen perform entirely different jobs, neither service should base its salaries upon those of the other. If, considering all factors, firemen require higher salaries, they should be so compensated. The opposite should also be true.

In addition to competitive salaries, all police departments should insure that fringe benefits such as retirement plans, group health and life insurance, and vacation and sick leave are comparable to those offered in private industry. At one time, many police departments had fringe benefits which were superior to those offered by private industry, and they assumed that benefits such as early retirement or lengthy vacation periods were a substitute for competitive salaries. However, since most occupations and professions now have comparable or superior fringe benefit programs, police departments can no longer rely upon these benefits as the sole means of attracting personnel.

In summary, the police cannot be expected to recruit competent personnel until communities are willing to pay the price for improved police performance. Many communities have already recognized this need, but starting and maximum salaries are still insufficient in nearly every department. Until salaries are increased to competitive levels, the police service will fight a losing battle in its efforts to upgrade the quality of its personnel.

Working Conditions. Another deterrent to the attractiveness of careers in law enforcement is the working conditions of many police departments. All too often, police precinct stations are old, cramped and badly maintained; equipment is deficient; and clerical help is limited. These conditions adversely affect police morale and detract from the professional nature of police work.¹³⁹

Police morale is adversely affected as long as police activities are housed in outmoded buildings and personnel are forced to work with inferior equipment. Without proper facilities and equipment even the most conscientious officer finds it difficult to perform his tasks properly. Good police buildings and equipment also create a favorable public impression enhancing the prestige of the department.

Recent surveys of several departments indicate that deplorable working conditions are widespread. For example, in Baltimore, the walls of the police headquarters building "were dirty, inadequate lighting made the lobby appear dingy, and the disinfectant used to clean the floors permeated the air with a pungent smell."¹⁴⁰ In Woodbridge, N.J., "police headquarters was inadequate in area,

¹³⁰ *Id.* at p. 233-235.

¹³¹ Seattle Police Officers Guild, "A Study of Wages and Working Conditions in the Seattle Police Department." (Seattle: Police Officers Guild, 1966).

¹³² *Supra*, note 50 at p. 111.

¹³³ Los Angeles City Government, "Wage and Salary Survey in Los Angeles County." (Los Angeles: Printing Division, 1966), p. 6. The patrolman's salary was obtained from the 1966 "Municipal Yearbook," *supra*, note 3 at p. 444.

¹³⁴ *Supra*, note 50 at p. 111.

¹³⁵ *Supra*, note 3 at pp. 444-445, 450.

¹³⁶ *Id.* at p. 445.

¹³⁷ *Id.* at p. 436.

¹³⁸ *Supra*, note 116.

¹³⁹ I.A.C.P., "A Survey of the Police Department, Baltimore, Maryland." (Washington: I.A.C.P., December 1965) p. 475.

¹⁴⁰ *Id.* at p. 478.

poorly laid out, inadequately lighted, unsanitary, and unattractive."¹⁴¹ There are 900 persons in the headquarters building of the Washington, D.C., police occupying less space than had been allocated for 385.¹⁴² Further, in many departments uniforms are drab; the numbers of automobiles and other equipment are totally inadequate; and sworn officers are often required to write or type their own reports and maintain their own records.¹⁴³

Competent officers cannot easily be attracted or retained under conditions such as those described above. All police buildings should be attractive, provide adequate space and be well maintained. Modern equipment such as dictating machines should be used for reports, and officers should only be required to perform work suited to their ability.

Professional Climate. As was earlier indicated, the police service will not stimulate the interest of the college graduate unless tasks are more rationally separated among different classes of officers and immediate opportunities are provided for the qualified to confront the most difficult law enforcement problems. It will also be essential that police departments encourage the use of professional skills. At the present time, personnel are closely regimented in most departments and initiative is not encouraged. For example, there is far more emphasis on making arrests and following orders than on questioning traditional procedures or solving community problems. This is not an appealing environment for a person of professional stature. Thus, the overregimentation of personnel, which was noted in a 1934 survey of the Boston Police Department, continues to exist today:¹⁴⁴

Too often the military aspect of organization pushes the essentially individual character of police work into the background. A policeman is regimented with his fellows. He is given a uniform, badge, and number; he is assigned to a squad and platoon; he carries a book of rules in his pocket and a schedule of duty calls in his mind. He is a cog in a machine. Everything seems to be numbered, labeled, covered by rules, and arranged far in advance. Yet, when he goes out on post he is alone and on his own responsibility.

Unquestionably, police organizations must have certain military characteristics; officers must be responsive to departmental policies and must act in a disciplined fashion during emergency situations. However, police work also requires considerable independent judgment and an ability to adjust police practices to complex and changing conditions. Extreme regimentation prevents these needs from being fulfilled.

Therefore, if the police sincerely want professional recognition, they must afford professional status to their sworn officers. Unnecessary regimentation should be removed, independent judgment should be encouraged, and criticism of existing practices should be solicited. Police departments traditionally have resisted change and have been wary of the intellectual. As long as this attitude prevails, the police will never successfully compete for the type of person they so desperately need. Although other factors, such as compensation, bear heavily on the ability

to attract qualified applicants, none bears as heavily as the professional opportunity available to the officer.

RECRUITMENT PROGRAMS

The Commission has suggested many reforms calculated to enhance the attractiveness of careers in law enforcement for the college graduate or other qualified persons. But improvements in career opportunities alone will not alter the current crisis. Concomitant with reforms, the police must adopt vigorous recruiting programs. At the present time there is little coordinated effort among law enforcement agencies to stimulate interest in careers in law enforcement. As a result, each of the 40,000 separate agencies must undertake its own recruiting program, and these programs rarely extend to the college campus.

If law enforcement is ever to upgrade the existing levels of personnel, it must do so by concentrating recruiting efforts among college students or among persons who have the capacity to perform college work. In light of the current unfortunate image of police work, successes in such recruiting programs may initially be limited. It will be necessary, therefore, to develop programs to stimulate interest in law enforcement. The following proposals suggest some methods for attracting the college graduate or other persons with needed skills. There is an additional need to attract persons with less education, but with a knowledge of the community, to serve as community service officers. Methods to accomplish this end are explored in chapter 6.

The Coordination of Recruiting Efforts. While many police departments currently have extensive recruiting programs, recruiting efforts by a majority of the law enforcement agencies are haphazard, poorly financed and limited to the community where the individual department is situated. Several of the smaller police departments do not have sufficient funds to undertake extensive recruiting efforts, and because of strict residency requirements, the search for candidates must be restricted within city boundaries.

It is imperative that all departments be permitted to recruit on a nationwide basis. Residency requirements currently imposed on police departments should, therefore, be removed, as has already been done in such cities as Washington, D.C., and Miami, Fla. Also, aside from recruiting programs conducted by individual departments, all law enforcement agencies within a State should jointly engage in statewide campaigns—and even campaign nationally—for the purpose of describing the challenge of law enforcement careers and the available opportunities for qualified candidates. Innumerable advantages exist in jointly administered recruitment programs: (1) potential candidates would be informed of all vacancies in police departments throughout a State; (2) comprehensive efforts to promote careers in law enforcement could be undertaken; (3) more extensive budgets could be appropriated for recruiting at substantially less cost than would necessarily have to be incurred by individual departments; and (4) common procedures for applying for

¹⁴¹ The New York Institute of Criminology, "Report of Survey: Police Department Township of Woodbridge, Middlesex County, New Jersey," (New York: The New York Institute of Criminology, May 19, 1962), p. 52.

¹⁴² *Supra*, note 17 at p. 41.

¹⁴³ *Id.* at p. 43; See also Bureau of Police, St. Paul, Minn., "A Study and Report," (East Lansing: The Eastman 1962) pp. 79, 142.

¹⁴⁴ *Supra*, note 23 at p. 53.

positions for all departments could be devised. Joint programs could easily be administered by State commissions on police standards, which are described in a later section of this chapter. Recommended joint recruiting programs were extensively described in chapter 4, and will not therefore be repeated here.

Incentive Programs. Because of the immediacy of the recruitment problem and of the urgent need for college graduates in law enforcement, special financial incentives should be offered to persons who desire to complete their education and pursue careers in the police service. For example, under the National Defense Education Act of 1965, the Federal Government is currently providing loans to college students.¹⁴⁵ Under this act, 50 percent of a loan is forgiven if a student becomes a full-time teacher in an elementary or secondary school or in an institution of higher education.¹⁴⁶ This act should be amended to apply also to students entering the police service. As a supplement to this act, State or local governments could also provide student loans which would be partially or totally forgiven over a period of years if students enter police departments within that jurisdiction.

Another method of stimulating interest in law enforcement would be for police departments to provide part-time employment to college students as civilians, thereby enabling them to finance their college educations. If, upon graduation, the student enters the department in either a civilian or sworn capacity, he could receive retirement and pay credit for the time employed while attending college. Retirement and pay credits are given to graduates of the military academies who pursue careers in the military service. Such a program is also now being used by the Arlington County Police Department.¹⁴⁷

It was earlier recommended that police departments establish programs for the purpose of attracting qualified high school graduates into police service before they select other career opportunities. At the present time, cadets are primarily used to perform clerical tasks, and are admitted into police departments as sworn officers upon reaching the age of 21. To derive greater benefits from a cadet or police intern program, participants should be required to attend an accredited college or university on a full-time basis. While attending a college or university an intern could perform clerical tasks, field work, or staff functions for the police department on a part-time basis during the school year, and full-time during summer vacations. For example, the intern could assist police officers and police agents, or could serve as community service officers. The police department, with Federal, State or local financial assistance, could defray the college expenses of the intern as well as pay him a salary and these expenses would have to be repaid only if he did not enter the police department and serve a specific length of time upon his graduation from college.

At least 19 police departments now require their cadets to take college courses.¹⁴⁸ However, in many of these programs, the cadet is required to pay for his own education and his academic courses are frequently restricted to technical police science courses. For example, cadets

in the Chicago Police Department are required to enroll in at least two units of college study each year "along police career lines."¹⁴⁹ A majority of the other departments which do pay the college tuition for cadets also restrict college study to police science subjects.¹⁵⁰ As was earlier observed, police science programs, as presently constituted, do not fulfill the educational need of police personnel.

For this reason, cadets and interns should be required to enroll in the broader college offerings at accredited institutions. If cadet programs are utilized in this way, their attractiveness will be enhanced and they could serve as a valuable method of recruiting qualified persons into the police service.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT

TRAINING

Recruit Training. No person, regardless of his individual qualifications, is prepared to perform police work on native ability alone. Aside from individual intelligence, prior education, judgment, and emotional fitness, an officer must receive extensive vocational training before he can understand the police task and learn how to fulfill it:¹⁵¹

When recruits are properly selected they bring to the job considerable native ability but little knowledge or experience in police work. In a short time, they must be prepared to operate alone on the streets under a variety of conditions that call for knowledge of laws and ordinances, legal procedures, police practices, and human relations. As they progress, they must not only acquire more of the same kind of knowledge but also should develop some specialized understanding of investigative techniques and scientific crime detection. This will enable them to conduct initial or preliminary investigations and to preserve vital evidence for the specialists who will assist them on difficult cases.

Training "is one of the most important means of upgrading the services of a police department."¹⁵² The need for such training, however, was not fully recognized until the decade prior to World War II.¹⁵³

In years gone by, it was an opinion among both police and public that any man of general ability could learn to "police" by doing it. Consequently, the then prevailing "training" philosophy was one of providing the recruit with a uniform and badge; arming him with a baton, revolver, and handcuffs; assuring his geographical orientation by issuing him a local street map; and instructing him to "hit the street" and enforce the Ten Commandments. This philosophy conforms conveniently with that which proclaims "there is more justice and law in the end of a night stick than is to be found in all law books."

Although the Wickersham Commission reported in 1931 that formalized recruit training was no longer controversial, its survey of 383 cities in that year showed that only 20 percent of these cities conducted such training.¹⁵⁴ In the majority of the cities surveyed, particularly the smaller cities, there was not even a pretext of training.¹⁵⁵

¹⁴⁵ United States Senate, Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, "National Defense Education Act of 1958, as amended by the 85th Congress." (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, November 1964), p. 22.

¹⁴⁶ *Id.* at p. 22.

¹⁴⁷ FBI National Academy, "Police Cadet System: Research Paper." (Washington: Department of Justice, June 9, 1964), p. 34.

¹⁴⁸ *Supra*, note 95.

¹⁴⁹ Chicago Police Department, "Personnel Division—Cadet Program." (Chicago: Police Department, 1966.)

¹⁵⁰ See e.g., Report of President's Commission on Crime in D.C. *Supra*, note 17 at p. 28.

¹⁵¹ Winters, "Recruit and In-Service Training: A Must" Speech delivered to the First Annual Southern Institute for Law Enforcement, the Florida Institute for Continuing University Studies, Tallahassee, Fla., Nov. 7-9, 1963.

¹⁵² *Supra*, note 17 at p. 32.

¹⁵³ *Supra*, note 22 at p. 110.

¹⁵⁴ *Supra*, note 4 at p. 71.

¹⁵⁵ *Id.* at pp. 70-71.

Briefly, then, in the counties, towns, and hamlets of this class, it must be stated that assumption of badge, revolver, and the authority of law, has as a prerequisite no training or police experience, in fact, nothing.

Spurred by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, which dramatized the need, set standards, and provided curricula and instructors for police training, the police have made great strides in the past 30 years in widespread institution of formal recruit training programs. In 1965, a survey of 1,352 cities conducted by the International City Managers Association found that 1,135 of these cities conducted some type of recruit training for their police officers.¹⁵⁶ A recent survey of 269 law enforcement agencies by the National League of Cities, conducted in 1966, reported that 97 percent of the agencies surveyed had formal training.¹⁵⁷ But another survey of 4,000 police agencies conducted in 1965 by the International Association of Chiefs of Police revealed that 85 percent of the officers appointed were placed in the field prior to their recruit training.¹⁵⁸

Even though a substantial number of today's police departments require their recruits to undergo some initial training, an examination of many of these programs reveals that the vocational training needs of recruits are inadequately met in most departments.

Content of Training Programs. In 1934 a survey of one police department indicated that the primary courses offered in its recruit training program were:¹⁵⁹

- Criminal law of the State and common law.
- Ordinances and bylaws of the city.
- Rules and regulations of the police department.
- Traffic signals with hand and arm.
- First aid to sick and injured, and Schaeffer prone pressure method of resuscitation for cases of suffocation by drowning, gas, hanging, electric shock, smoke, and ammonia fumes.
- Military drill (U.S. Army Drill Regulations) in the school of the soldier—squad, platoon, and company.
- U.S. Army calisthenics.
- Use and care of the revolver; dry practice and practice with fixed ammunition.
- Use of gas masks, gas bombs, bulletproof vests, and Winchester (riot) shotgun.
- Jiu jitsu holds and breaks.

While it is obvious that such a training program is totally inadequate to prepare recruits for police work, few of our smaller police departments today provide even this amount of training. For example, the city of Meridan, Conn., had almost no regular training aside from firing range instruction until 1961.¹⁶⁰ This is not true of our Nation's larger departments, however. Metropolitan police departments, particularly those in cities of over 500,000 population, have greatly expanded the scope of their training programs. These now include instruction in such subjects as investigation, field procedures, crowd control, basic sociology and race relations, administration of justice, criminal evidence, and juvenile procedures.

While a few of these programs are highly commendable, it remains doubtful whether even a majority of them provide recruits with an ample understanding of the police task. For example, very few of the training pro-

grams reviewed by the Commission provide course material on the history of law enforcement, the role of the police in modern society, or the need for discretion in law enforcement. The fact that appropriate consideration is not given to police discretion was also noted by the President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia:¹⁶¹

Throughout the training program there must be a frank recognition of the fact that policemen exercise broad discretionary powers in enforcing the law. The maxim that policemen exercise no discretion but only enforce the law must give way before the blunt realities of the law enforcement process. One important test of a good recruit training program, therefore, is the extent to which it equips the recruit to exercise his discretion wisely when confronted with actual enforcement problems. In the past the department has neglected this important ingredient of recruit training; we urge that the curriculum be extensively reshaped to reflect more fully the actual dimensions and difficulties of police work in the District of Columbia.

Current training programs, for the most part, prepare an officer to perform police work mechanically, but do not prepare him to understand his community, the police role, or the imperfections of the criminal justice system.

Some police departments are just beginning to recognize the significance of improving the relationship of the police with the community, and particularly with the minority community. Although several departments have incorporated courses on police-community relations, these units are limited, both in time and substance. For example, two of the largest police departments devote under 10 hours of their over 400 hours of training exclusively to police-minority group relations. Thus, an earlier observation on police training in the United States is still applicable today:¹⁶²

It can be said of police training schools that the recruit is taught everything except the essential requirements of his calling, which is how to secure and maintain the approval and respect of the public whom he encounters daily in the course of his duties.

Length of Training Programs. In those departments that provide recruit training, programs vary in length from less than 1 week in many of the smaller departments to as many as 20 weeks.¹⁶³ The recruit training program of the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department in 1966 consisted of 820 hours. While a majority of the departments in cities above 250,000 population provide 8 weeks or more of training, the average department in the remaining communities provides not more, and typically less, than 3 weeks of training.¹⁶⁴ Cost factors are undoubtedly the primary reason for this disparity. Very few small departments can afford to establish extensive programs.¹⁶⁵

It is economically feasible to provide recruit training to a class of 20 men whereas it is not feasible to do so with a group of 2 or 3 men. Thus, the smaller cities are confronted with the problem of either going so far under strength, awaiting a recruit group of adequate size, or of hiring men in small numbers without providing training.

¹⁵⁶ *Supra*, note 3 at p. 415.

¹⁵⁷ *Supra*, note 59 at p. 29.

¹⁵⁸ I.A.C.P., "Police Training," report submitted to the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. (Washington: I.A.C.P., 1966).

¹⁵⁹ *Supra*, note 23 at p. 70.

¹⁶⁰ *Supra*, note 32 at p. 110.

¹⁶¹ *Supra*, note 17 at p. 35.

¹⁶² Charles Reith, "The Blind Eye of History: A Study of the Origins of the Present Police Era." (London: Faber and Faber Limited, 1952), p. 115-116.

¹⁶³ *Supra*, note 158.

¹⁶⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁶⁵ *Supra*, note 28.

The latter course has been taken far too often. Some of the small departments, however, do send their recruits to training academies in nearby departments, community colleges, or state academies.¹⁰⁰ But most of the smaller agencies cannot spare an officer for any prolonged period of time and local governments are often unwilling to pay the salary and expenses necessarily incurred in sending a recruit to another part of the State for extensive training.

The choice then is typically between sending a recruit for a limited time or not sending him at all. When the demands on the police are considered, it is doubtful that any department can fulfill training needs in less than the 400 hours utilized by the majority of the departments in the cities over 500,000 population.

Relatively few departments provide supervised field training as an adjunct of classroom instruction. A 1966 Survey by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency reported that only 23 of 109 departments, for example, provided field observation of street problems. Classroom instruction will not suffice in and of itself. Ideally, a recruit should initially receive classroom orientation on the nature of the police task and law enforcement responsibility. The remainder of the training program should be balanced between closely supervised field training experience and classroom sessions devoted to problem solving situations which closely parallel actual street problems. Under such a training program, classroom instruction and field experience could be interspersed over a period not exceeding 6 months.

At least two police departments now combine recruit training with supervised field experience. In the Tucson, Ariz., Police Department, recruits devote 1 week of field work to each of the three principal departmental divisions as part of their formal training. The San Diego Police Department has 2 weeks of classroom and range instruction and devotes the remaining 12 weeks to a blending of classroom instruction and field experience. After the first 2 weeks, the recruit normally spends 4 hours of each day in the classroom and 5 hours obtaining field experience under the supervision of carefully selected police officers. The sixth hour of the daily field training portion is spent in a critique session reviewing experiences and problems. The benefit of these programs is that a recruit can better assimilate classroom instruction that is related to actual incidents in the field. Through exposure to actual field problems, investigations and crime incidents the need and value of classroom training becomes vividly apparent to the trainee. In summary, formal training programs for recruits in all departments, large and small, should consist of an absolute minimum of 400 hours of classroom work spread over a 4- to 6-month period so that it can be combined with carefully selected and supervised field training.

Methods of Instructions. Consideration must also be given to present methods of instruction. In nearly all training programs, the administrative and teaching staff are comprised totally of sworn officers who have been assigned to the academy on a full- or part-time basis.¹⁰⁷

The need for use of experienced officers to train recruits in performance of police work is an obvious one. Certain courses, however, could more appropriately be taught by or with the assistance of civilian specialists. For example, talented instructors from other disciplines should be used for instruction of such specialized subjects as law, psychology, race relations, and teaching techniques. The FBI National Academy has long had civilian instructors as part of its visiting faculty. For example, in 1966, the following civilian instructors taught at the National Academy: a professor of psychology, a sociologist, a chief clinical psychiatrist, four judges from various levels of the court system, a professor of history, a physicist and a chemist to cover the field of criminalistics, a superintendent of schools, and a representative from the news media. This is done on only a limited basis in most police departments today, although FBI instructors do teach subjects in many training programs. In 1965 alone, FBI personnel provided 42,224 hours of instruction to over 149,000 persons.

Most training courses are taught almost exclusively by lecture method, even though the limitations of such instruction have long been recognized by professional training directors and educators. The extent to which training academies utilize methods of instruction other than the lecture method was reported in a 1966 survey of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency:¹⁰⁸

TEACHING TECHNIQUES
(Survey of 109 police departments—1965)

<i>Technique</i>	<i>Number and percent using</i>
1. Lecture and discussion-----	105 (96.33)
2. TV-films and recordings-----	68 (62.38)
3. Simulation of practice-----	45 (41.28)
4. Actual practice-----	37 (33.94)
5. Practice in use of work devices-----	30 (27.52)
6. Field observation of communication facilities and conditions.	23 (21.10)
7. Discussion of assigned readings-----	19 (17.43)

This survey indicates that many police departments are either unaware of newer educative techniques or do not recognize the need for them. In order to insure that department instructors are qualified to teach in a training academy, all regular instructors should be required to complete a teacher training course of no less than 80 classroom hours taught by professional educators. This is the number of hours that the Federal Bureau of Investigation requires its special agents to complete before they are assigned to teach police subjects.

Continuing Training Programs. Deficiencies in current police training are not limited to recruit programs. New laws are enacted and old ones amended; the enforcement needs of a community change, and new concepts of police technology and department policy emerge. These facts dictate that training be a continuing process.

In a recent survey of the 54 police agencies within the metropolitan area of Detroit, only one-third of these departments provide refresher training for its personnel.¹⁰⁹

The Nation's departments that do provide continuing training are typically large departments that also conduct

¹⁰⁰ *Ibid.*
¹⁰⁷ Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Council on Crime and Delinquency and Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, "Pilot Study of Correctional Training and Manpower," 1966.

¹⁰⁸ *Ibid.*
¹⁰⁹ Survey of the International Association of Chief of Police, Washington, D.C., (1965).

extensive recruit training programs. But even in these departments, intensive inservice training is normally limited. There are some notable exceptions, however. For example, after police officers in the Los Angeles Police Department complete their basic training, they return to school after 1 year on the job for an intermediate course that ranges from 40-80 hours. This course marks the end of their 1-year probationary period. Between the 3rd and 5th year each officer in the department returns for another training course of the same length. Between their 7th and 14th year all officers must again return for a formal training period of 40-80 hours. The Federal Bureau of Investigation sends each of its special agents back to its training academy for a comprehensive 2-week refresher course after approximately 2 years of service, and thereafter such training is given every 5 years.

Much of the existing inservice training is given in brief, daily form. For example, many departments conduct rollcall training for from 5 to 20 minutes at the beginning of each tour of duty, and utilize excellent training aids such as "Training Key" or Sight/Sound films provided by the International Association of Chiefs of Police. While the short, daily training sessions for police officers have great value, these programs should be supplemented by an annual period of intensive inservice training. The necessary length of such training will vary among departments. It is doubtful, however, that yearly training needs can be fulfilled in less than 1 week.¹⁷⁰

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CAREER OPPORTUNITIES

Of equal concern is the fact that little consideration is given to preparing personnel for supervisory and administrative positions. As was indicated earlier in this report, an officer is not qualified to administer the complex affairs of a large department or to supervise the performance of others simply on the strength of police experience acquired in subordinate positions.

Supervisory and middle-management personnel perform functions and have responsibilities largely unrelated to their early experiences within the agency. Additional skills needed by prospective administrators and supervisors must be acquired through advanced education and specialized training.

Inservice Education. The future elevation of educational requirements will not alter the fact that a majority of today's police officers have not advanced beyond high school. In line with the critical need to upgrade the educative achievement of police personnel, it is essential that departments undertake massive programs to provide the opportunity for interested personnel to continue their educations.

One State, Virginia, has enacted legislation to enhance this opportunity. By a statute adopted in 1966, the Virginia Department of Education was authorized to pay 50 percent of all tuition costs to any officer who attends college. The department of education was further authorized to pay the remaining tuition costs when it received evidence that the officer continued to serve with

the same department for 1 year following the completion of such courses.¹⁷¹ Several cities, such as Tucson, provide financial assistance to their officers to enable them to take college courses. Such programs are commendable, and local, State, and Federal funds should be provided to assist police personnel to continue their educations.

Since it is extremely difficult for any person to acquire a meaningful education on a part-time basis, it would be preferable if a department could allow personnel to devote a complete year, for example, to college work. Military programs permit personnel to return to college for 1 academic year to complete requirements toward an advanced degree. They also permit those who have not completed baccalaureate degree requirements to return for up to 1 academic year while on a leave status. As recommended in chapter 13 of the General Report, Federal and State Governments should provide assistance to local governments so that similar programs can be initiated for the police service.

Most personnel, however, will undoubtedly have to acquire college education on a gradual basis by enrolling in one or two courses each semester. This gradual route to education unfortunately poses many hardships for police personnel. Duty rotation and court appearances often present conflicts with off-duty education, and many officers are not within commuting distance of a college or university. It is essential, therefore, that meaningful correspondence courses be available for interested officers. State and Federal Governments should finance the development of university extension level courses for police personnel.

Few departments today provide sufficient encouragement for personnel to return to school. For example, the fact that an officer has an advanced degree does not, in most cases, qualify the officer for a pay increment and is not normally one of the factors considered in promotions. A department should provide these additional incentives to encourage officers to advance their educations.

As was recommended earlier in this chapter, no officer should be eligible to qualify for promotion to police agent, supervisor, or administrator until he has acquired a baccalaureate degree. Based upon the current level of educational achievement, however, it is obvious that such a requirement would be unattainable at the present time. Until such a goal is attainable, however, departments should progressively increase educational standards for these positions at the earliest opportunity. Such a concept is not new to the police field. For example, in 1962 a consultant to the St. Paul, Minn., department made the following recommendation:¹⁷²

Patrolmen should not be appointed to the rank of sergeant until they have had 1 year of college work; 2 years should be required for promotion to lieutenant; 3 to captain; and 4 years to positions above this rank. . . .

In addition to requiring higher educational standards for such advanced positions, all departments should provide pay incentives for college education. For example, a pay increase could be provided for each year of college

¹⁷⁰ *Supra*, note 31 at p. 113-114.

¹⁷¹ Va. Code Ann., tit. 23, sec. 23-9 (1966 Cum. Supp.).

¹⁷² "Survey of the Bureau of Police: St. Paul, Minnesota." (East Lansing: The Eastman, 1962), p. 128.

education completed, with a substantial increase for personnel completing the work required for a degree. The California Commission on Peace Officers Standards and Training has suggested an education incentive program which certifies officers who attain specified levels of education and experience, and thereby qualifies such officers for pay increase:

SUGGESTED EDUCATION INCENTIVE PROGRAM, CALIFORNIA COMMISSION ON PEACE OFFICERS STANDARDS AND TRAINING

1. Must possess the P.O.S.T. Basic Certificate to qualify for the final step in the pay scale for police officer, deputy sheriff or higher ranks.
2. Possession of P.O.S.T. Intermediate Certificates shall qualify the officer for a 5 percent pay increase.
3. Possession of P.O.S.T. Advanced Certificates shall qualify for a 10 percent increase.
4. To remain eligible to receive the incentive program pay increase, the applicant must requalify each year by completing no less than 50 hours of education or training which would be recognized by P.O.S.T. as courses credited toward intermediate or advanced certificate or by completing a project approved by the department head. All education, training or projects approved under this section (annual qualification) shall be completed on the officer's own time unless otherwise approved by the department head.

For the purpose of annual qualification, the department head may specify and approve credit courses other than those recognized by P.O.S.T. when in his judgment the course has added to the professional development of the training or education specified.

Career Development Training. While a liberal education provides the foundation for enlightened leadership, it cannot totally provide the required specialized knowledge for police administration.

The demands on administrators, supervisors, or specialists also require advanced skills not developed by basic police training.¹⁷³ And yet, only a few large metropolitan departments provide even a limited amount of executive training.¹⁷⁴ To require vocational training for entry level officers, but not for specialists, supervisors, or administrators within a department, is incongruous. In the Los Angeles Police Department, each newly appointed sergeant, lieutenant, and captain must complete an advanced training course in preparation for his newly assigned duties. The sergeant's course is 160 hours, the lieutenant's and captain's courses vary from 40-80 hours. A command officer's school is also held periodically for ranks above captain whenever the need for training at this level is apparent. Such advanced training for supervisory and administrative positions is essential. Each State, therefore, should establish mandatory statewide standards which require that all personnel, prior to assuming supervisory or administrative responsibilities, complete advanced training offered either by the department or by college or university institutes. Such training could include subjects in leadership, fiscal management, supervisory decisionmaking, and psychological aspects of supervision. Further, specialized training should be provided to personnel assuming responsibility for staff

functions such as planning and research and police-community relations.

Colleges and universities should cooperate with individual departments in order to provide model career development programs. Several universities and colleges already provide specialized training for law enforcement in traffic, police-community relations, criminal investigation, criminalistics, and police administration. Such offerings are currently provided by the Northwestern University Traffic Institute, the Southern Police Institute, Indiana University, Michigan State University, and numerous colleges and universities in California.

During the past 32 years, the Federal Bureau of Investigation has also conducted inservice training at its National Academy for over 5,000 officers. In 1966, the Department of Justice provided a grant to the Harvard Business School to conduct an institute for improving management skills of the chiefs of police of 40 large cities.

The concept of management institutes should be encouraged, and State and Federal funds should be allocated for the purpose of greatly expanding the role of college and universities in providing middle and upper management training.

PROMOTION

In most cities today, police departments provide promotions on the basis of a merit system. In the early years of this century, police promotions were the subject of political abuse.¹⁷⁵ To preclude such abuses, civil service procedures were adopted which required that promotions be based upon written examination, length of service, and existing rank.¹⁷⁶ While these criteria lessened the opportunity for political influence and favoritism, they did not insure the selection of the most highly qualified personnel for positions of greater responsibility. The current promotion system is based largely upon the premise that experience and knowledge of police fieldwork are the prime requisites for serving as administrator or supervisor.

The qualities needed for serving in such capacities, however, cannot be measured by seniority and experience alone.¹⁷⁷

Seniority may be taken into account but should not govern promotion, and promotion by competitive examination would be quite unsuited to the police system because of the importance of initiative, tact, judgment, and other personal qualifications which cannot be gauged by means of an examination paper.

There is an assumption in the police service that fairness dictates that personnel with the longest term of service receive a preference for promotions. The effect of such preference, however, is to delay the advancement of more qualified personnel.¹⁷⁸

An omnipresent management problem is how to overcome a feeling deeply ingrained in most cultures that the most competent and accomplished younger person should wait out his time in deference to a mediocre individual with longer service.

¹⁷³ Samuel G. Chapman, "Developing Personnel Leadership," "The Police Chief," (Washington: I.A.C.P., March 1966), p. 24.

¹⁷⁴ *Supra*, note 81 at pp. 28, 29.

¹⁷⁵ *Supra*, note 8 at p. 132.

¹⁷⁶ *Supra*, note 16 at p. 133.

¹⁷⁷ The British Home Office Committee on the Police Service in England, Scotland, and Wales quoted in Harrison, *supra*, note 23 at p. 92.

¹⁷⁸ John P. Müller, "The Supervision of Personnel," (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951), p. 400.

Under existing procedures, an officer, regardless of his qualifications, must normally wait several years before he can be considered for promotion to the rank immediately above his own. For example, in Baltimore, a patrolman must serve in that capacity for 5 years before being eligible for sergeant, and all other officers must wait 2 years before being eligible to apply for the next higher rank.¹⁷⁹ If a person has the necessary leadership qualities, no reason exists to restrict his opportunity for advancement as long as he meets other qualitative standards. The seniority factor should be reduced to a bare minimum. In reviewing the police system throughout the Nation today, it is believed this admonition would apply to all but a few departments.

It is equally inappropriate to rely heavily upon high achievement in written examinations:¹⁸⁰

Written promotional examinations, on the other hand, do not test those qualities of leadership or administrative capacity which are presumably a major consideration in promotion to higher ranks. Such qualities are, therefore, largely ignored before the more familiar techniques of personnel management which do not attempt any such evaluation of human personality.

Current promotion procedures should be altered in most departments. As stated previously, the period of seniority should be reexamined and in most departments greatly reduced. While there may be merit in requiring all candidates to take a competitive written examination, the results of such an examination should be only one of the many factors to be considered. Other factors should include: (1) An officer's prior performance and reputation in previous jobs as well as within the department and in the community; (2) an officer's educational achievement; and (3) an officer's demonstrated leadership potential and ability to assume greater responsibility. In order to ascertain prior performance and personal qualities, each department should adopt a system of rating personnel. For example, prior performance could be rated by having immediate supervisors, other officers and special units submit reports on the proficiency and conduct of the candidate. Personal qualities could be evaluated by background investigation and oral interviews.

LATERAL ENTRY

Under existing police structures, nearly all local enforcement agencies restrict advanced appointments to personnel within the department. The only exception to this restriction is that some departments exempt the position of chief administrator from Civil Service, and it is possible for persons who are not in the department to compete for this position. A consequence is that America's police personnel are virtually frozen into the departments in which they started. An officer whose special skills are in oversupply in his own department cannot move to a department where those skills are in demand. An officer who seeks to improve his situation by moving from a small department where opportunities for advancement are few to a large department where they are numerous cannot do it, nor can a city officer who would like to work in a small community follow his inclina-

tions. A department that cannot fill important jobs adequately from its own ranks is precluded from seeking experienced officers elsewhere.

To improve police service, competition for all advanced positions should be opened to qualified persons from both within and outside of the department. This would enable a department to obtain the best available talent for positions of leadership.¹⁸¹

To limit promotional appointment to those within any agency is to repress initiative, creativity, and critical judgment. . . . All promotional processes must be geared to the objective of getting the finest leadership possible.

If candidates from within an agency are unable to meet the competition from other applicants, it should be recognized that the influx of more highly qualified personnel would greatly improve the quality of the service.

Before it will be feasible to encourage interchange of personnel among police departments, however, current civil service rules, retirement systems, department hiring restrictions and statutes will require revisions in several sections of this country:¹⁸²

The rules and statutes, indeed, usually attach penalties to or prohibitions against circulation—such as local residence requirements, promotion barriers, cumbersome transfer procedures, the loss of pension and retirement benefits. The rules are set heavily against circulation, a fact which is emphasized not only by the presence of these barriers but also by the absence of personnel procedures to overcome them. To these conditions, adverse to mobility among bureaucracies, must be added a stronger version of the seemingly universal habit of organized groups to prefer promotion from within rather than the recruitment of "new blood" at the intermediate and higher levels.

Many of these longstanding tight personnel restrictions are stifling the professional development of the police service, and should, therefore, be removed. In addition, to encourage lateral movement of police personnel, a nationwide retirement system should be devised which permits the transferring of retirement credits.

Without question, the police service desperately needs an influx of highly qualified college graduates. It is doubtful whether suitable graduates will be attracted to police service if they are required in all cases to initiate their career at the lowest level of a department, and it is further doubted that this would be an appropriate method of utilizing such personnel. For this reason, college graduates should, after an adequate internship, be eligible to serve as police agents. Persons who have adequate education and experience should be allowed to enter directly into staff and administrative positions.

MINIMUM STATEWIDE STANDARDS FOR SELECTION, SCREENING AND TRAINING

A study of police personnel problems indicates that, while all departments are in need of extensive upgrading of recruiting efforts, minimum standards, selection procedures and training, the needs are more pronounced for the smaller police departments. Many of these departments provide little or no training, use ineffectual selec-

¹⁷⁹ *Supra*, note 139 at p. 197.

¹⁸⁰ *Supra*, note 16 at p. 134.

¹⁸¹ A. C. Germann, "Recruitment, Selection, Promotion, and Civil Service," report submitted to the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice (Washington: 1966), p. 110.

¹⁸² Wallace S. Sayre, "The Recruitment and Training of Bureaucrats in the United States," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, (Philadelphia: Academy of Political and Social Science, March 1954), p. 39.

tion and screening techniques, and have no organized recruiting programs. This results in substantial variation in the quality of police service, not only in different areas of the country, but within the same State.

The apparent reason for this disparity is that many of our Nation's police departments and local governments either do not have sufficient funds to correct current deficiencies or do not have the expertise to recognize them. The general level of police service will not significantly improve unless each State assumes greater responsibility for upgrading all local law enforcement agencies.

Each State, therefore, should establish a commission on police standards or expand an existing commission on police training and empower such commission to:

- establish minimum statewide selection standards;
- establish minimum standards for training; determine and approve curricula; identify required preparation for instructors; and approve facilities acceptable for police training;
- certify sworn police personnel;
- conduct and stimulate research by private and public agencies designed to improve police service;
- make inspections to determine whether Commission standards are being adhered to; and
- provide such financial aid as may be authorized by the legislature to participating governmental units.

The proposed role of a State commission is fully described in chapter 8.

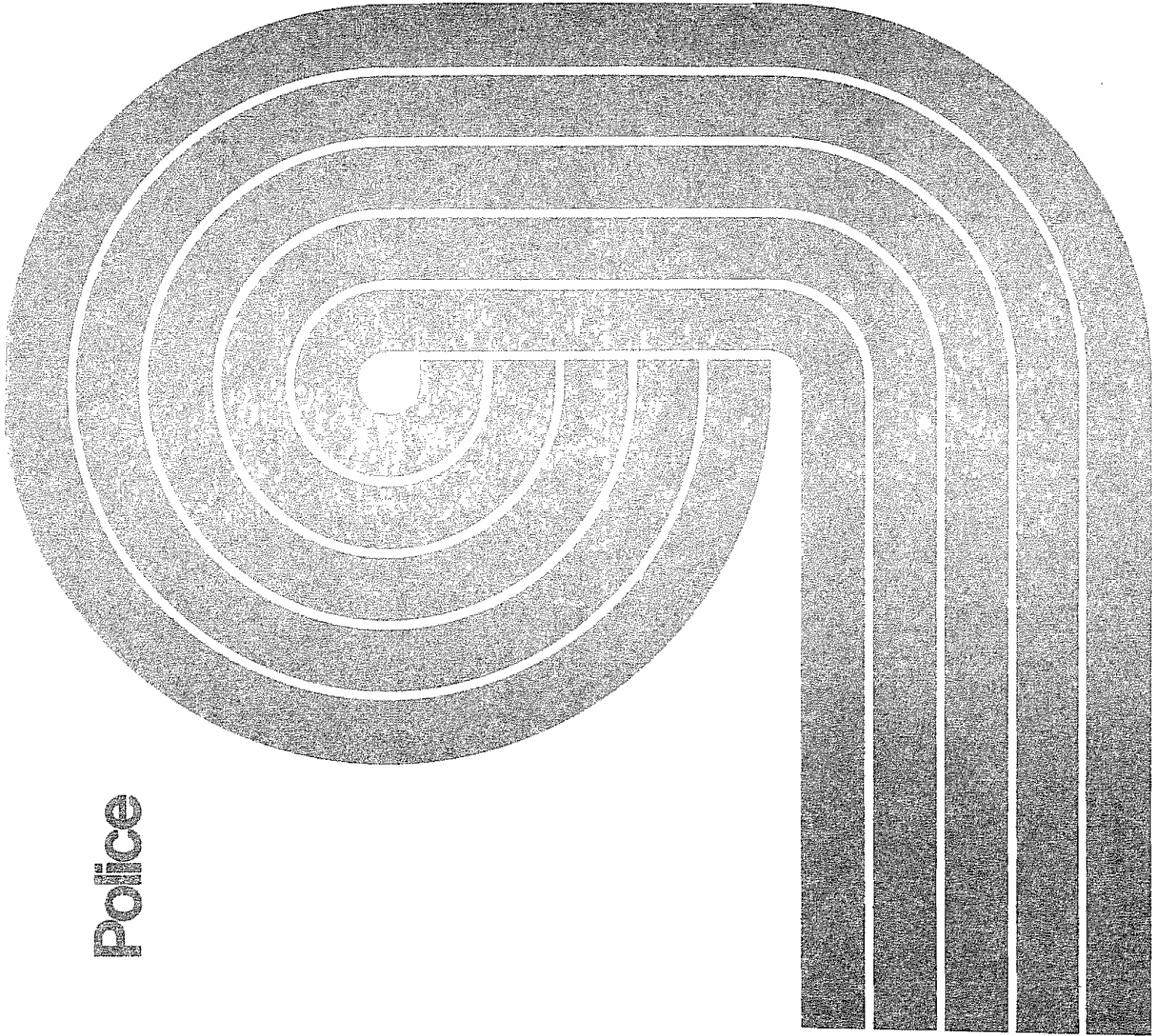
SECTION III

NACCJSG REPORT
POLICE

Chapter 16

0111

Police



Chapter 16

Training

If States did not require certain professional licenses, there would be untrained barbers, embalmers, teachers, lawyers, and physicians practicing in most cities. But by requiring licenses and setting high training standards, States insure that these professionals are competent and capable of providing the service the public expects.

A 1967 study by the International Association of Chiefs of Police showed that the average policeman received less than 200 hours of formal training. The study compared that figure to other professions and found that physicians received more than 11,000 hours, lawyers more than 9,000 hours, teachers more than 7,000 hours, embalmers more than 5,000 hours, and barbers more than 4,000. No reasonable person would contend that a barber's responsibility is 20 times greater than a police officer's.

Not all police officers are poorly trained. Some police agencies have provided intensive, quality training for several decades. But until States require certain training standards, police training is likely to remain poor in comparison to other professions. This is especially true in smaller agencies.

Mandatory Police Training

The standards of section 16.1 provide a solution.

They urge each State to make minimum basic police training mandatory, defray the major costs of that training, and then certify graduates of that training as police officers.

Statistics in the 1968 International City Management Association's Municipal Yearbook show how badly mandatory police training is needed. Police recruits received no training at all in 7 percent of all central city agencies, no training at all in 11 percent of suburban agencies, and no training at all in 32 percent of independent city agencies. These figures are for cities of 10,000 persons or more. In smaller cities, less than half the new recruits receive basic police training.

No State required basic training until 1959. By 1970, 33 States had passed some form of basic police training standards, but only one State specified the minimum 400 hours recommended by this report and by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Seventeen States have no basic training standards. Many States that do require training permit agencies to wait as long as 12 or 18 months after police are hired before it is given. In Germany, by contrast, a police officer undergoes 2 years of training before he is ever assigned to field duty.

This report recommends that basic training be mandatory. Eight of the 33 States with basic train-

ing legislation have voluntary programs. Some, such as California's with 99 percent participation, are excellent. Nevertheless, the advantages of mandatory training outweigh the disadvantages. Arguments for and against mandatory training are discussed in detail in the commentary in section 16.1.

Training Commission

This report also recommends a State police training commission, fully funded and staffed, to oversee the operation of mandatory police training legislation. The commission should establish a minimum curriculum, certify training centers, inspect and evaluate the training centers, consult with police agencies and training staffs, reimburse training, and certify training graduates. All States with training legislation have some form of training commission. The commission should be broadly represented by local police agencies to insure that the State training program serves the needs of local police.

Standard 16.1(3) reads: "Every State should reimburse every police agency 100 percent of the salary or provide State financed incentives for every police employee's satisfactory completion of any State mandated training."

This standard recognizes that agencies most needing police training frequently can least afford it; and that without financial incentives, few agencies will want to participate. Before California offered financial assistance, only three agencies took part in its voluntary training program. Now, with financial assistance, 99 percent participate.

This chapter emphasizes the arguments in support of local funding. They are discussed in the commentary on Standard 16.1(3).

How States fund police training is another matter. Training costs vary; therefore, any static funding is likely to be insufficient. Some States, including California, are using add-on assessments to court fines. In the final analysis, funding is a matter to be decided separately by each State.

Once State legislation is passed and a funding system established, training programs must be developed. The first step is to insure that the program includes the instruction and basic material necessary to make a good police officer. This is not easy. The science of police training is still in its infancy. Studies of the role of the police officer, and what he must know and be able to do to perform his job well, are still incomplete. The role of the police officer is constantly changing and varies from region to region, even from one neighboring town to the next.

Aims of Training Programs

Basic subjects that should be included in any police training program are mentioned later in this introduction and discussed in more depth in section 16.3. Certainly, basic police skills are essential. But in developing programs many agencies are finding it worthwhile to include other subjects. After a study of five training programs, Oakland, Calif., increased its training course from 520 to 696 hours. The increase in subject matter was predominantly in areas of law enforcement principles and philosophies. The study group felt police needed more theory to cope with challenges of a changing society.

The second step in program development is defining specific training goals. Goals enable instructors to choose the best teaching methods and measure progress of their students.

In any State program, local agencies must be able to tailor police training to local needs. Program development must include electives to enable local police agencies to stress certain areas of training. The State training commission and a training center advisory board can help.

Finally, program development must remain flexible. Critiques and feedback from students who are graduated and on the job can insure that the program meets the mandated training standards of the State. Instructors should work closely with local agencies, sharing tours of duty and field observation assignments with them. This approach keeps subject matter relevant.

Police graduating from training academies and going on the job often report that the training given in the classroom was not realistic preparation for a patrol assignment. This can undermine training in the eyes of graduates and police agencies. Care should be taken to keep training meaningful.

Standard 16.3(1) would require every police officer to have a minimum of 400 hours of basic police training. The training should be given before an officer exercises police authority. The 400 hours is only a minimum. Many agencies provide more. Chicago, Ill., and Los Angeles, Calif., for example, each have programs of more than 1,000 hours.

Curriculums

Basic police training falls into six broad categories: law, the criminal justice system, patrol and investigation, human values and problems, police proficiency, and administration. The commentary in section 16.3 provides a suggested percentage breakdown of each category, developed primarily

from the curriculums of the Dayton, Ohio, Oakland, and Los Angeles, Calif., and Seattle, Wash., training programs.

The patrol and investigation function is the foundation of police training. Human values and problems is a relatively new field; psychology, sociology, and community relations are in this category. Instruction usually must come from outside the training center. Long Beach, Calif., and Dayton, Ohio, require police officers to attend local college courses. Chicago, Ill., brings in qualified instructors. Many agencies use role playing and other modern training methods. Seattle, Wash., credits workshop sessions with helping policemen on and off the job.

The New York Police Training and Performance Study of 1969 polled 100 officers of varying ranks and found that 94 thought their first police assignment was the single most important factor in their career. Charles Saunders, in *Upgrading the American Police*, found that fewer than half of all police agencies in cities of 10,000 or more conducted field training, and that those that did paid little attention to its relation to basic police training.

The Commission recommends that new police officers complete a minimum of 400 hours of formal training followed by 4 months in a field training and development program. Each graduate of a basic course should be given coached field training in a variety of field assignments, and his training should include conferences among patrolman, coach, and supervisor. In addition, the new police officer should be given additional instruction in police functions, by correspondence courses if appropriate. At the end of the first 6 months and again at the end of the first year, the new police officer should return to formal training for a 2-week period.

Training given before field assignment is preparatory; training given after field assignment is too late. Basic training in advance of patrol duty, specialized training in advance of assignment to specialized duty, and supervisory training in advance of promotion are far more effective than the same training afterwards. The employee has more confidence and does a better job. The agency makes fewer mistakes.

Preparatory training is not restricted to sworn officers. Unsworn police employees should be trained before being given any unusual duties. Many duties, such as typing, maintenance, and filing, need little training. Still, these employees should be given an orientation course in order to understand better the police agency and their role in it. Such training improves agency morale.

Communications

This chapter devotes an entire section to inter-

personal communications. Another name for this section could have been Understanding and Being Understood.

Police must understand more than written and spoken orders. They must understand the community they serve, its prejudices, and its point of view. And they in turn must be understood by the community if they are to function well.

The section sets forth three standards: Develop an interpersonal communications program, probably with outside consultation; incorporate interpersonal communication skills training into basic police training; and develop agency workshops and seminars to increase communication among police officers, members of the criminal justice system, and the public.

Inservice Training

Keeping the good police officer up to date requires continual instruction. Most of it can be accomplished by inservice training given during the normal routine of service.

This report recommends that each police officer receive at least 40 hours of inservice training a year. This training should be more than a mere formality. It should be recorded in the police officer's personnel record and taken into consideration for promotion and specialized assignment. In large agencies, decentralized training should be available at each police station. One police officer should be given responsibility to oversee inservice training.

Quality Instruction

There is little point to large investments in training if the training is not good. Often the danger is not that instruction is not good, but that it does not remain so. Outstanding programs developed by dedicated educators can soon become second rate if quality controls are not applied.

Section 16.6 provides standards to insure continued high quality police instruction. Instruction should be oriented toward the student. Every training session of more than an hour should have student involvement, team teaching, audiovisual aids, or other means to make instruction interesting to the student. Textbook instruction should be brought to life by field training and participation. Most classes should be limited to 25 or fewer students.

Quality instruction requires quality instructors. Standard 16.6(3) proposes State licensing of all instructors by 1978. Licensing should require completion of at least 80 hours of instruction training, a thorough knowledge of subject matter, and periodic reevaluation.

Police training centers must insure that instructors are not overburdened, retain close contact with field performance of the subjects they teach, and use the most communicative teaching methods. The centers should bring in outside experts when they can contribute to training and review and revise all material at least once a year.

Training Centers

This report strongly endorses the criminal justice system training center. Such a center provides training for all elements in the criminal justice system. It provides cross-training among members of different branches of the system, improves understanding and communication, and helps all trainees understand the functions of the courts, prisons, and police agencies and their interrelationships. Unfortunately, few true criminal justice system training centers exist. Therefore, for practical reasons, most references in this chapter will be to police training centers.

Police training centers that are not open at least 9 months of the year should be closed. This precludes operation of inefficient training centers by small police agencies. The purpose is not to take police training out of local hands, but to upgrade police training programs. Only centers maintained by the largest police agencies will be able to meet this standard.

Police agencies that cannot support a police training center should consider consolidating resources with one or more other agencies to support a training center, or consider taking part in and

supporting a regional criminal justice training center, or should use State police training centers.

States should encourage the development of consolidated and regional training centers and should provide State training centers only where local and regional centers do not exist. By 1978, police training should be available to police employees of all agencies in all States.

When attendance at police training centers is not practical, police training commissions should provide outreach instruction, which brings the instructor, and sometimes the classroom, to police agencies. States also should encourage local participation in Federal and professional training offered by government and business. Such training brings fresh ideas from the nonpolice world to students who take part.

The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations in *State-Local Relations in the Criminal Justice System* points out that nearly 90 percent of the average police agency's budget is spent for personnel. The report also indicates that police training can reduce personnel turnover. It cited turnover at the rate of 33 percent in small agencies. As an example of the effect of training, Boise, Idaho, experienced a turnover of some 20 percent before Idaho opened a training center, and only 5 percent a year after the State center had been in operation.

Training in itself is not controversial; every police agency wants the best trained personnel it can get or develop. But there is no question that this is a major expenditure on the part of agencies and the jurisdictions they serve. This chapter emphasizes the urgency of allocating funds in this sector.

Standard 16.1

State Legislation and Fiscal Assistance for Police Training

Every State, by 1975, should enact legislation establishing mandatory minimum basic training for police, a representative body to develop and administer training standards and programs for police, and financial support for mandated training for police on a continuing basis to provide the public with a common quality of protection and service from police employees throughout the State. By 1978, every State should certify all sworn police employees.

1. Every State should enact legislation that mandates minimum basic training for every sworn police employee prior to the exercise of authority of his position.

2. Every State should enact legislation establishing a State commission to develop and administer State standards for the training of police personnel. The majority of this commission should be composed of representatives of local law enforcement agencies. Other members should be from the criminal justice system, local government, and criminal justice education and training centers. The State should provide sufficient funds to enable this commission to meet periodically and to employ a full-time staff large enough to carry out the basic duties of the commission. In addition to any other duties deemed necessary, this commission should:

a. Develop minimum curriculum requirements for mandated training for police;

b. Certify police training centers and institutions that provide training that meets the requirements of the State's police training standards;

c. Establish minimum police instructor qualifications and certify individuals to act as police instructors;

d. Inspect and evaluate all police training programs to insure compliance with the State's police training standards;

e. Provide a consulting service for police training and education centers; and

f. Administer the financial support for police training and education.

3. Every State should reimburse every police agency 100 percent of the salary or provide appropriate State financed incentives for every police employee's satisfactory completion of any State mandated and approved police training program.

4. Every State, through the police training body, should, by 1978, certify as qualified to exercise police authority every sworn police employee who satisfactorily completes the State basic police training and meets other entrance requirements.

Commentary

A survey of 4,000 police agencies in the late 1960's by the International Association of Chiefs of Police revealed that more than 90 percent were in favor of some form of statewide minimum training standards. Few, however, agreed upon specific ways to implement the standards. By 1970, 33 States had enacted legislation creating varying forms of police training standards, an increase of 10 States over 1967. In nearly all States without police training standards legislation, the police service encourages such legislation.

The 1968 International City Management Association survey disclosed that 18 percent of municipalities with over 10,000 population provided no basic police training. Charles Saunders, in *Upgrading the American Police*, reported that nearly one-fourth of all cities and one-half of small towns had no recruit training. Facts such as these lead some persons to conclude that only large police agencies favor police training.

Until recently, small and rural agencies have been unable to provide or receive police training. Such agencies need trained officers as much as large and central city agencies do. Although the workload might not be as great for small and rural agencies, the general lack of specialists makes it necessary for the generalist to be able to perform all police tasks. When training becomes available, police participation always exceeds original estimates.

One of the more controversial issues is whether training should be voluntary or mandatory. Of the 33 States in 1970 that had legislated police training standards, 25 had mandatory basic training. Even the successful voluntary programs in California (99 percent participation) and Ontario Province, Canada (98 percent participation) may be revised to make basic training mandatory.

The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, in *State-Local Relations in the Criminal Justice System*, identified some arguments against State-legislated police training standards. Small agencies could not afford to participate because of fiscal and personnel limitations. The quality of police work in small and rural agencies does not warrant minimum requirements because State or county forces would handle serious incidents. Larger police agencies generally exceed minimum training requirements, and mandatory State training could tend to bring down the level of training afforded by these agencies. State basic police training would not be responsive to local needs. Lastly, any State program would take funds away from local training efforts.

With few exceptions, the experience of the many

States that have such legislation has dramatically refuted these arguments. State-legislated mandatory minimum police training standards have been recommended by many groups and study commissions, including the IACP, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, the Council of State Governments, the American Bar Association (in 1952 and 1972), and the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations.

Minimal Training Level

Mandatory basic training can assure the public of a minimal training level for all police officers. Additional training and job development can be based on this basic training. Mandatory provisions also add justification to State support of the program and provide local support for police agency participation.

The public will not permit a doctor, lawyer, teacher, barber, or embalmer to practice until he successfully completes a specified training program. No such standards are required of most police officers. Only a few States with police training legislation, such as Michigan, require that training be completed prior to exercising police authority. In Germany, 2 years of training precede any field assignment of police personnel. The International City Management Association, in *Municipal Police Administration*, recommends that police training be completed successfully prior to street assignment.

Many agencies contend they cannot wait to deploy a new policeman, because field service demands must be met and many employees are hired at a time when training is not available. This objection can be overcome by mandated police training and a continuing State training program.

Several States, such as Utah, Oregon, New Jersey, and Ohio, allow police agencies to employ new policemen on a temporary or probationary basis pending the completion of basic police training during the first year or 18 months.

Policemen should not be allowed to exercise the full authority of their position until they successfully complete the State-mandated basic police training program. The powers of arrest and the potential for injury and death are too great to allow policemen to practice their profession without adequate training.

State Commission for Police Training Standards

Police training must be flexible, effective, and responsive to change and to local needs. But State legislation tends to remain static and generally difficult to change. Therefore, a representative body

should be created through State legislation to develop and administer police training standards.

Local control is imperative for the operation of any State police training and education program. The ultimate goal of any such program is to improve the capabilities and service of local police agencies. Only through a clear majority representation of local agencies and government can genuine participation be expected from those agencies for which the program is operated.

In 1970 each of the 33 States operating under police training legislation also formed a representative body or State commission to manage police training standards. The members of these commissions were appointed.

In three of these States certain individuals were made members of the commission by legislation, usually the State attorney general and State police chief executive. According to the IACP, local law enforcement practitioners, usually local police chief executives and county sheriffs, are a majority or near majority of these State commissions in all States. A few States, such as Florida and Georgia, require specific police practitioners other than chief executives. In many States, the special agent in charge of an FBI office in the State is included as a member of the State commission. Frequently municipal chief executives and educators are included. Several States include members of police associations and of the public.

While the composition of State commissions varies considerably, their authority, responsibility, and activities are similar. They establish minimum requirements for preparatory and inservice training, and more than half of them also are concerned with advanced, supervisory, and management training. The commissions currently are establishing and maintaining training programs, approving training facilities, certifying programs and successful participants, evaluating compliance, and disbursing financial or other incentives to local agencies.

In addition, these commissions perform tasks such as: developing rules and regulations for the administration of police standards; conducting surveys, studies and other research; providing consultant services for police agencies and training centers; and contracting for services and grants. They employ staffs to facilitate their work. The Model Police Standards Council Act proposed by the IACP lists the operations State commissions should perform and seems to have been the model for many existing State commissions. The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations has also suggested a model.

State commissions should guard against becoming fragmented and bureaucratic. California's pro-

gram involves 332 police training courses in 117 institutions, and the State commission staff currently cannot supervise and support the program adequately. Three possible solutions are: to increase the size of the commission staff; to reduce the number of courses offered; or to centralize many of the courses to reduce the number of institutions involved. Future State commissions should consider these problems and constantly monitor the overall direction and buildup of their programs.

Financing Police Training

Financial support is a critical problem in developing an effective State police training program. One argument holds that the State should finance the entire cost because it is mandating participation in the program. Another holds that local jurisdictions should assume the cost since they reap the benefit of trained employees. Probably, portions of the cost should be borne by both State and local governments. Unfortunately, police agencies that need training most are often the agencies that can least afford to pay for it.

When California's widely acclaimed voluntary police training program initially was offered without financial incentives, only three agencies participated; with financial reimbursement, participation has risen to 99 percent.

The cost of police training is high. The California program for fiscal 1971 exceeded \$8 million in reimbursements alone. Baltimore, Md., City Police report that education and training is 7.58 percent of their budget; about 90 percent of that is for personnel. It costs Baltimore \$6,501, or about twice the cost of a new squad car, to train one additional sworn police employee.

Financing police training varies greatly from State to State. In 1970, 21 States directly financed some portion of police training or reimbursed some percentage of local training costs. Eight other States provided training programs and facilities, and required the local agencies to bear the cost. Reimbursement varied for salary, tuition, living, and travel expenses. Many States and local police agencies have been helped by Federal funds from LEAA and the Highway Safety Act.

Legislative apportionment of funds is used most frequently by States providing financial assistance to police training, such as Michigan, New Jersey, Utah, and Texas. Illinois provides a maximum flat rate of \$500 for each police employee who meets minimum training standards. Some States have no provisions for fiscal aid.

A penalty assessment on criminal and traffic fines is a highly controversial but lucrative way to pay for training. This type of financing is in effect

in California, Oregon, Arizona, and Indiana. Several other States are proposing legislation to make such assessments lawful. Both percentage and flat rate assessments are being used; the percentage approach seems to be most effective.

But all funding methods have been rather inexact and unreliable for a continuing police training program. Michigan and New Jersey have undergone training program changes because of inflexible funding or cutback. When Michigan operated under a voluntary police training program, it reimbursed up to 50 percent of participating employees' salaries; because of increased participation and static funding, the 50 percent reimbursement of 1967 was reduced to 29 percent in 1970. California, under a penalty assessment program, normally reimburses 50 percent of salary costs, but reimburses up to 100 percent when funds are available and far less than 50 percent when funds are unavailable.

A basic question that must be answered in determining financial assistance is what kinds of expenditures should be funded. Generally, four areas are considered: salaries of participating employees, training expenses, costs for relief assignments in the employing agency, and employee travel and living expenditures. The most frequently used assistance programs reimburse salary costs of participating employees or finance training program expenses.

Michigan has a realistic assistance program; payment fluctuates according to the length of the course and the number of participating employees. California, in most instances, provides salary reimbursement for participating employees. The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, in *State-Local Relations in the Criminal Justice System*, recommended that States pay all costs of police training programs that meet mandated State standards.

Certification

Many States certify employees who satisfactorily complete mandated preparatory training; however, certification is not usually required for employment. Several States, among them Texas, Oregon, New Jersey, Ohio, Michigan, and Utah, require that police employees be certified prior to appointment to a permanent status. States such as Oregon and Michigan have authority to revoke this certification.

Texas legislation requires basic police training and other entrance qualifications for all permanent peace officer appointments and makes it a mis-

demeanor to appoint, retain, or accept employment as a peace officer without satisfying the legislated training and other entrance requirements.

Mandatory minimum police training standards enable a State to guarantee to the general public that a local peace officer has the necessary training for his job. The State commission for police training should issue a license to certify that the individual has successfully met all educational, training, and other entrance requirements.

Through reciprocity States should recognize one another's licensing standards. Such reciprocity is common in other professions and would facilitate lateral entry. The wide range of required hours for minimum basic training standards—72 in Nevada, 140 in Texas, and 280 in Delaware—and differences in other entrance requirements suggest the need for minimum standards in reciprocity agreements. There are already 14 States that provide reciprocity in the police field.

References

1. Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations. *State-Local Relations in the Criminal Justice System*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1971.
2. Kassoff, Norman C. "A Model Police Standards Council Act," *Police Chief*, August 1967.
3. Saunders, Charles B. *Upgrading the American Police*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1970.
4. Thomas, John J. "The State of the Art," *Police Chief*, August 1970.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 16.1:

- 4.1(3) Cooperation and Coordination.
- 13.4(2) State Mandated Minimum Standards for the Selection of Police Officers.
- 15.3(2) College Credit for the Completion of Police Training Programs.
- 16.2 Program Development.
- 16.3 Preparatory Training.
- 16.6(3) Instruction Quality Control.
- 16.7 Police Training Academies and Criminal Justice Training Centers.

Standard 16.2

Program Development

Every police training academy and criminal justice training center should immediately develop effective training programs, the length, content, and presentation of which will vary according to specific subject matter, participating police employees, and agency and community needs.

1. Every police training academy should insure that the duration and content of its training programs cover the subject every police employee needs to learn to perform acceptably the tasks he will be assigned.

2. Every police training academy should define specific courses according to the performance objective of the course and should specify what the trainee must do to demonstrate achievement of the performance objective.

3. Every police training academy serving more than one police agency should enable the police chief executives of participating agencies to choose for their personnel elective subjects in addition to the minimum mandated training.

4. Every police training academy should insure that its training programs satisfy State standards for police training as well as meet the needs of participating police agencies and that its training is timely and effective. These measures should at least include:

a. Regular review and evaluation of all

training programs by an advisory body composed of police practitioners from participating agencies;

b. Periodic field observation of the operations of participating police agencies by the training staff; and

c. Continual critique of training programs through feedback from police employees who have completed the training programs and have subsequently utilized that training in field operations and from their field supervisors.

Commentary

Much police training has been dictated by reactions to crises. One police middle manager in Chicago, Ill., suggested that whenever a police problem or public incident arises it becomes a training problem requiring a change in curriculum. When a new subject is added or an existing subject is expanded, the course is seldom lengthened. Therefore, some subjects must be shortened or eliminated. Often the police chief executive decides what to add, and the training director decides what to cut. The eagerness of the police chief executive and of the training staff to be responsive has resulted in frequently changed, haphazard curricula.

The ideal police training program has not been

developed, but a systems approach to developing curriculum is underway. The United States Bureau of the Budget (for Federal police agencies); Project STAR by Michigan, California, Texas, and New Jersey; Los Angeles' Training System Design Study and MILE Project; and the Oakland, Calif., police have all worked on this problem. They are trying to define what a police officer does and what he should know in order to perform his duties.

Great care must be taken to distinguish between the actual duties of the policeman and the way the policeman, the agency, or the public frequently envisions them. Many police employees graduating from police academies are shocked by reality. They often find the training they received in the academy has little relationship to what happens in the field. James Q. Wilson, in his paper for Project STAR on *Future Police Roles*, believes "the most important implication is that police personnel and training systems must emphasize the performance of the patrol task as it is now understood and not as it may become."

In *Police Chief* of August 1968, Sydney Freeman of the U.S. Bureau of the Budget, reflecting on the Bureau's systems study, claimed the program's major value is its disciplining effect. It imposed strict adherence to objectives that assure a relevant training program. Such a program forces an agency to analyze job tasks, provides for learner-oriented training, and creates a base upon which to evaluate the effectiveness of the training.

The number of hours in a police training program is not as important as content and student ability. Subjects taught should be geared to the needs of a specific agency. There are similarities and differences in police training needs. Different individuals assimilate training material at different speeds and levels of competence, but virtually no police training program takes this into account.

The IACP's *Police Reference Notebook* lists complete basic police training programs of 200 to 600 hours. The length of many police training programs is based on what the agency finds practical and convenient—not necessarily wrong—but at best, training program lengths currently used are minimal.

The content and even the length of similar courses could vary for different agencies. Basic police training will vary for State police, highway patrol, and police in rural, urban, high density, low density, or resort areas. However, the training must be sufficient to prepare the employee to perform his specific job acceptably. Although subjects are covered in the academy, police students frequently have not learned what is expected of them when they graduate.

Basic Programs

The study of five basic police training programs in Oakland, Calif., resulted in increasing the course from 520 to 696 hours, far above the State recommended 200 hours. But the changes in subject matter were more significant. The study group recommended that more time should be allotted to principles and philosophies of proper police work, though not at the expense of traditional police subjects.

Few police training programs attempt to analyze the type of learner involved. In Chicago, Ill., 75 percent of the basic program trainees have some college education and 8 to 10 percent have 4-year degrees. Over 50 percent of trainees in one basic class during 1972 in Los Angeles, Calif., had college degrees. When class composition differs, the curriculum remains unchanged, but individual instructors may vary their presentation.

Chicago, Ill., police recently attempted to separate trainees according to educational background. For several reasons the experiment was discontinued. One reason was that instructors found the transition between groups very difficult and the challenge to the instructor of the educated group overbearing.

Police recruit officers enter training with varying degrees of knowledge, skills, and abilities. The basic training program should bring all students up to a predetermined level of knowledge and skill. The duration of the course may be too long for some students and too short for others. But as long as the lockstep method of training is used, the course should be long enough to bring the majority of students to the predetermined level of efficiency. Those who fall short should be given remedial training, and if that fails, should be terminated. Too often there are no instructional objectives, or they are set too low to equip young men properly for the police job.

Performance Objectives

Once course content and duration are established, program objectives should be developed. Instructional methods that enable police candidates to progress most rapidly toward these objectives should be used. Moreover, procedures to evaluate the trainee's progress toward the objectives should be implemented.

According to Dr. Robert Mager, educator, and author of *Preparing Instructional Objectives*, persons interested in transmitting skills and knowledge to others must answer three important questions: What should we teach? How will we know when we have taught it? What materials and procedures

will work best to teach what we wish to teach? Not only must these questions be answered to instruct effectively, but they must be responded to in the order they are listed. Few police training programs answer these questions.

Once performance objectives have been selected, they must be communicated to the learner. Objectives are fully realized only when the trainee can demonstrate mastery. A clearly stated objective succeeds in communicating to the learner a visual conception of a successful trainee's skills at the end of the course or at the end of part of the course. A statement of specific course objectives is not explicit enough to be useful until it indicates how the instructor intends to sample understanding. The teacher must describe what the learner will be asked to do to demonstrate his understanding. Thus the statement that communicates best will be one that describes the expected terminal behavior of the trainee. Such a statement should identify and define the desired behavior as well as specify the criteria of acceptable performance.

Specifying the minimum acceptable level of demonstrated ability for each objective creates a performance standard against which instructional programs can be assessed; it can then be readily ascertained whether or not a program has been successful in achieving the instructional intent.

Undoubtedly, one of the most obvious ways to indicate a lower limit of acceptable performance is to specify a time limit for completion of an activity. For example, the evaluation of rapid fire on a pistol course is directly contingent upon completion within a specified period of time. Time limits often are imposed upon trainees more informally when they are told how much time will be allowed to complete a written examination.

Other criteria of successful performance may be in the form of a minimum acceptable number of (1) correct responses, (2) principles that must be applied in a given situation, or (3) principles that must be identified.

Time limits and minimum numerical scores are not necessarily essential. What is essential is that there be a reliable, accurate method to measure trainee performance according to stated performance objectives.

Police training programs can be improved through the use of performance objectives, such as the Terminal Performance Objectives established for basic training at the Los Angeles Police Academy. The police chief executive then can be assured that police academy graduates measure up to minimum standards of performance when they leave the academy and begin performing police duties.

Individualized Curriculums

State required police training should be only a minimum. This training should be considered a foundation on which individual agencies can build additional courses to suit their own needs.

Some police training academies provide a curriculum similar to a college catalog. Certain subjects are considered useful for all police agency employees; this core is the curriculum the State requires. Beyond this foundation, the police chief executive chooses electives to tailor a training program best suited to his agency's needs.

The Regional Center for Criminal Justice in Independence, Mo., serves 38 police agencies ranging from one-man operations to the Kansas City, Mo., Police Department. The center will design a training program for any police chief executive in its area. A catalog is being developed by the center to permit police chief executives to select courses that meet their objective.

Utah requires 280 hours of basic police training. The training is conducted at Salt Lake City, a centralized location. Required subjects total 150 hours; participating agencies select the remaining 130 hours from a wide range of subjects.

Program Critique

Evaluation and critique enable the training staff to find out how effective it has been in achieving performance objectives. The information gained from evaluations and critiques can also be used to justify changes in course content and instruction, for overall program improvement, and for administrative purposes such as justifying training expenses or additional personnel.

An advisory board consisting of members of participating agencies insures that programs remain responsive to agency needs. Line police officers should be included because they are in close touch with job reality. The Ontario Police College of Canada has such a board. The California Community College System actively seeks police participation in advisory bodies for their basic police and inservice law enforcement curriculum.

Training staffs usually are removed from daily police operations. To be sensitive to current operational needs, they must be required to conduct field observations with all participating agencies and maintain constant liaison with the operational force.

Chicago, Ill., requires that lead instructors attend regular departmental staff meetings in their instructional areas. The agency also permits all instructors to perform tours of field duty, up to a week in duration, to assist them in maintaining subject relevancy.

The successful trainee can provide valuable assistance in improving the program. After these employees have been in the field they should be brought back periodically to the training center, or the training staff should go to them, to discuss the good and bad points of the program. The employees and their immediate supervisors, probably better than anyone else, know the deficiencies of the program.

References

1. Education/Research, Inc. *Assessment of Police Recruitment, Selection and Training: Final Report, Training*. Berkeley, California: Education/Research, Inc., 1971.
2. Freeman, Sydney. "A Systems Approach to Law Enforcement Training," *Police Chief*, August 1968.
3. Mager, Robert F. *Preparing Instructional Objectives*. Palo Alto, Calif: Fearon, 1962.

4. Wilson, Brooks W. "The P.O.S.T. Training Program—A Review and Critique." Mimeographed report submitted to California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training. March 1972.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 16.2:

- 7.6(1) Training for Unusual Occurrences.
- 16.1 State Legislation and Fiscal Assistance for Police Training.
- 16.3 Preparatory Training.
- 16.4(1) Interpersonal Communications Training.
- 16.6 Instruction Quality Control.
- 16.7 Police Training Academies and Criminal Justice Training Centers.
- Recommendation 15.1 Identification of Police Educational Needs.

Standard 16.3

Preparatory Training

Every police agency should take immediate steps to provide training for every police employee prior to his first assignment within the agency, prior to his assignment to any specialized function requiring additional training, and prior to his promotion. In States where preparatory training is currently mandated by State law, every police agency should provide all such training by 1975; in all other States, every agency should provide all such training by 1978.

1. Every State should require that every sworn police employee satisfactorily complete a minimum of 400 hours of basic police training. In addition to traditional basic police subjects, this training should include:

a. Instruction in law, psychology, and sociology specifically related to interpersonal communication, the police role, and the community the police employee will serve;

b. Assigned activities away from the training academy to enable the employee to gain specific insight in the community, criminal justice system, and local government;

c. Remedial training for individuals who are deficient in their training performance but who, in the opinion of the training staff and employing agency, demonstrate potential for satisfactory performance; and

d. Additional training by the employing agency in its policies and procedures, if basic police training is not administered by that agency.

2. During the first year of employment with a police agency, and in addition to the minimum basic police training, every police agency should provide full-time sworn police employees with additional formal training, coached field training, and supervised field experience through methods that include at least:

a. A minimum of 4 months of field training with a sworn police employee who has been certified as a training coach;

b. Rotation in field assignments to expose the employee to varying operational and community experiences;

c. Documentation of employee performance in specific field experiences to assist in evaluating the employee and to provide feedback on training program effectiveness;

d. Self-paced training material, such as correspondence courses, to assist the employee in acquiring additional job knowledge and in preparing for subsequent formal training;

e. Periodic meetings between the coach, the employee, and the training academy staff to identify additional training needs and to provide feedback on training program effectiveness; and

f. A minimum of 2 weeks' additional training at the training academy 6 months after completion of basic training and again after 1 year's employment in field duties.

3. Every police agency should provide every unsworn police employee with sufficient training to enable him to perform satisfactorily his specific assignment and to provide him with a general knowledge of the police role and the organization of the police agency.

4. Every police agency should provide every police employee newly assigned to a specialized task the specific training he needs to enable him to perform the task acceptably.

5. Every police agency should provide sufficient training to enable every newly promoted employee to perform the intended assignment satisfactorily.

Commentary

How much training and education is necessary to develop a new employee into a police officer? The answer is not known. Recommended basic police training program lengths are value judgments based on tradition, necessity, common sense, and what little analytical information is available.

In 1967, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society* recommended that an "absolute minimum of 400 classroom hours" be established for basic police training. The IACP survey in 1970 disclosed that 33 States had laws requiring basic police training, but that only 19 States required 200 or more hours of instruction. The range of required hours extends from 72 to 400.

However, basic police training programs of 400 or more hours of classroom work are not uncommon. The basic police training program and its length reflect the degree of the police agency's and local government's commitment to quality police service. Some examples of basic training length:

Dayton, Ohio	960 hours
Seattle, Wash.	880 hours
Jacksonville, Fla.	448 hours
Richmond, Va.	16-week live-in
Michigan State Police	16-week live-in
Dade County, Fla.	949 hours
Baltimore, Md.	640 hours
Royal Canadian Mounted Police	910 hours
Chicago, Ill.	1,040 hours
Kansas City, Mo.	640 hours
Madison, Wisc.	420 hours
Los Angeles Sheriff	1,040 hours

In today's complex society, police officers must receive the best preparation possible. Four hundred hours of formal training and education, therefore, are once again recommended as a minimum for the basic police course. Once this minimum level is achieved, agencies can continue to build and experiment with further basic training and various educational approaches.

Variance in Curriculums

Even in the basic police programs exceeding 400 hours in length, curriculums vary. In examining curriculums, two problems are encountered—hour lengths in relation to the program length are deceiving, and the subject content is difficult to determine from titles or descriptions. However, insight can be gained from examining curriculums in terms of percentage of hours spent in subject categories.

In New York City, in its 1969 *Police Training and Performance Study* of 60 various size police training programs, compared the percentage of time allocated to nine basic training areas. The study identified the 15 agencies allocating the highest and lowest percentages in each category. In most cities a comparatively high percentage of the curriculum was devoted to patrol, traffic training, criminal law, evidence, and investigation. The subjects of community relations and human relations, cooperation with other agencies, and first aid were uniformly low. However, the study found no consensus on proper distribution of training curriculum.

The study did prove to be a useful evaluation tool, particularly in identifying topic areas receiving inordinate attention. For example, the differences between the 15 high and low agencies in each category illustrate the divergence of thought on basic police curriculum:

	Percent of Time	
	High	Low
Patrol and Traffic Training	42.9	16.0
Criminal Law, Evidence, and Investigation	34.3	12.3
Cooperation with other Agencies	9.0	1.3
Physical Training	18.2	4.5
Firearms Training	12.9	3.9
Department Orientation, Policy, and Procedure	19.5	5.4
Community Relations and Human Behavior	10.9	2.4
First Aid	8.0	2.3
Miscellaneous	6.6	0.0

Questionnaire responses, however, may have been based on course titles rather than course content.

For example, a great deal of human behavior training is taught in patrol and traffic training subjects.

Although the New York study might tend to discourage attempts to develop an ideal basic police curriculum, several broad areas can be identified as basic. Individual agency training programs could expand from this base by adding areas of concentration to meet local police, government, and community needs. This base should include topics similar to the following:

1. Introduction to the Criminal Justice System: An examination of the foundation and functions of the criminal justice system with specific attention to the role of the police in the system and government;

2. Law: An introduction to the development, philosophy, and types of law; criminal law; criminal procedure and rules of evidence; discretionary justice; application of the U. S. Constitution; court systems and procedures; and related civil law;

3. Human Values and Problems: Public service and noncriminal policing; cultural awareness; changing role of the police; human behavior and conflict management; psychology as it relates to the police function; causes of crime and delinquency; and police-public relations;

4. Patrol and Investigation Procedures: The fundamentals of the patrol function including traffic, juvenile, and preliminary investigation; reporting and communication; arrest and detention procedures; interviewing; criminal investigation and case preparation; equipment and facility use; and other day-to-day responsibilities and duties;

5. Police Proficiency: The philosophy of when to use force and the appropriate determination of the degree necessary; armed and unarmed defense; crowd, riot, and prisoner control; physical conditioning; emergency medical services; and driver training; and

6. Administration: Evaluation, examination, and counseling processes; department policies, rules, regulations, organization, and personnel procedures.

These topic areas are by no means complete, but they are intended to guide the development of the basic curriculum within the six principal areas of concentration. Percentages recommended to distribute the hours of instruction of the six core subjects were developed primarily from the curricula of Dayton, Ohio, Oakland, Calif., Seattle, Wash., Chicago, Ill., and Los Angeles, Calif.:

Introduction to the Criminal Justice System	8	percent
Law	10	"
Human Values and Problems	22	"

Patrol and Investigation Procedures	33	percent
Police Proficiency Administration	18	"
	9	"

This recommended curriculum may seem heavily vocational. However, when it is applied to a minimum 400-hour program, it must be vocational to provide the employee with the essential basic skills necessary for field performance. As a program increases in length, and as more efficient learning methods are used, the program can introduce additional academic subjects. The vocational subjects must not be reduced; complementary subjects can be added to these basic skills.

Related Sociology and Psychology

The British police historian Charles Reith wrote of police training in the United States, "It can be said of police training schools that the recruit is taught everything except the essential requirements of his calling, which is how to secure and maintain the approval and respect of the public whom he encounters daily in the course of his duties." While this is still partially true today, several police training programs are tackling this shortcoming.

New police officers take courses in sociology, psychology, and related subjects in order to gain understanding of human values and problems. This knowledge makes the policeman more effective, increases his personal satisfaction, and reduces tension in public encounters. These courses should be tailored to the public function of the specific agency and community. Police training academies are properly turning to the local colleges and consultants for development, presentation, and evaluation of courses in this area.

Long Beach, Calif., and Dayton, Ohio, require basic police recruits to attend local colleges and universities for most of these courses. Both agencies believe additional benefits result from the interaction of regular students and recruits in these classes. Chicago and New Jersey police academies are examples of the many police training programs that bring college instructors to the academy to present these subjects. College credits are awarded for successful completion of these academic courses.

Seattle, Wash., Dayton, Ohio, Chicago, Ill., and Oakland, Calif., have maximized role playing, small group interaction, videotape critique, and other progressive approaches to understanding human values and problems. The applied psychology workshops conducted for the Chicago Police Department by the Public Service Institute of the Loop College probably are among the most intensive and

extensive microanalytical approaches used in police training. Seattle's workshop sessions have been credited with assisting recruits on and off the job.

Psychology, as it relates to police work, is new to most educators and policemen. Some attempts to teach it have met with skepticism and hostility. These must be overcome. Police effectiveness depends on good human and community relations. Applied psychology is essential to professional law enforcement.

Experience Away from the Training Center

Many subjects, such as patrol, investigations, communications, criminal justice agency functions, and community and cultural awareness, come to life for students when field training supplements classroom instruction.

Seattle, Wash., and Madison, Wisc., have two of the many police training programs that use maximum onsite observation of routine police functions. Seattle also includes the areas of criminal justice agencies and community services in its 40-hour program.

During the 60-hour community awareness program presented as part of basic police training in Minneapolis, Minn., recruits are placed in controlled confrontations in the community with selected representatives. Minneapolis police believe a number of beneficial results come from this program. The local community has accepted the agency's sincerity in its attempt to develop new police officers rather than indoctrinate them. Many trainees said the experiences prepared them for their task better than any lecture. None of the 100 men from the three classes receiving this training has had any public complaint alleging improper treatment lodged against him.

Dayton, Ohio, has one of the more extensive experiencing programs. After formal classroom instruction, each recruit spends 120 hours in community activities. During this training, recruits live with residents and work in selected community and city organizations. Dayton also uses lawyers, judges, and an actual courtroom to conduct mock trials.

Oakland, Calif., conducts many of its community awareness programs at community locations with public representatives. Each recruit learns the problems involved in seeking help from government and community organizations by seeking help himself and by working 1 day with a local social service agency.

Even with rigorous planning and expert consultants' advice, problems can occur in developing new training approaches. Experimentation is neces-

sary to find the proper blend of presentation techniques. If any experimental program is going to be effective, it must remain open to modification as new developments occur. Feedback from the recruits and participating community members must be encouraged. Police agencies, however, should recognize that this approach is often expensive, time-consuming, and fraught with administrative headaches.

Remedial Services

When recruits show deficiencies during the basic police training program, the agency must decide whether to retain or dismiss them. In the past, most were dismissed because remedial services were not available or too much time would be required to improve the recruit's performance. While inordinate amounts of time cannot be devoted to this task, remedial services can save some of those who would have been dismissed in the past. These services can be effective in three areas of deficiency—personal problems, communication obstacles, and low training performance.

Personal problems can severely handicap the recruit's training performance and should be handled through professional counseling. Family problems, financial mismanagement, or personal misconceptions can be the cause of the recruit's deficiency. The New York City's *Police Training and Performance Study* recommends that a counseling service be established for the training academy. Other police agencies are using full- or part-time professional service for counseling.

New basic police training subjects often depend on increased communication skills and many new police officers have difficulty reading, writing, and speaking effectively. These deficiencies seriously limit the recruit's future police career. Remedial instruction can overcome these obstacles. Most local school systems, community colleges, and government-sponsored educational programs are able to provide this instruction.

Some police training academies provide remedial instruction themselves. The Los Angeles Police Academy's remedial course in report writing is more successful when taught by police officer instructors than when given by a community college. Police agencies should assure that when low performance in basic training is caused by deficiencies in communication skills, recruits are brought up to adequate levels by remedial instruction.

In many cases low training performance can be overcome by special attention from the training staff. Special tutoring can be provided on an individual or group basis. Group tutoring has been used

successfully particularly in police proficiency subjects. The Regional Center for Criminal Justice at Independence, Mo., makes available cassette recorded lectures for use by recruits during their travel to and from the center. Videotaped presentations also are used. Sometimes the best solution is to hold back some recruits and send them through with a later class.

Recruitment, selection, and training are too expensive to waste by dismissing a recruit whose performance could be sufficiently improved through counseling or remedial instruction.

Local Training and Orientation

More and more, police agencies are participating in cooperative and regional training programs. Some local training is lost because many local procedures, reports, and communities differ. This lost training cannot be ignored and must be presented by the employing agency in addition to the regular program.

Ohio State law requires that local training not count as part of the mandated minimum basic police curriculum. The Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council recommends that local training include agency rules, regulations, and policies; agency forms and reporting procedures; local judicial procedures; local government; agency emergency plans; local ordinances; and local community awareness.

Field Training Extension to Basic Police Training

Formal preparatory training and education for the newly appointed sworn police employee is only the foundation on which he will build his career as a competent police officer. During his first year the new employee goes from novice to competent employee. During this period, he should be subjected to continuous development through formal training, coached field experience, and supervised work performance. The new officer is a relatively insecure employee and an effective field training program can provide the necessary support to help him develop self-confidence and absorb the cultural shock from citizen to officer and the reality shock from formal training to field experience.

Yet Charles Saunders disclosed in *Upgrading the American Police* that 58 percent of the police agencies in cities over 10,000 population conduct no field training and the rest give it only after formal training with little attention to its complementary effect. The 1968 IACP study, *Police Recruit Training*, showed that agencies that provided field training gave from 2 to 480 hours; the average was 72 hours.

The experienced police officer will usually be the first person to defend the value of quality field training. For example, the New York Police Training and Performance Study of 1969 polled 100 officers of varying ranks and 94 selected their first assignment as the primary factor in establishing the direction and success of their future job performance.

Following basic training, the newly appointed sworn police employee should spend a minimum of 4 months in varying field training experiences. This 4-month period, the recommended minimum basic police formal training of 10 weeks, and the 4 weeks of additional training during the new employee's first year total 30 weeks. The remaining 22 weeks of the first year should be spent under close supervision by qualified supervisory personnel. Agencies that provide longer formal training will find that the supervised period is shorter; however, this is the preferred program.

The Training Coach

The most important element of an effective basic police field training program is the field training officer or coach. The development of the new officer is in this man's hands. The selection, training, and continued preparation of the coach are crucial. The best field officer will not necessarily become the best coach. While operational performance is one criterion, the ability to convey essentials of the job to others and the desire to develop new employees are at least as important.

Once the coach has been selected he must be trained. He must be kept up-to-date on the subjects he is teaching. A coach can nullify much of the basic training given a new employee or he can greatly reinforce that same training.

A coach should undergo training of at least 40 hours. Chicago, Ill., currently provides only 1 day, New York, N.Y., and Dade County, Fla., present a 3-day course, and Los Angeles, Calif., conducts a 40-hour program. But most agencies provide none.

The training should cover the supervisor's role, supervision and human behavior, personnel evaluation, problem-solving techniques, teaching methods, selection processes, counseling, and partner relations. The Dade County, Fla., Field Training Officer Program includes nearly all of these subject areas. New Haven, Conn., recommends continuous conferences among coaches for increased development of personal skills.

To maintain a strong cadre of coaches, agencies should offer incentives to officers undertaking this task. The Los Angeles, Calif., Police Department is

one of the very few agencies that provides pay increases for field training officers. Dade County, Fla., gives these officers a distinct uniform patch and additional consideration for promotion. Although money appears to be the most successful motivator, extra pay is not always sufficient. The State training commission should provide added support through field training officer certification that would require a training program and periodic recertification.

Medium-size and large police agencies should assign several training coaches to each new officer. In New Haven, Conn., recruits spend 2 weeks with each of several coaches and thus are exposed to a wide range of individual police styles. Small agencies undoubtedly will be handicapped by not having enough coaches; the majority may have only one.

Coordination between field training and classes is important, particularly in large police agencies or in any agency experiencing rapid growth. While it is beneficial to rotate new employees among training coaches, duty watches, and districts, continued contact with the training program is essential to maintain the program's effectiveness and to prepare additional phases of formal instruction. Oakland, Calif., Chicago, Ill., and New York, N.Y., maintain a field coordination unit closely associated with, or as part of, the training academy.

Planned Rotation

During the field training period, the new officer should be introduced not only to the essentials of policework, but also to the community he will serve. Every police agency should schedule employees for rotated duty patterns that afford exposure to all duty hours, patrol patterns, and socioeconomic groups within the community.

Several police agencies, in addition, rotate new officers through the various administrative, support, and specialized units to orient them and to help them plan their careers. Richmond, Va., for example, requires new officers to spend 7 weeks in such an orientation tour.

Documenting Field Experiences

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police *Basic Recruit Training Syllabus* notes, "The recruits' performance is recorded in the Performance Record which ultimately reveals the level and scope of field training achieved." The police agency and training staff can learn which field experiences each new officer has encountered or has not been exposed to through a properly kept performance record.

The New York State Municipal Police Training Council, in *Supervised Field Training for Probationary Officers*, recommends that police agencies simulate those situations not encountered during field training. Or, the officer's duty assignments might be scheduled to expose him to previously missed situations. The Royal Canadian Mounted Police Performance Record provides as a guide for the new employee specific text references for each task. The performance record is also a valuable tool in documenting unsuccessful field performance and supporting the dismissal of probationary employees who demonstrate unfitness.

Self-Paced Preparatory Materials

During the field extension of basic police training, the new officer should be required to pursue formal methods of self-improvement and to prepare himself for scheduled formal instruction periods. The Michigan State Police and Chicago, Ill., police have found that self-paced correspondence programs provide this necessary growth and preparation.

The Michigan State Police Continuing Education Program includes five courses—Criminal Law and Procedure, Introduction to Law Enforcement, Criminal Investigation, Traffic Accident Investigation, and Motor Vehicle Law. During the new officer's 6-month field training, he is required to complete this program on his own time; regular examinations monitor his progress. This program uses many current law enforcement texts.

Correspondence courses, also outlined under the inservice training section, are time consuming to develop and administer. The State training commission should provide assistance if needed in this area.

Periodic Meetings

The field training coach, the new employee, and members of the training academy staff should confer together periodically. Such meetings can identify areas for alteration and can identify training deficiencies in each new employee. New employees have had time to reflect on their past training and the training's application to actual field duties; they can provide valuable feedback to the training staff. These meetings also can be useful in developing content for the two additional phases of formal instruction.

Additional Formal Training and Education

The need for additional training is twofold. It allows for the discussion of subjects that can best be approached following some field experiences, such

as interpersonal communications, personal safety, field tactics, policy, and discretion. Training can also provide instruction in areas that field training experience reveals was overlooked or insufficiently assimilated.

Since this additional formal training builds on previous instruction and field experience, these periods can be extremely productive. The value of the two 2-week programs should outweigh their cost. The new employee will have mastered some of the basic mechanical skills and will be prepared to tackle more complex aspects of his job.

Dayton, Ohio, conducts a 1-week reevaluation and examination program for new employees after 6 months of field experience. The two recruits and sergeant assigned as a team during this field training all return together for this program. Such training is beneficial and should be encouraged.

The two additional formal training periods are scheduled after 6 months and after 1 year of employment primarily for agencies that provide only the minimum basic police training. Police agencies with longer initial periods should schedule the first additional formal training period midway between the conclusion of the basic course and the end of the employee's first year of employment.

Preparatory Training for Unsworn Employees

The use of unsworn employees in police agencies has become widespread and is discussed in Chapter 10. Civilians have successfully relieved sworn personnel of nonenforcement tasks and allowed them to return to primary police functions. The number of unsworn employees in police agencies varies from zero to over 30 percent. In 1972, 21.1 percent of California police agency employees were unsworn.

Although some unsworn employees come to the agency already trained in the task they will perform, others must be trained. Clerks, typists, janitors, vehicle maintenance employees, technicians, and administrative assistants, for example, should need little or no additional training. But every police agency should provide these employees with an orientation course to explain their role in the criminal justice system and in the police agency and to instill team spirit. New York, N.Y., offers a 2-day course to such employees.

Police agencies today are placing unsworn employees in positions traditionally held only by sworn employees. Some of these are communications; property custody; building security; jail management; traffic control, enforcement, and investigation; and reserve police officer duties. These unsworn employees seldom have had prior experience or training for these tasks. Every police agency must

insure that these employees receive the necessary training.

This training like any other training is costly. Chicago, Ill., during 1971, consumed 5,701 man-days training 1,315 unsworn employees. If the position to be filled by the unsworn employee will relieve sworn personnel, the necessary training costs should be reimbursed by the State training commission. Not only should costs be reimbursed, but training should be mandated for unsworn employees who perform enforcement and investigative functions.

Preparatory Training for Specialized Assignments

The selection of employees for specialized tasks is normally based on demonstrated ability in field assignments. No State has set minimal qualifications for these assignments, and although many States provide specialized training, none has mandated specific training for such assignments. On-the-job training has been heavily emphasized and has resulted in a training deficiency. The constant transfer of employees from assignment to assignment, while providing some benefits, is a deterrent to the agency's commitment to in-depth training for these specialized tasks.

A recent study of the California police training program, *The P.O.S.T. Training Program—A Review and Critique*, disclosed a sufficient uniformity of specialized tasks among agencies to justify cooperative training programs. This study organized training into three priority groups based on need, training potential, and geographic considerations. The first included general criminal investigation, narcotic investigation, delinquency control, jail management and operations, and traffic program management. The second priority area encompassed planning, research and development, training, motorcycle, and information management. The last priority consisted of internal discipline, community relations, accident investigation, intelligence, and vice investigation.

The length and method of instruction will vary from agency to agency. The Royal Canadian Mounted Police have a 3-week course for investigative techniques; New York, N.Y., has a similar course that lasts 3 to 4 weeks; but in Los Angeles, Calif., the course is only 1 week long. The 116 certified technical and special courses offered throughout California range from 16 to 480 hours.

Utah offers numerous courses for specialized assignments and has restricted them to an institute format presented by colleges. California presents the courses at both police agency training centers and community colleges. The colleges present the

topics either as seminars or semester length subjects. Semester length courses have one serious drawback—many on-duty police employees cannot attend them.

The greatest deficiencies in police specialization training are the absence of centralized control of selection or training requirements, the absence of mandated minimum training, and the lack of reimbursement for most technical and specialized training programs. The use of unsworn employees in specialized assignments is increasing; therefore, future developments in training and selection should not be restricted to sworn employees.

Training Before Promotion

Those few police agencies offering promotional training generally schedule it within 18 months after promotion. Usually the newly promoted employee is allowed to function in the position without benefit of prior training or experience. Self-confidence and better performance are much more likely when training is given before promotion or prior to actual field assignment.

By 1970, 20 States had established some minimum curriculum requirements for supervisory and management training and two of these States mandated this training. Minimum required length ranges from 32 to 100 hours; however, many police agencies surpass the required minimum. Charles Saunders, in *Upgrading the American Police*, cited a 1968 survey of 276 police agencies that disclosed that only 21 percent conduct mandatory promotional training. This training ranges from 2 to 160 hours. A survey by the IACP of 595 police agencies showed that 30 percent provided some kind of preassignment training, but that less than 14 percent provided training for promotion to lieutenant and less than 10 percent for promotion to captain.

In Germany, the commitment to police training is such that an employee's advancement is rare without his having attended advanced training programs. Executive programs, primarily for future police chief executives, are given at the National Police Institute at Hiltrup and last up to 12 months.

New York is one of the few States that mandates supervisory training. All newly appointed firstline supervisors must take a minimum 70-hour course.

Dade County, Fla., Chicago, Ill., and New York, N.Y., require promotional training before advancement, particularly at the sergeant level. The Seattle, Wash., Police Department requires completion of a course in supervision and/or administration prior to promotion to sergeant, lieutenant, and captain.

Oregon and California are examples of the common trend in promotional training. They require

completion of training within 12 and 18 months of promotion, respectively. California also permits officers to meet the requirement through a semester length college course. Problems with the semester program include its length, the usual off-duty attendance requirement, and a lack of police agency interest in instructional quality because attendance is off duty.

Promotional courses vary greatly among agencies that provide this training. Programs of 40 and 80 hours are most common. Many police agencies place greater emphasis on this training, as evidenced by the 120-hour programs of Chicago, Ill., and Los Angeles, Calif., the 245-hour course of New York, N.Y., and the 240-hour senior police administration course of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police.

For greater impact, promotional training should be given prior to promotion and should be followed by later courses and routine inservice programs. Additionally, middle management and executive programs should be integrated with college and business programs.

Promotional programs should be controlled, planned, and administered through the State training commission and should be reimbursable. Three levels of supervisory and management courses have evolved: one for sergeant and first-level supervision; another for command supervision and middle management for lieutenants and captains; and one for executive development for assistant chief executives, chief executives, and sheriffs. While the emphasis is definitely on sworn employee participation, these programs should also be provided for unsworn employee promotions.

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Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 16.3:

- 1.5(2) Police Understanding of Their Role.
- 1.7(1) News Media Relations.
- 4.1(3) Cooperation and Coordination.
- 6.2(2) Implementation of Team Policing.

- 9.2(5) Selection for Specialized Assignment.
- 9.5(1) Juvenile Operations.
- 9.10(1) Narcotic and Drug Investigations.
- 10.1(8)(10) Assignment of Civilian Police Personnel.
- 10.2(1)(2) Selection and Assignment of Reserve Police Officers.
- 12.1(3) The Evidence Technician.
- 16.1 State Legislation and Fiscal Assistance for Police Training.
- 16.2 Program Development.
- 16.4(2) Interpersonal Communications Training.
- 16.5(2) In-service Training.
- 16.6(1) Instruction Quality Control.
- 16.7 Police Training Academies and Criminal Justice Training Centers.
- 17.1(2) Personnel Development for Promotion and Advancement.
- 17.2(1) Formal Personnel Development Activities.

Standard 16.5

Inservice Training

Every police agency should, by 1975, provide for annual and routine training to maintain effective performance throughout every sworn employee's career.

1. Every police agency should provide 40 hours of formal inservice training annually to sworn police employees up to and including captain or its equivalent. This training should be designed to maintain, update, and improve necessary knowledge and skills. Where practicable and beneficial, employees should receive training with persons employed in other parts of the criminal justice system, local government, and private business when there is a common interest and need.

2. Every police agency should recognize that formal training cannot satisfy all training needs and should provide for decentralized training. To meet these day-to-day training needs, every police agency should provide each police station with:

a. As soon as practicable, but in no event later than 1978, a minimum of one police employee who is a State certified training instructor;

b. Audio-visual equipment compatible with training material available to the police agency;

c. Home study materials available to all police employees; and

d. Periodic 1-day on-duty training programs directed at the specific needs of the police employees.

3. Every police agency should insure that the information presented during annual and routine training is included, in part, in promotion examinations and that satisfactory completion of training programs is recorded in the police employee's personnel folder in order to encourage active participation in these training programs.

Commentary

Charles Saunders, in *Upgrading the American Police*, emphasized that police agencies should develop "a process of continuing training throughout an individual's career according to his needs and those of his department."

Inservice training requires a commitment by the police chief executives to maintain employee effectiveness by providing training to update and improve job knowledge and skills. When this training is made available and convenient, it is readily sought by police agencies, particularly small agencies, as evidenced by experiences in Utah and California.

Munich, Germany, has renovated a castle for use as a unique inservice training center. Once every

3 years, each police employee spends a week in training seminars and recreation. The agency feels the training has been beneficial; in addition, outstanding employee morale has developed in the away-from-work atmosphere.

In 1970, 21 States provided varying degrees of commitment to and control over inservice training and three mandated this training by law. But the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, in *State-Local Relations in the Criminal Justice System*, reported that only 11 States had set minimum hourly requirements for inservice, advanced, and supervisory courses. The police training commitment cannot be allowed to end after the basic course.

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police, although not committed to annual inservice training, does schedule training to coincide with an officer's development. In addition to basic and specialized training, each first-level officer participates in a 2-week program during the first 3 years of assignment and a 1-week program between the fourth and seventh year. These are supplemented by an extensive range of specialized and assignment-related programs given as needed.

The usual term of inservice training is 40 hours. Seattle, Wash., Salem, Ore., Madison, Wisc., and Chicago, Ill., require annual inservice training. In Utah, 40 hours of annual training is required and the State commission reports that many officers are receiving far more.

Currently, Dade County, Fla., provides 64 hours and Dayton, Ohio, gives 80 hours of annual inservice training to employees. The Regional Center for Criminal Justice in Independence, Mo., is installing annual inservice training with an 80-hour program for Kansas City and a 64-hour program for other participating agencies.

The Erie County, N.Y., Sheriff's Training Academy has one of the most extensive inservice programs, exceeding the State requirement by 44 hours. The 124-hour program covers a wide range of subjects and requires daily home study and individual research papers. The program, however, is not annual, and there is no requirement for further attendance.

The Madison, Wisc., and Chicago, Ill., programs include first-level through command employees. New York, N.Y., has inservice programs, but they are restricted to lieutenants and captains and other command personnel.

Subject matter of inservice programs varies in response to the specific needs of each agency. Common subject areas include law and legal changes; field procedures (particularly civil disorder control), evidence collection, and weapon use; law

enforcement innovation; and interpersonal communications. Utah has divided the State into regions and tailors the curriculum to regional needs.

In Madison, the week-long program is broken down into two sections. The first is for all participants and the second is divided into three groups: patrolmen, investigators, and supervisory and command personnel.

Chicago, Ill., arranges its courses so that they are attended in sequence, with each year's program building upon the previous one. California does not provide annual training, but does require inservice programs every 4 years. The community college system plays an active role.

Inservice training requirements in many States may be satisfied by attending other approved training programs. In Utah, approved college courses may be substituted at a rate of one-third hour credit. Management programs like the FBI National Academy, Northwestern Traffic Institute, Southern Police Institute programs, and other local programs satisfy the yearly inservice training requirement. Any training program that improves individual effectiveness must be considered as satisfying the annual requirement.

William Kirwan, Superintendent of the New York State Police, writing in the *Police Chief* (March 1971) about a new traffic management program for inservice personnel, reported that the initial training group believed tremendous benefits resulted from the interaction among the personnel of the many agencies involved. Nearly all training programs involving employees of several agencies benefit by a change in attitudes. Similar benefits result from interaction of police personnel and persons from other elements of the criminal justice system and business and government.

Decentralized Training

Basic training followed by annual inservice training provides a foundation upon which an agency can maintain and build operational effectiveness. But police training needs are changing constantly and must be met through efficient decentralized training offered at the precinct station.

Day-to-day training generally is handled during a portion of rollcall—30 to 45 minutes preceding an officer's daily field assignment. With few exceptions this training is ineffective. Los Angeles, a pioneer in this form of training, and Dayton, Ohio, have acknowledged the deficiencies of rollcall training. New York City police have never had such a training period. Neither have most small police agencies. Menlo Park, Calif., police hold rollcall after the tour of duty; it is a debriefing period.

The Chicago, Ill., Police Department claims its rollcall training program is successful due to the use of slides and tapes, and the maintenance of complete control over decentralized training by the training academy.

Rollcall and other forms of decentralized training have worked in some agencies but not in others. Some failures occur because supervisory and command personnel are not committed to this training; this results in lack of organizational support, absence of instructional material and equipment, limited preparation time, and poor instructors. The *Police Training and Performance Study* (1969) identified these weaknesses in the New York, N.Y., Police Department's decentralized training.

Police agencies have attempted to fill this void with printed training bulletins and the IACP Training Keys. These are valuable supplements to decentralized training, but they are not sufficient alone.

First level supervisors should be involved in daily training because they are responsible for their officers' field performance and can judge the effectiveness of the training. Although the supervisor should be briefed in advance on training material, he should be essentially an additional training resource, not the principal instructor.

Each decentralized training program should provide high-quality material and sufficient time for proper instruction. The Chicago, Ill., and Richmond, Va., police agencies and the Royal Canadian Mounted Police have training staffs that oversee the quality of instructional material.

Although management has a responsibility to see that training material reflects the agency's philosophy, it should not keep too tight a rein on methods of instruction. Experienced training officers often know the best way to arouse and maintain the interest of the first-level employees.

Arranging time for training programs is a major obstacle to decentralized training. Some successful programs have been implemented through a 4-day week, 10-hour day; 1-day training programs; compensated overtime; use of slump time; and on-duty participation by radio contact.

Other considerations for daily training include arrangements for individual as well as group instruction, material concentrated on topics related to the trainee's current tasks, and uniform quality and content throughout the agency.

Programs should be flexible enough to reach all personnel regardless of where their duty posts are, what hours they work, and the degree of their police experience. They should also be flexible in hours of presentation; the agency should be able to present some form of training at any time of day.

The emphasis should be on learning through participation.

A Training Instructor for Every Station

Decentralized training is often ineffective because no one is assigned the responsibility to perform, evaluate, and control the training program. Charles Saunders, in *Upgrading the American Police*, reported that most cities with less than 50,000 population maintained no police agency training unit or full-time training officer. Stated another way, nearly 98 percent of the Nation's police agencies and over 40 percent of police personnel had no formal in-house training.

Many factors determine whether a decentralized location needs a full-time training supervisor. The person designated, however, should consider training to be his primary task; his other functions come second. In New York City, a training employee is assigned numerous other tasks and his training responsibilities have become secondary. Los Angeles, Calif., has not granted police budget requests for local training officers, and training responsibility in stations has not been fixed. Often it is assigned to a supervisor moments before presentation or other tasks are allowed priority.

A training specialist can increase training effectiveness and insure that it relates to operational needs. Through evaluation and field observation, he can provide valuable feedback to the central training staff.

The 1969 New York City Police Training and Performance Study recommended that sergeants should be assigned to the Police Academy and then detailed to precincts on a rotating basis. These sergeants would participate in decentralized training program development and would provide assistance with basic field training programs.

Because there are approximately 25,000 police agencies, at least that number of training instructors would be required to provide each agency with a certified instructor. Although this number seems staggering, there are at least two ways to develop the necessary personnel. An instructor development course can be included in presergeant training programs as in many California programs. Special instructor courses are presented by Northwestern University, University of California at Long Beach, and Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council.

Audiovisual Instruction

Police agencies should use technological devices for training. Audiovisual programs can be developed that are interesting and instructive. They can

be operated on a 24-hour basis and instructors can control quality and content. Audiovisual presentations are most effective when followed by group discussion and text material.

Programs consisting entirely of lectures and written material are usually comparatively dull and less likely to get the message across. Training films are inflexible, often outdated, and usually so general that instructors must adapt their lessons to make them useful for a particular agency.

Many police agencies have found that slide tape presentations meet many of their needs. Chicago, Ill., has developed probably the most extensive library of such presentations. The IACP's Sight/Sound Library is used for many departments. Slide tape allows an agency to insert slide photographs of its own employees for greater audience appeal. Recent developments have made it possible to use the slide tape principle in programmed lesson presentation that requires audience participation.

The Redondo Beach, Calif., Police Department successfully uses cassette tape recorders in a conversational Spanish program. The Regional Center for Criminal Justice in Independence, Mo., has had limited success with recorders for remedial instruction of trainees traveling to and from the Center. One firm is marketing packaged cassette training programs for use by police officers while on patrol.

With proper funding and good instructors, closed circuit and educational television may achieve the success in police training it has enjoyed in many other fields. The 1969 report, *To Improve Learning*, by the Commission on Instructional Technology, stated that instructional television increases productivity, enhances individuality of learning, provides immediacy to learning, increases instructional impact, and provides content and quality control.

Instructional television for police employees has been or is being used with varying degrees of effectiveness by the California attorney general, New York, N.Y., Police Department, and the St. Louis, Mo., Police Department. Georgia, through the University of Georgia, and South Carolina, through its State training commission, offer television on a statewide basis to any agency wishing to subscribe. Police television programs are in the planning stage in Arkansas, California, Mississippi, and the Metropolitan Regional Council consisting of New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut.

Home Study

Home study or correspondence programs can be used to train employees who are unable to attend formal programs or who desire to pursue subjects in more depth or topics which are not part of the

formal training. Quality home study programs are not in widespread use in the police field and cannot be considered a substitute for formal and routine training. However, home study programs have advantages over some traditional methods of police training because they can be completed at the participant's own pace and, if seriously undertaken, can indicate individual initiative and perseverance.

The most extensive police home study program is conducted by the Chicago, Ill., Police Department. Begun in 1963, the program has offered 159 courses of instruction to nearly 51,000 police employees. In the April 1972, trimester, 3,200 agency employees and 620 outside police agency employees were students. In addition to many traditional police topics, the program presents such courses as the history of violence in America, the challenge of crime in a free society, and organized crime. It uses national commission reports as texts.

The Michigan and Utah State training commissions offer comprehensive home study courses in police supervision. New York, N.Y., concentrates its home study programs in the management and supervisory fields. Topics such as principles of management, effective decisionmaking, basic statistics for managers, and constructive discipline are included.

Home study program development and administration is a costly and time-consuming task that few police agencies can afford. The Chicago, Ill., Police Department, for example, employs 11 full-time employees to conduct its extensive program. Because of their subject matter, most of these home study courses can be developed and administered appropriately at the State, regional, or National level.

Training Days

Many subjects that should be covered between annual inservice training programs require more time than is normally available on a day-to-day basis. Weaponless defense, weapons training, and unusual occurrence control tactics are typical. There are other training needs peculiar to a specific geographic area or to specific working hours that should be conducted on a group basis. Agencies must determine how to make time available to accomplish this training.

Some agencies find the on-duty training day the best use of training time. New York, N.Y., San Jose and Los Angeles, Calif., and local FBI offices have special days devoted to training. Each agency uses a different method to schedule participation. For continued police coverage, the agency can require all employees to work on 2 days, with half the employees attending the training program each day.

Richmond, Va., and Colorado Springs, Colo., schedule training by platoons or shifts on a 2-hour-per-week basis. Employees are compensated for this time with time off. Several police agencies on the 4-day, 10-hour work schedule have found the 2-hour block for training convenient. Full training days offer a potential training device for small and rural agencies to develop an areawide program.

Measures to Encourage Participation

A primary factor in the success of the Chicago, Ill., home study program is the assistance it gives enrollees in promotional examinations. In the 1966 Chicago sergeants' examination, 45 of the first 50 men on the list had taken home study courses; and in the 1967 detectives' examination, 23 of the first 25 took part in the study program.

Within the police service, an employee's personnel folder represents his occupational resume, is important in the promotional process, and is considered in competition for specialized assignments. Police employees in such States as Utah, New York, and California seek State training commission certificates and other documentation of educational achievements.

These factors stimulate participation in police training and education. If a police agency is committed to effective training, it will insure that training achievements are recorded and that they become an integral part of the promotion process and weigh favorably on other aspects of a career.

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Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 16.5:

- 1.5(2) Police Understanding of Their Role.
- 4.1(3) Cooperation and Coordination.
- 6.2(2) Implementation of Team Policing.
- 7.6(1) Training for Unusual Occurrences.
- 8.2(2) Enhancing the Role of the Patrol Officer.
- 10.1(10) Assignment of Civilian Police Personnel.
- 10.2(2) Selection and Assignment of Reserve Police Officers.
- 16.1(1)(2) State Legislation and Fiscal Assistance for Police Training.
- 16.6 Instruction Quality Control.
- 17.2(1) Formal Personnel Development Activities.

Standard 16.6

Instruction Quality Control

Every police training academy and criminal justice training center should develop immediately quality control measures to insure that training performance objectives are met. Every training program should insure that the instructors, presentation methods, and training material are the best available.

1. Every police training academy should present all training programs with the greatest emphasis on student-oriented instruction methods to increase trainee receptivity and participation. Training sessions of 1-hour's duration or longer should include at least one of the following:

a. Active student involvement in training through instructional techniques such as role playing, situation simulation, group discussions, reading and research projects, and utilization of individual trainee response systems; passive student training such as the lecture presentation should be minimized;

b. Where appropriate, team teaching by a police training instructor and a sworn police employee assigned to field duty;

c. The use of audiovisual aids to add realism and impact to training presentations;

d. Preconditioning materials, such as correspondence courses and assigned readings, made available prior to formal training sessions;

e. By 1978, self-paced, individualized instruction methods for appropriate subject matter; and

f. Where appropriate, computer assistance in the delivery of instruction material.

2. Every police training academy should, by 1975, restrict formal classroom training to a maximum of 25 trainees.

3. Every police training academy and every police agency should, by 1978, insure that all its instructors are certified by the State by requiring:

a. Certification for specific training subjects based on work experience and educational and professional credentials;

b. Satisfactory completion of a State-certified minimum 60-hour instructor training program; and

c. Periodic renewal of certification based in part on the evaluation of the police training academy and the police agency.

4. Every police training academy should distribute instructional assignments efficiently and conditionally update all training materials. These measures should include:

a. Periodic monitoring of the presentations of every police training instructor to assist him in evaluating the effectiveness of his methods and the value of his materials;

b. Rotation of police training instructors through operational assignments or periodic assignment to field observation tours of duty;

c. Use of outside instructors whenever their expertise and presentation methods would be beneficial to the training objective;

d. Continual assessment of the workload of every police training instructor; and

e. Administrative flexibility to insure efficient use of the training academy staff during periods of fluctuation in trainee enrollment.

5. Every police agency and police training academy should review all training materials at least annually to determine their current value and to alter or replace them where necessary.

Commentary

James O. Wilson, in *The Future Policeman* (Project STAR), wrote that policemen should be persons who:

... can handle calmly challenges to their self-respect and manhood; are able to tolerate ambiguous situations; have the physical capacity to subdue persons; are able to accept responsibility for the consequences of their own actions; and can understand and apply legal concepts in concrete situations.

A training program should develop each of the above abilities by means of instruction in situations that simulate as far as possible real-world conditions. The object should be to develop an inner sense of competence and self-assurance so that, under conditions of stress, conflict, and uncertainty, the officer is capable of responding flexibly and in a relatively dispassionate manner rather than rigidly, emotionally, or defensively.

Norman Pomrenke, of the Baltimore, Md., Police Department, states in the *Journal of Law Enforcement Education and Training*, that:

We should make every effort to assure that the education and training program be a lively, creative place where ideologies, ideas and points of view clash and compete . . . In other words, an education and training function should resist the temptation to buy any one approach to education and training . . . It should hope to benefit from the luxuries of diversity.

Police employees, even recruit officers, are generally action-oriented. But in the classroom they often assume the passive role of listener. Dayton, Ohio, Seattle, Wash., San Diego and Oakland, Calif., have police training programs that drastically reduce the lecture approach in favor of new, effective participatory techniques.

There is no magic formula to determine the most effective instructional technique for a specific subject. The Training Systems Study conducted for the Los Angeles, Calif., Police Department developed a

model guide for determining the most appropriate media for presenting different subjects. Under their MILE project, 43 modules which include videotape (some in color), audiotape, and programmed texts have been developed for 50 percent of their basic curriculum. The modules, each ranging from 1 hour to 16 hours, permit police recruit officers to proceed at their own pace. "Hands-on" training may be necessary in some subjects; role playing may be effective in others; and the lecture, supplemented by audio or visual aids, may be most effective in yet other subjects.

Another factor that often is overlooked is the composition of the student group. Charles C. Drawbaugh, in evaluating New Jersey's mobile police classrooms (*Police Chief*, August 1968), found that student groupings on the basis of background would help determine the best instructional techniques to employ and would be a prerequisite to anticipating program effectiveness in terms of learning and personal satisfaction. Age, tenure, police agency size and function, and assignment were significant factors identified in this evaluation.

Participatory Training

The police task is becoming so complex that learning by rote is no longer satisfactory. Research by the FBI reveals that participating students learn more effectively than nonparticipating students. This finding is reinforced by a similar controlled experiment conducted by the U.S. Air Force at Lackland Air Base, Tex. The learning performance of a group forced to participate by seeking their reference material was superior to that of a group instructed by traditional methods. The more a person participates in an incident, the better he becomes in handling it, providing his actions are accompanied by effective critiques.

Many police agencies are providing participatory experience through role playing and situation simulation techniques. The Covina, Calif., Police Department has employed experiencing programs in which, unknown to trainees, actors were planted in audiences addressed by police officers. The actors successfully maneuvered the officers into defensive positions. The sessions were followed by an announcement explaining the purpose of the confrontation. This device proved to be a beneficial public relations and training tool.

Covina, Calif. police officers participated in other experiencing programs, one in which they spent a weekend in a neighboring jail without being identified to the police jailors, and one in which they spent several days on skid row in a neighboring

community. The department found these programs to be most effective when employees are preconditioned to what they will face and are involved in program planning.

Dayton, Ohio, Oakland, Calif., and Seattle, Wash., conduct successful community-based programs in which students work with service agencies, attempting to secure various forms of public service and visiting inner city families. Participating police employees experience the same frustrations community members feel when their requests for help are obstructed or denied. This program develops greater understanding and better working relationships between elements of the criminal justice and public service systems.

The Regional Center for Criminal Justice in Independence, Mo., arranges for students to encounter simulated incidents taken from police activity logs. Simulations are videotaped for later critique. Game playing seldom has been used in police training, but both the military and private business have experienced tremendous success using instructional techniques that force personal involvement and decisionmaking.

The seminar approach should dominate formal police training. It is used effectively in Oakland, Calif., Kansas City, Mo., and in Great Britain and Germany. Some police instructors may resist this approach because it eliminates the artificial authority barrier of the lecture mode, requires self-confidence, and demands adequate preparation.

Reading and research projects are commonplace in educational settings and in some advanced training programs, yet they are seldom used in police training programs. The Salem, Ore., and Erie County, N.Y., Sheriffs Training Academies employ this instructional tool. In Salem, each recruit gives an oral presentation based on his own research. Oakland, Calif., provides the recruit class with an extensive reading list and reference source.

Student response systems are an invaluable tool for helping instructors deliver material effectively. Instructors ask questions and get immediate feedback. This method guarantees complete student participation, forces students to make decisions, and indicates the degree of student receptivity to instruction. The FBI and the New Jersey mobile police classrooms use this technique.

Team Teaching

Team teaching is an instructional approach that has been introduced into public education. Two or more teachers present material and provide support for the principal instructor. The method provides individual assistance to students and a greater

range of expertise. The fundamental principles of this concept can be adapted to police training.

Nearly all police academies find it difficult to make instructional material relevant to the day-to-day police task, particularly when nonpolice instructors are engaged or colleges are used to present academic topics. One advantage of police team teaching is that it can provide one instructor who is familiar with field procedures and police policies and another who concentrates on the theory of the subject.

Sometimes a policeman with expertise in a subject, such as narcotics or equipment operation, may be a poor instructor. If he works with a trained teacher, the material may be presented in a manner that will capitalize on the skills of both.

Audiovisual Aids

Learning can be reinforced by audio or visual aids, such as motion pictures, tape recordings, videotape, charts, drawings, and closed-circuit television. But these aids should not be thought of as entertainment devices that free instructors from actual training duties.

Television can be an excellent instructional tool. However, most police training academies have neither the money nor the expertise to use it effectively. New York, N.Y., St. Louis, Mo., and Chicago, Ill., police agencies are experimenting with television. The most effective use of television is apparently through regional training programs and State-operated networks. California, South Carolina, Georgia, Michigan, New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, Arkansas, and Mississippi either use or contemplate using a statewide network.

Videotape offers the training academy many of the advantages of television, plus flexibility, immediate feedback, and greater efficiency, particularly in situation simulation and community encounters. Oakland, Calif.; the Regional Center for Criminal Justice at Independence, Mo.; and Dade County, Fla., have found that videotape presentations increase training effectiveness.

Imagination is the only limit to effective audiovisual aids. The Army Language School at Monterey, Calif., has experimented with compressed speech recording devices that reduce speech time from 20 to 40 percent with no decrease in comprehension. New York, N.Y., has had success with live dramas that stimulate and complement specific instruction. Commercial films and documentaries also may have learning value, especially if criticized or discussed.

Preconditioning Students

Available training time can be maximized by

assigning police students material to assimilate prior to instructional sessions. Few police training programs require employees to prepare for subsequent training through assigned readings or correspondence courses. The Erie County, N.Y., Sheriffs Training Academy and the Oakland, Calif., Police Department provide recruits with an extensive reference source bibliography. Michigan State Police require recruits to complete a comprehensive correspondence course during the period between basic training and return to the academy from their field training assignment.

If police training is to encourage involvement, participation, and exchange of ideas, students should acquire basic knowledge prior to the formal training sessions. This foundation may be acquired through home study program or correspondence courses, selected readings, prepared notes, and preprinted outlines for nightly study. A great deal of class time can thus be freed for more advanced presentations.

Self-Paced, Individualized Instruction

Because individuals learn at different speeds, standardized programs can hold some students back while leaving others behind. Self-paced, individualized programs or programed instruction have been used by many governmental and business organizations, which have found that these methods overcome the learning rate problem and save time and money.

The individualized instructional technique must be goal-oriented: there must be a clear definition of what the student will be able to do after the training. The material is presented in steps that challenge the student but do not allow him to progress beyond his mastery of each essential point. The teaching method is self-administered and allows each person to progress at his own pace.

Programed instruction also requires much less instructor time and allows the student to use the material at his convenience. Additional savings can be realized from reduced classroom and training staff time. The presentation of programed instruction ranges from printed documents and slide projections, to complex teaching instruments and systems.

Computer-Assisted Instruction

Computer-assisted instruction can serve three important purposes. It can maximize the use of individualized instruction. It can collect and report cumulative, individual student progress data that will assist the training center staff in daily evaluations of students and of any aspect of the curriculum, including multimedia presentations, specific text pages, and individual exercises. And it can store essentials of the best learning presentations for re-

peated use by all students, regardless of instructor presence, student location, or time of use.

Students can interact with the computer in two ways. The regular instruction program can be supplemented and reinforced through drill and practice sessions, and the student can use the computer as a tutor to help him understand a concept and develop personal skill in its application.

Inservice training and refresher courses for re-assigned or lateral entry employees can be enhanced through use of the computer. The computer can also be used in gaming and decisionmaking exercises, as demonstrated by several programs used by the Armed Forces and the banking industry.

The Oakland and Los Angeles, Calif., Police Departments have conducted pilot programs with local community colleges in the computer-assisted instruction of criminal law. Several educational institutions throughout the Nation are deeply involved in experiments with this instruction method. Although such programs are expensive, government funding for pilot projects is available.

Maximum Class Size

Police training class size often is determined by the number of vacancies being filled or by the physical dimensions of the classroom. Classes with more than 40 students are too large for individualized instruction. The New York, N.Y., police training study found 40 students to be too large a group for effective learning.

Educators and trainers agree that the learning experience is enhanced when the number of students is restricted to a maximum of 25; a group of 20 is preferable. The Regional Center for Criminal Justice in Independence, Mo., forms basic police training groups into units of 18 to 23 students. At this training facility, each unit is made up of representatives from each participating agency in order to maximize learning benefits.

Implementation of this standard will be hindered initially by limited classroom availability and increased instructor workload. Nevertheless, management should attempt to offset increased training costs through efficient delivery and administration of the training program.

Originally, the Chicago, Ill., Police Academy hoped to conduct classes of 35 persons, but its arrangement with a community college required that classes not exceed 25. In 1971, the academy trained over 1,000 basic police candidates in its 22-classroom facility.

Instructor Development

Charles Saunders, in *Upgrading the American Police*, reported that nearly two-thirds of police

instructors had no education beyond high school, and that few had even 80 hours of instructor training.

A police agency that wants to insure maximum effectiveness for its training dollars must employ a specialist—a qualified training instructor. Police training should be presented by a certified instructor whether the presentation is given at an academy or in an agency station. This means that a minimum of 40,000 persons, plus those necessary for decentralized agencies and academy staffs, must be certified as police instructors. Certification should be controlled by a State training commission.

Certification by Subject Expertise

Many training academies still require instructors to present a wide range of topics, often without regard to their expertise in those areas. Instructors in many States are certified by the State police training commission. In a few States, such as Michigan and Utah, this certification is required in order to present any State-mandated training.

Wisconsin, Texas, and Michigan certify instructors for specific topic areas that relate to their expertise, education, and occupational experience. In Michigan, there are 18 possible areas for certification; for example, persons qualified to instruct in criminal law must possess an LL.B. or J.D. degree. To instruct in social problems they must have experience, education, or training relating directly to abnormal psychology and social counseling; to instruct on the subject of juvenile offenders they must have experience primarily in juvenile casework; and to instruct in the jurisdiction of Federal law enforcement agencies they must have experience as a Federal law enforcement officer.

Instructor Training

Teacher candidates should be developed through a training program that emphasizes education philosophy and psychology, instruction methods and their relationship to subject matter, fundamentals of training program development, and feedback consciousness.

Current police instruction and instructor training continues to rely heavily on outdated military instruction techniques. Instructor training should enable successful candidates to obtain a State vocational teaching credential and to satisfy police training commission requirements.

Few agencies and no States require as many as 80 hours of instructor training. The Royal Canadian Mounted Police School of Instructional Technique lasts 2 weeks and provides students with a comprehensive study guide for future reference.

Persons considered for basic police training assignments are required to attend another 2-week program for selection and evaluation.

The Oregon Police Academy presents a 2-week instructor program, while Dade County, Fla., requires potential instructors to participate in a 70-hour course. Utah uses the 80-hour instructor course, presented by the Northwestern Traffic Institute twice a year, to maintain a cadre of certified instructors for all its training programs.

The Chicago, Ill., Police Academy appears to have one of the most intensive selection programs for instructor development. Candidates are not transferred to the academy, but are sent on loan for an evaluation period of from 9 to 18 months. During this period, the candidate observes approximately 200 hours of instruction, then presents 200 hours of instruction under the guidance of a qualified instructor. He also attends a 35-hour instructor training course as well as training, when available, at the Red Cross, the Great Lakes Naval Training Station, and the Northwestern Traffic Institute. Each successful candidate receives a State Provisional Vocational Teacher Certificate.

Michigan has employed the community college system to present its instructor training program. Approximately one-third of the candidates fail to complete the 120-hour course.

Periodic Renewal

Several police agencies have included instructor training in prepromotional programs for sergeant. In most California agencies, employees who complete the program may apply for State vocational teaching credentials. However, no instructor training course guarantees that the successful employee will be a successful instructor. To insure that only qualified persons present instruction, the police training commission should require that certification be renewed periodically.

The Michigan Police Training Commission recommends that every instructor be evaluated by trainees and by the academy coordinator, and provides forms for this purpose. The commission also reserves the right to substitute instructors with better qualifications when it deems necessary.

The Oregon Police Training Commission continually reviews certifications, but also will do so on request of an agency chief executive, academy director, or other reliable source. The commission has the authority to revoke certification.

Training Academy Management

The task of managing a police training academy can be enormous. For example, Los Angeles,

16.1(2) State Legislation and Fiscal Assistance
for Police Training.

16.2 Program Development.

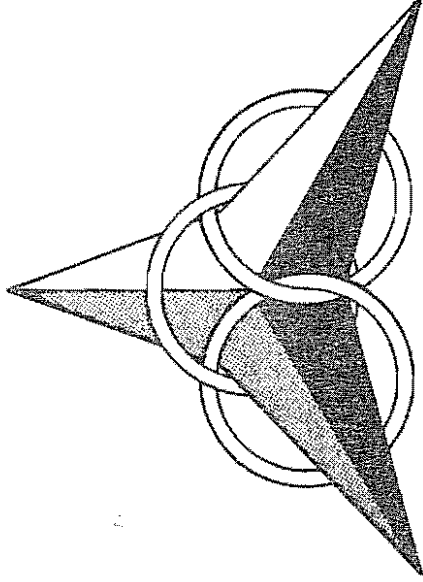
16.3 Preparatory Training.

16.5 In-service Training.

16.7(1) Police Training Academies and Criminal
Justice Training Centers.

Recommendation 15.1(1) Identification of Police
Educational Needs.

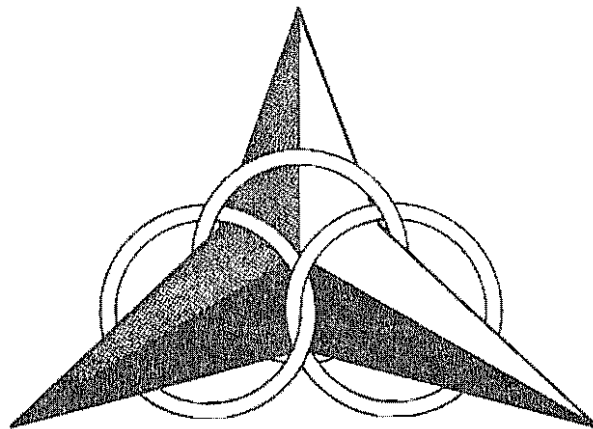
PROJECT STAR



**POLICE OFFICER
ROLE TRAINING PROGRAM**

INTRODUCTION

PROJECT STAR



POLICE OFFICER
ROLE TRAINING PROGRAM

SEPTEMBER 1974

INTRODUCTION

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PROJECT DESCRIPTION

NEED

The social upheaval in the United States during the 1960s placed severe demands on the nation's criminal justice system. It became apparent that:

- crime was increasing at a rate greater than the population
- too many crimes were undetected by the police
- the clearance rate for crimes detected by the police was too low
- there were conflicts raised by the demands for protection of various Constitutional rights.
- there were major delays in the judicial process
- inadequate attention was too often given to cases in the judicial process
- conditions at most correctional institutions were unsatisfactory
- the recidivism rate was too high..

As a result of these related problems, a number of improvements to the criminal justice system and its components were proposed or initiated. Among these proposals or efforts, none received greater attention than the "upgrading" of criminal justice personnel. Unfortunately, there was wide disagreement on what this term meant. To some, this required increasing the quantity of personnel; to others, it meant improving the quality of personnel; and to others, it meant upgrading both quantity and quality. Specific actions initiated to upgrade these personnel included:

- increasing the numbers of existing positions
- adding new types of positions
- increasing the education and training for operational positions
- providing better pay to operational positions
- providing better information to each position

- providing better equipment and facilities to each position
- improving coordination among positions
- allocating personnel to critical assignments
- improving the organization of personnel
- improving the performance evaluation of personnel.

It became obvious, as implementation of these suggestions began, that no clear agreement existed as to what each position in the criminal justice system really did--or should do!

If this were true, then it was really impossible to reliably determine personnel:

- knowledge, skill, and attitude requirements
- information needs
- equipment or facility needs
- classification, organization, resource allocation, or performance evaluation techniques.

Thus, although the extent and complexity of antisocial behavior and crime in the United States were fairly well known, there was considerable disagreement about the most desirable way to handle these problems. In addition, personnel requirements for resolving these problems were unclear. Further, the diffusion of responsibility among extensive and varied organizational elements in different branches, levels, and units of government complicated problem resolution.

HISTORY

In recognition of these difficulties, a number of efforts were initiated to help bring the problem into focus. These efforts included the following:

1964: The California Peace Officers Association identified the need to analyze the role of police in modern society as a basis for developing improved education and training programs.

1966: The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice adopted a number of recommendations on criminal justice goals, techniques, organization, and personnel.

- 1967: The U. S. Bureau of the Budget developed a plan for construction of a consolidated training facility for all federal law enforcement agencies that would include a core curricula.
- 1968: The Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education (WICHE) initiated the development of a plan to improve the provision of needed law enforcement training in common tasks in the western United States.
- 1968: The Institute for the Study of Crime and Delinquency (ISCD) initiated the design of a method for identifying the desired role of the police.
- 1968: The California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) developed a proposal for the comprehensive evaluation and identification of desired police selection, education, and training requirements through the use of methods developed by WICHE and ISCD.
- 1969: The California Council on Criminal Justice (CCCJ) suggested the expansion of the POST proposal to include judicial process and corrections selection, education, and training requirements.

These efforts recognized that crime reduction and the provision of justice in the United States was primarily a responsibility of state and local governments. Further, it was evident that six key positions in the criminal justice structure were basically charged with the direct interaction and decision making involving crime victims, witnesses, suspects, defendants, jurors, and offenders. These key positions are the *police officer, prosecuting attorney, defense attorney, judge, caseworker, and correctional worker.*

Thus, it appeared logical that the greatest promise for increasing the effectiveness of the criminal justice system involved improving the performance of these six key positions as individuals and as participants in a system. In addition, the general public should be involved to a much greater extent in avoiding criminal acts and assisting in the entire criminal justice process.

Of course, before any improvement can be made, a desired direction must be established. This required identification of appropriate roles, tasks, and performance objectives for appropriate criminal justice positions. Further, careful selection, education, training, and performance evaluation of these personnel are needed in relation to these identified roles, tasks, and performance objectives. Finally, education of the public is necessary so they may participate more usefully in achieving identified objectives.

All of the above activities and findings led to the development, by the California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, of a proposal called Project STAR (an acronym for System and Training Analysis of Requirements for Criminal Justice Participants).

In 1969, Project STAR was identified as a major priority of the California Council on Criminal Justice and discussions were initiated with the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration of the U. S. Department of Justice concerning Project conduct.

Ultimately, these discussions led to the expansion of the Project concept to include additional representative States. Finally, in May of 1971, necessary funds were granted and contracts executed for the initiation of Project STAR.

PURPOSE

Project STAR was designed for the purpose of:

developing attitudes and behavior which will enable criminal justice personnel and the public to achieve the goals and objectives of the criminal justice system more effectively.

OBJECTIVES

Project objectives were:

- To identify roles, tasks, and performance objectives for appropriate criminal justice positions.
- To develop and test training programs for these criminal justice positions that address needs not satisfied by existing training programs.
- To develop educational recommendations for these criminal justice positions and the public that address needs not satisfied by existing educational programs.
- To develop selection criteria and recruiting strategies related to knowledge, skill, and attitudes needed for these criminal justice positions and not currently in use.
- To develop a technique for assessing the impact of social trends on the criminal justice system.
- To develop an implementation plan for all Project end products.

ORGANIZATION

The Project research and development effort has involved the U. S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration; criminal justice planning agencies and operational agencies in four states (California, Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas); and the California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST). The American Justice Institute (with the assistance of System Development Corporation, Field Research Corporation, and special consultants) was responsible for conducting the research and development effort.

Project STAR was governed by a National Advisory Council and Advisory Councils in the participating states composed of representatives from the criminal justice system, the public, higher education, and local and state units of government. Additionally, resource groups representing police, judicial process, corrections, and education and training have been involved since Project inception. A total of some 1500 agencies and 6000 individuals have participated in the Project. A listing of Project Advisory Councils, Resource Groups, and staff is provided in Appendix A.

FUNDING

The \$2.5 million Project was funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (32%), state criminal justice planning agencies (29%), the California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (28%), and in-kind contributions from state and local criminal justice agencies (12%).

TERM

The Project research and development effort began in May of 1971 and ended in November of 1974.

CRIMINAL JUSTICE POSITIONS INVOLVED

The Project research and development effort focused on the criminal justice positions of police officer, prosecuting attorney, defense attorney, judge, caseworker, and correctional worker. Definitions for these positions adopted for the Project are:

Police Officer

Police patrolmen or deputy sheriffs (sworn, full-time, uniformed) who are responsible for basic, primary police functions. This includes automobile and foot patrol officers who respond to calls for assistance and who are also responsible for enforcement of observed violations of law.

Prosecuting Attorney

Prosecuting attorneys who are responsible for primary prosecution of persons alleged to have violated state, county, or local laws or ordinances.

Defense Attorney

Public defenders and, in those jurisdictions not served by a public defender, those private defense attorneys who are appointed by the court to represent persons economically incapable of securing private defense counsel.

Judge

Jurists in trial courts who have jurisdiction over felony and misdemeanor criminal cases, excluding Justice and Appellate Courts, but including Juvenile Court Judges.

Caseworker

(1) Full-time probation officers assigned to presentence/probation investigation or caseload supervision responsibilities for juvenile and adult, felony and misdemeanor cases, serving trial court judges, including juvenile judges.

(2) Full-time parole officers assigned parole plan development responsibilities or caseload supervision of parolees.

Correctional Worker

Full-time custodial personnel staffing county and state correctional facilities which serve either adult, youthful, or juvenile offenders. This position title includes deputy sheriffs staffing county jails and camps; correctional officers in state adult correctional institutions and camps; youth counselors in youth institutions; and group supervisors or other custodial personnel in juvenile halls.

METHOD

Project STAR was designed so that initial effort was focused on the identification of criminal justice roles, tasks, and performance objectives. Then, existing education and training programs were reviewed to identify where education and training requirements were not being fulfilled. Finally, education and training end products were developed based on these research findings. Critical elements involved in this research and development process included:

Definitions of Role, Task, and Performance Objective

After considerable research and discussion, the following definitions for these terms were adopted:

Role

The personal characteristics and behavior expected in a specific situation of an individual occupying a position.

Task

An activity to be accomplished within a role and which usually involves a sequence of steps and which can be measured in relation to time.

Performance Objective

A statement of operational behavior required for satisfactory performance of a task, the conditions under which the behavior is usually performed, and the criteria for satisfactory performance.

Constraints

One constraint was established at the inception of the Project. The National Advisory Council adopted a position that performance objectives for judges would not be established because of constitutional and statutory regulation of judicial proceedings.

Research Methodology

Project STAR research design includes four major research methods: (1) analysis of perceptions through survey techniques; (2) observation of individual performance in the field; (3) search of appropriate literature and data; and (4) expert opinion.

Conceptual Design

To provide a conceptual framework for the research, relevant literature was searched in the fields of role theory, task analysis, and performance evaluation; criminal justice roles, tasks, and performance objectives; and education and training design and evaluation. In addition, three leading scholars of criminal justice identified what they believed were the future roles of the six positions under study. Further, an analysis of social trends was conducted to identify their impact on criminal justice system roles, education, and training.

Initial Interviews

Open-ended interviews of 354 criminal justice personnel and representatives of the public were conducted to identify critical issues and situations in the criminal justice system.

Surveys

Based on the interview results, surveys were conducted to determine how a representative sample of the public in two states (California and Texas) and of the operational criminal justice personnel from the four participating states perceived these issues and situations. Each respondent was asked what specific criminal justice positions should do in a particular situation. They were also asked what these same positions actually would do in these same situations.

Basic Source of Role Identification

These survey responses were then analyzed for each position. Those groups of responses on what behavior should occur in these situations were considered as the initial basis for identifying criminal justice roles.

Those roles identified were then analyzed across position and states. Roles resulting from this process were then subjected to workshops of various levels and types of criminal justice operational personnel in the various states.

Observation of Roles and Tasks

Appropriate representative criminal justice agencies in California were then selected. Staff teams conducted role performance analyses of roles identified during earlier research, as well as associated tasks, during periods of observing various criminal justice personnel (except the judge) on the job in these agencies.

Development of Performance Objectives

Operational performance objectives were then written for all positions, except the judge, based on the empirically derived roles and tasks.

Review and Adoption of Roles, Tasks, and Performance Objectives

At each stage of the research, findings were submitted to professional resource groups in four states experienced in the field of criminal justice, Advisory Councils, and special consultants.

Eventually, this process led to the adoption of roles, tasks, and performance objectives for relevant criminal justice positions based on the research findings.

Research Reports

The results of this basic research are contained in the following Project STAR publications:

- Charles P. Smith, Donald E. Pehlke, and Charles D. Weller, American Justice Institute, Project STAR, Role Performance and the Criminal Justice System, (California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, Sacramento, California, September, 1974).
- Perry E. Rosove and Charles P. Smith, American Justice Institute, Project STAR, The Impact of Social Trends on Crime and Criminal Justice, (California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, Sacramento, California, September, 1974).

Definitions of Education and Training

For Project purposes, the terms education and training were defined as follows:

Education

The acquisition and use of values, intellectual skills, basic knowledge, and understanding of concepts or relationships which enhance independent action.

Training

The acquisition and use of operational knowledge, physical and communications skills, and habits which relate to the performance of structured tasks.

Development of Training Programs

The method for developing the training program involved the following steps:

- analysis of present criminal justice education and training in the four participating states
- assessment of available instructional technology and media
- selection of appropriate training emphasis and strategy

- design of PROTOTYPE training packages that incorporated the desired research findings, training emphasis, and learning strategy
- review of this PROTOTYPE package by operational criminal justice personnel and trainers of various types and at various levels
- development of DEMONSTRATION training packages based on the approved PROTOTYPE design
- approval of the DEMONSTRATION training package and a field evaluation plan by the Project National Advisory Council
- field test of the DEMONSTRATION training packages on representative samples of California police officers, judicial process personnel and corrections personnel for the purpose of:
 - improving the packages
 - making a preliminary assessment of the impact of the packages on the students.
- review of field test results and adoption of recommended changes to the training packages by appropriate resource groups and the National Advisory Council
- development of a PRODUCTION version training program
- development of a plan for training program validation and implementation.

SUMMARY

As can be seen from the above, Project STAR is the most comprehensive effort ever undertaken to identify criminal justice roles, tasks, and performance objectives and, in turn, to develop needed training programs based on these findings.

PROJECT FINDINGS

Significant Project STAR research findings included the following:

LITERATURE SEARCH

Considerable variation of opinion was found in the literature about what was deemed appropriate for criminal justice roles, tasks, and performance objectives. Wide differences of opinion were also found concerning appropriate selection, education, and training for criminal justice personnel.

In addition, the focus of the other research was on individual positions or components of the criminal justice system rather than on the system as a whole. Finally, the literature reflected a considerable gap between what is considered to be "ideal" and what is considered to be "reality."

FUTURIST PAPERS

Themes found in each of the papers written by criminal justice scholars included an estimate that future criminal justice emphasis will be on major crimes, protection of rights, rehabilitation, emergency services, effectiveness, use of informal or negotiated disposition, diversion, and community-based corrections. Each of these factors points to the requirements for improved education and training, measures of effectiveness, and improved availability of information.

SOCIAL TRENDS ANALYSIS

Project research identified 10 social trends (including population growth, urbanization, industrialization, economic affluence, pragmatism, and equality) which have implications for criminal justice roles, objectives, organization, selection, education, and training.

Analysis of these social trends suggests an increasing crime problem during the remainder of the Twentieth Century that the present criminal justice structure is poorly equipped to handle. In addition, these social trends identify the problems of achieving the objectives of the criminal justice system in light of conflicting issues such as assembly-line versus individualized justice, custody versus treatment, and impartiality versus discretion in a rapidly changing society. Finally, the Project identified ways for continued analysis and use of these trends.

PERCEPTIONS

Analysis of the perceptions of the public and operational criminal justice personnel indicates the following:

- Public opinion reflects a higher incidence of crime victimization, fear of crime, and familiarity with the criminal justice system than might be expected; at the same time, public opinion is generally favorable about the effectiveness of the criminal justice structure.
- There is considerable variation in the goals identified for key police, judicial process, and correctional personnel. However, certain common goals surface when goals for the criminal justice system as a whole are identified.
- There is a variation in viewpoint on major social values among the public and operational criminal justice personnel.
- There is a variation in perception of most criminal justice issues among individuals from criminal justice system components, the adult public, and the teenage public.
- There is far greater agreement on desirable criminal justice behavior in specific situations among the public and criminal justice respondents from all involved states and positions than might be anticipated.

ROLES

As noted earlier, roles were defined as "*the personal characteristics and behavior expected in a specific situation of an individual occupying a position.*" Of a total of 17 roles identified for the six positions, 13 were considered system roles in that they applied to multiple positions. Each role was comprised of elements identified through Project research and involved a role description, identifier, and category. For example, the role of "Assisting Personal and Social Development" is described as:

CONTRIBUTING TO THE CONSTRUCTIVE PERSONAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF ADJUDICATED OFFENDERS AND OTHER PERSONS. NOTIFYING APPROPRIATE AUTHORITIES OR INTERVENING WHEN NECESSARY. REACTING HELPFULLY TO PROBLEMS AND AVOIDING COUNTERPRODUCTIVE ACTIONS. INFORMING INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS OF POTENTIAL CONSEQUENCES OF HARMFUL, ANTISOCIAL, AND ILLEGAL BEHAVIOR AND CONDITIONS.

A list of role identifiers for all positions (in alphabetical order by category) is given in Table 1. All role descriptions are contained in Appendix B.

Table 1
Criminal Justice Role
Categories and Identifiers

POSITION ROLE CATEGORY AND ROLE IDENTIFIER	POLICE OFFICER	PROSECUTING ATTORNEY	DEFENSE ATTORNEY	JUDGE	CASEWORKER	CORRECTIONAL WORKER	SYSTEM
<u>Advocate</u>							
Advocating for the Defense			X				
Advocating for the Prosecution		X					
Advocating Effective Judicial Process		X	X	X			
<u>Community and Criminal Justice System Relations</u>							
Assisting Criminal Justice System and Other Appropriate Agency Personnel	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Building Respect for Law and the Criminal Justice System	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Providing Public Assistance	X	X	X		X	X	X
Seeking and Disseminating Knowledge and Understanding	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<u>Information Processing</u>							
Collecting, Analyzing, and Communicating Information	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<u>Management</u>							
Managing Cases	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Managing Judicial Process				X			
<u>Personal and Social Development</u>							
Assisting Personal and Social Development	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<u>Protection of Rights and Dignity</u>							
Displaying Objectivity and Professional Ethics	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Protecting Rights and Dignity of Individuals	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Providing Humane Treatment	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<u>Protection of Society</u>							
Enforcing Law Impartially	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Enforcing Law Situationally	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Maintaining Order	X				X	X	X

TASKS

A task was defined as an "activity to be accomplished within a role and which usually involves a sequence of steps and which can be measured in relation to time." Of a total of 52 tasks identified for all six positions, 35 were considered system tasks in that they applied to multiple positions. Each task, including a title and a specific description, was associated with one or more positions. For example, as shown in Table 2, all positions were associated with the task of "Reviewing Case Materials."

Table 2

Example of Criminal Justice
Task Title and Task Description

TASK AND TASK DESCRIPTION	POSITION						
	POLICE OFFICER	PROSECUTING ATTORNEY	DEFENSE ATTORNEY	JUDGE	CASEWORKER	CORRECTIONAL WORKER	SYSTEM
<u>Reviewing Case Materials:</u> Examines information contained in probation reports or in suspect's or offender's case file, such as psychiatric reports and recommendations from interested persons.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

All tasks and task descriptions for all positions are listed in alphabetical order in Appendix C.

ROLE AND TASK RELATIONSHIPS

Relationships between roles and tasks were established through Project research for appropriate positions. Findings indicated that, for each position,:

- each role involved the performance of several tasks
- each task involved the performance of more than one role.

PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES

As noted earlier, performance objectives were defined as "*statements of operational behavior required for satisfactory performance of a task, the conditions under which the behavior is usually performed, and the criteria for satisfactory performance.*"

Wherever research showed that a role involved the performance of a task, a performance objective was prepared. This resulted in the development of a total of 831 performance objectives for all positions except judge (where, as noted earlier, none were prepared).

In addition, the Project developed general statements for each position that describe the context in which each position works (i.e., the location and persons involved), the persons who may evaluate their performance, and the possible measurement techniques to be employed.

It is important to note that these performance objectives are associated with actual performance for appropriate positions in the operational setting. This differs from the "terminal performance objectives" in the education and training field which are typically associated with the desired achievement of a student in a training environment on the questionable assumption that operational performance will be consistent with training performance.

An example of a performance objective developed for the position of police officer in relation to the role of "Building Respect for Law and the Criminal Justice System" and the task of "Controlling Crowds" indicates that the police officer should:

be able to control verbal and physical actions with members of crowds in order to maintain disciplined performance and engender respect for the law. Performance evaluation may involve criteria such as the ability of the officer to maintain discipline, appropriateness of the officer's reaction to the crowd's activities, ability to avoid verbal and physical abuse of participants and observers, avoidance of unnecessary arrests, and ability to maintain peaceful conditions.

Quantitative measures and criteria can be established at the local level on what is considered to be satisfactory (or unsatisfactory) individual or agency performance in relation to each objective.

SYSTEM RELATIONSHIPS

As will be seen from review of the Project STAR findings on criminal justice roles and tasks, there is great similarity of roles and tasks among the six positions. For Project purposes, a role or task was considered a "system" role or task if it applied to "one or more positions in two or more criminal justice components." Analysis shows that:

- thirteen of the 17 roles met the criteria of being a "system" role
- eleven of the 17 roles applied to all six positions
- thirty-five of the 52 tasks met the criterion of being a "system" task
- eight of the 52 tasks applied to all six positions.

Of course, the way in which these roles and tasks related to each position varied somewhat. This variation is reflected in the performance objectives.

POTENTIAL ROLE CONFLICT

Project findings indicate that the performance of some tasks potentially involves conflict among desired roles. For example, when performing the task of "advising" clients, the defense attorney must simultaneously perform the following roles (among others):

- Advocating for the defense
- Assisting criminal justice and other appropriate agency personnel
- Building respect for law and the criminal justice system
- Assisting personal and social development
- Displaying objectivity and professional ethics
- Protecting rights and dignity of all individuals.

EXISTING EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

Analysis of the data collected by Project STAR on existing criminal justice education and training in participating states (in

accordance with the definitions of these terms adopted by the Project) indicated that:

- Police officers and correctional workers received very little direct job-related education prior to their employment; and, thus, were almost entirely dependent on training (by their employing agency).
- Caseworkers and judicial process positions received very little direct job-related training after their employment; and thus were almost entirely dependent on education (received prior to their employment from colleges, universities, and professional schools).
- Training provided to police officers and correctional workers focused on orientation to the organization, criminal law, tasks, processes, and skills.
- Training techniques used for police officers and correctional workers generally involved lectures, reading assignments, demonstrations, and skill practice. In some cases, innovative training techniques and instructional technology were used.
- The minimal training provided to the caseworkers and judicial process personnel generally focused on orientation to the organization and processes.
- Training techniques used for caseworkers and judicial process personnel were generally lectures and discussion groups, although some innovative use of instructional techniques and technology were employed.
- Education provided to caseworkers and judicial process positions focused on their professional discipline.
- Education of caseworkers and judicial process personnel was basically communicated through traditional academic methods of research, lecture, and discussion. Some simulation of real situations was noted (e.g., moot courts) and field experience was provided to some casework candidates.
- None of the education or training provided needed understanding of the complex roles for each position or for the criminal justice system.

Considerable difficulty was found during the data collection and analysis in really separating "education" from "training." Most agencies or institutions contacted seemed to be doing a little of both (according to Project definition).

SUMMARY

Project STAR research initially identified considerable discrepancy concerning what key criminal justice personnel were supposed to do in their jobs. However, the Project was able to develop workable definitions and use effective research techniques to identify roles, tasks, and performance objectives for the six major criminal justice positions. In addition, system relationships and potential conflicts among these roles were identified.

Further, it was determined that present education and training in participating states was oriented to specialized knowledge, tasks, and skills. No comprehensive education or training in criminal justice roles was found.