



Law Enforcement Executive
FORUM

Recruitment

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Editorial

There is no doubt that intellectual skills and a knowledge of fundamentals of law, as well as strong practical skills, are important aspects of police officers' daily lives. As we enter the 21st century, police are faced with an ever increasing array of new and complex challenges in all of these areas. Recruitment, selection, and training assist police departments in responding with enhanced effectiveness to a wide variety of social and legal conditions in society.

This issue of the *Illinois Law Enforcement Executive Forum* presents a number of responses to new challenges in police recruitment, selection, and training for the present and in the future.

Articles are written by law enforcement executives and academics about issues faced by many police departments in Illinois and even abroad.

We hope that the following information can assist law enforcement administrators throughout the state in improving professionalism among police officers.

Comments concerning this new publication are welcomed. Sharing the firsthand experience of law enforcement professionals and academics is one of the main goals of the *Executive Forum*.

Thomas J. Jurkanin, PhD
Executive Director
Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board

News from the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board

The Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board (ILETSB) will convene its quarterly meeting in Alsip on September 12 and 13, 2001. ILETSB will be reviewing training activity over the past three months. One of the training highlights has been the three summit offerings, examining the issues surrounding the reality and perceptions of biased-based enforcement and racial profiling. Summits were held at Rend Lake, Arlington Heights, and Springfield. Approximately 125 law enforcement executives attended each session, were involved in dynamic discussions, and heard a variety of ideas and opinions on the issues. A summary of issues raised during the deliberations will be published. Those attending received an Executive Tool Box containing model policies, operations check lists, sample "best practices," and training recommendations.

A successful three-day professional development conference for law enforcement trainers was hosted at Western Illinois University under U.S. Department of Justice funds granted through the Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority. Approximately 100 trainers attended and benefitted from the advanced instructor training format.

ILETSB's Police Corps Academy project graduated the first class in late August. Fourteen cadets will be placed in Illinois law enforcement agencies. Recruiting continues for the formation of a new class in spring of 2002. Marketing continues for recruiting candidates for the ILETSB's Law Enforcement Intern Program. ILETSB staff members have attended college career days and promoted both programs at the Illinois State Fair government exhibit.

The next board meeting will be December 5 and 6, 2001 in Chicago.

Fishing in a Shallow Pool: Statewide Summit on Issues Related to Police Recruitment

Thomas J. Jurkanin, PhD
Robert J. Fischer, PhD
Vladimir A. Sergevnin, PhD

Acknowledgments

On March 20-22, 2001, the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board (ILETSB) through its Executive Institute held a statewide summit on issues related to police recruitment at Rend Lake Resort in Whittington, Illinois. The following material summarizes the work of more than 100 law enforcement professionals, representing police management and labor and local government officials. It is impossible to thank them all.

The following individuals deserve particular acknowledgement for their leadership:

- Larry Hoover, PhD, JUSTEX Systems, Inc., researched the issue of recruitment and suggested direction for solutions.
- Steve Stanard, PhD, Stanard and Associates, reported on trends and suggested the use of the internet to streamline the application process.
- Lewis Bender, PhD, Organizational Consultants, facilitated the entire summit.

This report is the work of many people. Their comments contributed greatly to the substance and structure of the report, and they have our sincere gratitude for their work and willingness to share ideas. Major contributors include the following individuals:

- Steve Cox, PhD, Professor, Western Illinois University
- Ken Durkin, Associate Professor, Western Illinois University
- John Janssen, ASSIST Program Manager, Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board
- Patrick Vaughan, Deputy Director, Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board
- Gary Turner, Director, Illinois Police Corps

Introduction

This report is the result of an informal multi-agency exchange of ideas and opinions among law enforcement executives and academics from around the State of Illinois in an effort to explore and help improve law enforcement recruitment practices. It also reflects a dynamic discussion among law enforcement officers and representatives of local governments and police unions.

Although it has been the experience of many agencies that the process of recruiting and hiring new officers presents an array of challenges, it is obvious that there are solutions. We hope that this report serves as a guide for police agencies as they look for solutions to current recruiting problems. The report contains both theoretical and practical information for police recruitment. Best practices are discussed in a later section of this report.

Scope of the Problem

The problem of police recruitment has been widely covered by the media. Until recently, current police administrators and recruiters have never had a problem attracting large numbers of candidates. Hoover (2001) lists four core questions in contemplating factors affecting police recruitment:

- Is it the economy?
- Is it the occupation's prestige?
- Is it working conditions, the job itself?
- Are we our own worst enemy?

The Economy

Dr. Hoover concludes that it is all four factors but particularly the economy. The other three issues are complicated by the first. In times of plenty, people will not tolerate the conditions that they will in times of need. Government employment, in this case, law enforcement, offers job security. In good economic times, other jobs in the private sector might offer more attractive salaries.

His argument is sound as unemployment is at a 30-year low. The economy appears to be healthy despite the ups and downs of the stock market.

Occupational Prestige

Dr. Hoover also presents a case for a career that has been highly regarded and honored, but also one that many people would not choose as a career. He notes that on a survey of 100 prevalent occupations, citizens consistently rank law enforcement in the bottom half of occupations. In addition, recent media coverage of law enforcement has included the infamous Rodney King incident, the Amadou Diallo case from New York, and the New Jersey issue of racial profiling, to name only a few of the high profile incidents. This type of press coverage has done little to enhance the prestige of the profession.

Working Conditions

While police work offers job stability, it has a “seedy” side. Many young police recruits suffer cultural shock when first immersed in the world of police work that includes crime; homicide; drunks; child abuse; and homeless, battered, and broken people. The shock is real. Police officers operate in society’s alleys and are constantly exposed to the worst of human behavior.

The police environment has not changed dramatically over the past few decades. Police agencies are viewed as conservative and traditional and are not proactive in changing the working environment. The 24/7/365 nature of the job also impacts upon one’s decision to apply for a police position. Police officers must be on duty, regardless of the day or time. Police must work on Christmas, New Year’s Day, and the Fourth of July. Weekend and holiday work and rotating shifts are an expectation. Shifts don’t respect personal and family schedules, and officers often miss out on family fun and responsibilities. The police occupation does not look like a modern 21st century job.

Internal conditions also play a role in making the profession difficult. Recent polls indicate that police officers’ number-one concern in the workplace is management support. Officers report that they have little faith that their supervisors will support them when political pressure is a factor in the decisionmaking process. Officers are often put on suspension with pay pending the outcome of investigations of complaints, whether valid or not.

Are We Our Own Worst Enemy?

While the preceding discussion has focused on issues over which law enforcement officials have only minimal control, there are areas in the recruiting process where law enforcement can make a substantial change. Currently, the hiring process is often frustrating, time intensive, and demeaning to applicants. According to a recent ILETSB report (Taylor, 2001), the average amount of time involved in the application to hiring is 20 weeks. In some cases, Taylor reported that the process takes up to two years. While police agencies should not make it easier to qualify for a police position, it is possible to make the process less time consuming, cumbersome, and frustrating. In a 2001 report, Durkin indicated that recent law enforcement graduates from the Law Enforcement and Justice Administration program at Western Illinois University, believe that the testing process is inconvenient and arbitrary.

Five Conundrums

Having presented the four core questions, Hoover sets out five conundrums for police administrators as they strive to find solutions to the problem.

1. To increase the occupation’s prestige, we will have to raise standards, but raising standards impedes recruitment even more.
2. Police agencies should reflect the racial, gender, and ethnic composition of the communities they serve, but many selection standards have disparate impact upon ethnic minorities.

3. Preventing and ferreting out abusive police practices requires aggressive internal monitoring, but aggressive internal monitoring is a primary negative job characteristic.
4. Family friendly policies are needed to attract and retain quality personnel, particularly women, but family friendly policies wreak havoc with responsive patrol deployment and scheduling.
5. Real change can only occur by changing the profession, but the profession consists of thousands of autonomous agencies employing 1 to 35,000 officers in special districts, villages, cities, counties, states, and federal agencies.

The Search for Solutions

The following pages offer suggestions and possible solutions to some of these questions. The summit participants felt that agencies, over time, can change the relative prestige of the profession and some of the internal issues that impact career choice. Police agencies can do a better job of reaching groups that they have not attracted in the past and do a better job with their traditional job markets. Agencies using new methods of recruitment can make police applicants feel more welcome at the point of job inquiry and throughout the process.

As Hoover (2001) concluded, "To do these things, however, many agencies will have to change their mindset. Today's generation of young people is not going to respond to an attitude of 'It's a privilege to work here.' Their skills are being sought by other organizations. . . . It is unreasonable to expect of them that they will respond to platitudes about life-long loyalty to an organization. From their worldview, organizations are not loyal to their employees, so why should the reverse be true" (p. 5).

The world of the 21st century is different. Technology is dominant. To attract the best and brightest, police agencies need to consider techniques used by competitive private corporations.

Problems in Traditional Recruitment Practices

Increasingly, the issue of police recruitment has become a concern for local law enforcement agencies nationwide. The labor pool for police agencies appears to be shrinking. For example, over 31,000 applicants signed up to take the New York City Police recruiting test in 1996. Three years later, the number of applicants had dropped to 14,600 (Brandon, 2000, p. 37). Chicago has a similar issue. In 1991, 32,000 individuals took the police examination. By 1999, that number had declined to only 5,000 (Main, 2000). In Maricopa County, Arizona, the number declined from 1,454 in 1996 to 791 in 1998 (Swope, 1999, 32-34). And, again, in Illinois the Northwestern Municipal Consortium representing eight Chicago suburban communities reported that their number declined from 1,465 in 1997 to only 600 in 2000 (Gausselin, 2001).

Many other agencies are also discovering that demographic and economic changes have resulted in a dwindling pool of qualified candidates. In many instances, applicant pools are down over 50% from a few years ago.

Why are potential candidates for employment not attracted to policing? The following seven possible reasons surfaced during the summit:

1. Economy

- Low entry-level salaries for police officers are not competitive with other jobs.
- Access to disadvantaged and minority candidates is limited by traditional recruiting methods.
- Budgets for recruiting and advertising are usually restricted.

2. Marketing

- Police departments don't market themselves well.
- Police departments are competing against each other.
- Traditional law enforcement image—male-oriented, a job that requires only physical strength, discrimination images, racial profiling, brutality, corruption, etc.

3. The Hiring Process

- The process is too complicated and too long.
- Residency requirements limit the number of eligible candidates.
- Educational requirements are too high or too low.
- Applications are not standardized.
- Each agency has a repetitive application process.
- Upper age restrictions (i.e., 34) are not reasonable in today's world.
- There tends to be an inherently demeaning selection process.
- Testing is a long and frustrating process; private sector does not test employees so extensively (e.g., arbitrary written test, physical agility testing, drug testing, psychological testing, background checks).

4. High Turnover (This is especially true in small departments, which lose officers to larger agencies.)

5. Low Retention Rates of Quality Applicants

6. Internal and Social Environment

- Police work is not healthy. The internal environment is stressful.
- There is a risk of civil liability and baseless accusations.
- Typically, there is an intrusion of the department into the officer's personal life.
- There is a lack of good mentors in the police department.
- Career development is not satisfactory.
- Lower class subculture—traditionally, police have come from lower levels of the middle class, but work with the lower class.
- Working hours are not conducive to good family relations.
- There is a low level of interaction with professional colleagues.
- The profession may cause the officer to feel isolated.
- Humiliation can be a part of the job.
- Disciplinary procedures are too strict.

7. Job Design

- Demands of the job are different from expectations.

Police professionals believe that the biggest factor influencing candidate dropout is the lack of awareness of the real job task requirements prior to testing procedures.

External Factors Impacting Police Recruitment

While internal variables certainly play a role in retaining qualified applicants, external factors may have a greater impact on attracting and maintaining a qualified pool of police applicants. Among these external factors, as identified by the summit participants, are the following:

- Candidates may be unable to pass written entrance examinations.
- Reading comprehension, vocabulary, and writing skills are the most difficult areas of the police examination (Brandon, 2000).
- Some representatives from ethnic minority groups are disadvantaged during the testing process because English is a second language.
- There is a lack of trust in police.
- We are losing applicants in the 18- to 21-year age category due to increased problems with drugs and other criminal behaviors.

- There is increased competition from the private sector and military.
- Local government coordination of the hiring process is less than desirable. Commission personnel are often from the civilian community. They do not understand the needs of police agencies.
- There is little support for recruitment from the community.
- In some communities, the applicant pool is down as much as 80% since 1990
- The applicant pool that does exist may be of poor quality
- In 2000, there was a low unemployment rate of 4.3% for the State of Illinois.

It is interesting that for the most part, summit participants focused on internal problems rather than external ones. Since the summit attendees focused on internal issues, it is worth considering how police departments traditionally recruit.

The Traditional Recruitment Model

How do police departments identify and recruit the best possible candidates? Traditional recruitment models focus on attracting the largest possible pool of candidates from which a few candidates are eventually selected. The major concern of most departments is that the pool of candidates is shrinking. This “funnel” process of hiring has been so engrained in the police tradition, that administrators do not see the fallacy in their concern about falling numbers of applicants. In the funnel process, large numbers of applicants are screened with many applicants being eliminated due to any variety of factors. Among these are the following:

- Failure on the written examination
- Failure on the physical agility test
- Failure of a physical examination
- Failure of a psychological examination
- Failure of a lie detection test
- Failure of a drug test
- Failure of a background check
- Poor performance in an interview process

This winnowing process is difficult to manage and is expensive. Accepting large numbers of applicants translates into high testing costs. Taking a large number of applicants also requires that police agencies involve themselves in a complex logistical planning process to assure a fair and accessible testing outcome. The irony of the entire process is that there is still no guarantee that the final candidates will in fact be the best applicants.

Traditional Recruitment Techniques

In the tried and true tradition, most police departments continue to believe that the best method of reaching potential applicants is through advertisement in newspapers and law enforcement publications. According to a study conducted by the Los Angeles Police Department, this is no longer the case. According to this

study, police officers, relatives, and friends are the best sources for recruiting. This reflects the belief that officers and their associates know the most about the job and can relate realistically to potential candidates (Bennett & Hess, 1996).

Other traditional methods being used by police agencies include the following:

- Brochures
- Advertisements on television or radio programs
- Mass mailings, faxes, and e-mails
- Focus on special interest groups such as neighborhoods, social groups, political groups, and minority groups
- Public service announcements on television and radio
- Participation in college career fairs
- Requests to college placement offices
- Referrals from current employees (Roberg & Kuykendall, 1997)

These methods are generally anonymous and distant. Current thought is that the recruitment must be personal and face-to-face.

Labor Market Trends in 2001

The industrial revolution brought about many changes in the labor/management mix. Organizations of this early era became more “paternalistic,” taking care of their employees by providing such benefits as health insurance, retirement pensions; organizing social functions and activities; and providing other rewards for company loyalty, such as bonuses, watches, plaques, and dinners. Workers strongly believed that hard work and loyalty would be exchanged for promotions and job security (Pulley, 1997).

Private businesses, ever concerned with profit and a new technological revolution that values brains over brawn, have shattered these beliefs. During the 1980s and 1990s, private industry began terminating employees who were approaching retirement age rather than face the prospect of incurring retirement costs. Attitudes of employers and employees alike are changing. Hard work and loyalty are not the predominate interests of new generation employees (Generation X and Millennial) for a variety of reasons.

Much has been written about Generation X employees (born between the mid-1960s and the late 1970s). Of importance in this discussion is recognition that computers, music, movies, mass media, and television have influenced expectations. As discussed in the literature, they are generally self-reliant, informal, skeptical, independent, and casual in their approach to authority. Individuals in this generation do not expect to have a lifetime career and prefer jobs that are stimulating, challenging, and flexible. They do not like strict work environments.

While there has been less written of the Millennial or Net Generation (born between 1977 and 1997), we know that this cohort has been influenced by technology, especially computers. They know more about technology than their parents and bosses. They expect a high level of technological resources and support in the workplace. Some researchers have characterized this group as endlessly independent and focused on investigation (Green, 2000).

To complicate the changing demographics and associated attitudes of the new labor market is a labor market which is very dynamic. Job turnover rates are at an all-time high. According to the 2000-2001 edition of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, the labor market of the future will become increasingly diverse and older. The Bureau of Labor Statistics reported the following:

- The number of workers age 25-34 is expected to drop nine percent between 1996 and 2006.
- The number of workers 46-65 will rise 40%.
- By 2020, one in six Americans will be 65 or older, compared to one in eight today (Challenger, 2000).
- Jobs will require higher levels of education.
- An alarming number of young people will not be qualified for new jobs because they don't have the needed education or skills.
- Women and minorities will account for the largest proportion of the workforce.
- The number of women earning four-year college degrees surged 44% over the last two decades to 56% of all college graduates in 1999.
- The number of men earning four-year degrees fell six percent between 1993 to 1999.
- The average length of time an employee stays on the job will continue to decline.
- The employee market is shifting to self-employment, free agency, and temporary work (Green, 2000).

Other trends and predictions include the following:

- According to the American Society for Training and Development (1998), 99% of workers surveyed want more training from their supervisors.
- Employers will turn to "new employee benefit offers" that will provide for balance between office and personal time—telecommuting, alternative working hours, compressed weekends, flex time, shorter work weeks.
- The average person is likely to make more than ten job changes and five career changes in a lifetime.

Job seekers are moving into an employees' market. The total number of jobs will increase rapidly. The most rapid area of expansion will be in the service industry, which includes law enforcement. For young perspective employees, there will be more choice and variety in the labor market. It is anticipated that a career in law enforcement, as viewed from a traditional point of view, will become less attractive. Police work is considered "old fashioned," too restrictive, and conservative. Skills

gained for police work are not transportable to other job markets. In addition, the times when our youth dreamed of military and paramilitary careers are over.

As Generation Xers began entering the labor market, they logically were in line to replace Baby Boomers; however, there are currently 78 million Boomers and only 58 million Xers. Complicating this already large disparity is another disturbing trend. In 1970, two of 1,000 adults were in prison or jail. By 1998, the number had increased to nine in 1,000 (Katz & Drueger, 1999). In terms of law enforcement careers, this means that there are less potential candidates because of criminal background problems. For example, in 1999 Detroit Police Department's recruiting drive yielded 287 viable candidates out of 1,200 applicants. The top disqualifier was prior conviction (Howard, O'Donnell, & Stevenson, 1999).

Labor Market Trends in Law Enforcement

According to the 2000-2001 edition of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, employment of police officers and detectives is expected to increase 21 to 35% through 2008. A more security-conscious society and concern about drug-related crimes should contribute to the increasing demand for police services. At the local and state levels, growth is likely to continue as long as public safety is a predominate issue. Some of the positive growth may be tempered by continuing budgetary constraints of local government. Still, as the hiring frenzy that came with federal dollars in the late 1960s and early 1970s, a large cadre of police officers will retire and will need to be replaced.

Factors Influencing Individuals in the Selection of a Law Enforcement Career

The following factors, influencing the selection of law enforcement as a job choice, listed from most frequently mentioned to least frequently mentioned were reported by Slater and Reiser in a 1988 study:

- Job variety (69.4%)
- High level of responsibility (51.6%)
- Public service (49%)
- Adventure (47.1%)
- Security (43.3%)
- Pay (43.3%)
- Benefits (35%)
- Advancement (32.5%)
- Retirement benefits (22.3%)
- Prestige (15.3%)

Other authors believe that the two main factors that play a key role in attracting individuals to law enforcement are: (1) the ability to help others and (2) a desire to serve the community (Campbell, 2000).

The perception of many police departments is that "we are not doing enough," or "we are doing something wrong." The reality is simple—for decades, police departments have not changed the way that they recruit. Today's prospective recruit looks at the job market differently than his or her parents did. Tried and true methods of the past may

not be of value in recruiting today's candidate pool. Police departments have to think "outside the box" and beyond the traditional methods of recruiting.

New Models and Strategies for the 21st Century

A Smaller But Better Qualified Pool

Rather than continue the costly process of "funneling" candidates to find the best, departments should develop new models that target and nurture those candidates who possess identified desirable characteristics. The overall paradigm shift should be from taking on all applicants leftover from private sector recruiting, to cultivating and breeding a new generation of candidates who are oriented toward a career in police work.

Traditional Recruitment: “Gathering from Social Fields”	Innovative Recruitment: “Cultivating and Breeding New Seeds”
Reactive – to recruit those who are responding	Proactive – cultivating and breeding candidates in many social groups by different strategies; at elementary, secondary, and high school levels to develop programs which will help young students to identify at early stages their own professional orientation toward criminal justice (Those graduating with excellence from “youth police academies” will receive priority in entering a police career.)
Passive – to wait for those who will apply	Aggressive – direct personal contact with potential candidates; active search for them. To meet those who may apply, or whom we’ll convince to apply; to “domesticate,” from early ages, kids who see themselves in a police career
General and formal requirements for targeting young candidates	Modifying applicant requirements; specific requirements to target potential groups from all social strata, gender, and age
Close, formal, and anonymous system of information	Open (Internet), personal (professional recruiters), informal system of information
Low level of preservice training	High level of preservice training, cultivating criminal justice programs in colleges and universities in the direction of “education-training” continuum; to develop analog of criminal justice courses/programs in secondary and high schools
Decentralized, department-specific recruitment efforts and procedures	Centralized, standardized procedures, recruitment centers (or units); regional or statewide consortiums; multigovernmental and departmental budgeting

Traditional Recruitment: “Gathering from Social Fields”	Innovative Recruitment: “Cultivating and Breeding New Seeds”
No professional orientation in the schools and families	Professional orientation in the secondary and high schools; utilizing D.A.R.E. programs for the police department benefit; involving parents in “citizens police academies” to develop attractive and desirable image of the PD in families
Orientation to a lifetime career	Orientation to lifetime career in criminal justice sector of the society in general and short-term career in the law enforcement agencies; to sponsor university education among police officers with the purpose of helping them to climb into better social strata. Don’t make them feel “handcuffed” with police officer career. Promote lateral movement.
Full-time job orientation	Full-time plus (in or out law enforcement agency)/part-time (in or out law enforcement agency) job orientation; To stimulate outside PD employment through free of charge training (e.g., computer training)
Orientation on occupational career	Orientation on professional career in criminal justice system in general. Law enforcement career as “one of the steps” in lifetime “climb”
Few steps in career; rare and slow promotions	Many steps in career; to develop more structural steps and positions in the police agencies; system of quick promotions and alternative work assignment.
Training	Training and education—Encourage lifelong career advancement.
Oriented in “get rid of” those who do not fit	Oriented in finding and keeping the best
No plan	Develop both short- and long-term recruiting plans

New Strategies—Building Bridges with the Government

Police agencies need to initiate a police recruitment information campaign with local and state government. This campaign needs to bring attention to the recruitment problem with emphasis on the changes that law enforcement proposes. Such a campaign should include the publication of brochures, articles, posters, public service announcements, and reports. A subcommittee of the Summit participants recommended a statewide Police Recruitment Committee composed of law enforcement and government representatives including the following:

- Criminal justice dignitaries and practitioners
- Recruiters from various departments
- Veteran law enforcement officers
- Law enforcement executives
- Private citizens
- Representatives from hiring bodies

Other strategies include the following:

- Radio and television promotions
- Use of the World Wide Web for advertising
- Addressing the issue of recruiting problems through forums and focus groups
- Forming community partnerships with
 - Youth groups
 - Minority representatives
 - Civil groups
 - Church groups
 - Political allies
- Encouraging police officers to teach at local colleges and universities (McKeever & Kranda, 2000).
- Using D.A.R.E. and school resource officers to launch a long-term recruitment ideology focused on school children
- Encouraging law enforcement executives to mention new recruiting ideologies whenever appropriate while giving public presentations
- Selling the law enforcement image
- Establishing Mobile, Selection and Recruiting and Training Units (MSRTUs)
- Recruiting and training recruiters
- Developing individual police department marketing-recruitment plans

- Developing social programs for police departments
- Streamlining application and employment processes
- Sponsoring higher education programs for future police officers
- Developing specific programs to recruit women and minorities
- Sponsoring departmental open houses and/or police citizen academies
- Internships
- Job fairs
- Cadet programs
- Recruiting through high schools
- Implementing Boy Scout Explorer programs in law enforcement through the high schools
- Implementing statewide testing with a central clearinghouse
- Providing incentives for veteran police officers to get involved in recruiting
- Providing incentives for joining a particular type of agency in need
- Developing special programs targeted toward youth
- Incentives for new recruits
 - Signing bonus
 - Tuition reimbursement
 - Child-care
 - Health club membership
 - Flex benefit packages
 - Flex hours
 - Job variety
 - Specialized training
 - Paid continuing education

The Importance of Good Recruiters

Although traditional advertisements and other recruiting tools bring perspective police officers to the department's attention, "individual attention and treatment" has proven to yield greater numbers in retention than impersonal processing of paperwork. A good look at military recruiting strategies should serve as an example for police agencies. Recruiters need to be bright, articulate, and energetic. Recruiters should reflect the type of applicant desired. Female and minority recruiters should be involved in the recruitment of these underrepresented groups. Recruiters should be well-educated and well-informed of departmental goals and objectives. They need to be able to sell your department. Incentives offered by the department, such as specialized training, diversified job choices, and advancement

opportunities, need to be stressed. What makes your community and department different or better than others?

While professional recruiters are desirable, every department should recognize that each employee is a potential advertisement for the agency. Officers who do not represent the agency well may in fact discourage police applicants. On the other hand, the professional officer who takes pride in his or her livelihood, can be a very effective recruiting tool.

Strategies for Recruiting Women and Minorities

Summit participants were quick to point out that the terms “women” and “minorities” are not mutually exclusive. Recruiters should be actively recruiting all types of people; however, recruiters report that it is difficult to attract women or racial/ethnic minorities despite their “best efforts.” The group went on to identify some possible reasons for this difficulty:

- Recruitment is not being conducted in the right places.
- The department may not be a good “fit.”
- The “comfort level” necessary for successful recruitment may be missing.

Summit participants suggested that the right places to recruit minorities and women are in high schools and colleges (including traditionally minority and women’s colleges). Use of the Internet and publications aimed at women and minorities also should be targeted. Cooperative ventures with organizations such as NOBLE, NAWLE, and NALEE are encouraged.

Summit participants also noted that even with the best recruiting efforts, the department needs to work for a “good fit.” This factor also ties to the third issue—“comfort level.” Communities that have not traditionally hired protected classes of people may find it difficult to encourage that one, first person to accept a position, and even if a minority is hired, the individual may not feel comfortable. Issues such as family comfort levels and feelings of safety are important to consider. Often the issue comes down to a simple question, “If you want me so badly, why do I not feel welcome?”

Solutions that might potentially alleviate these problems were also discussed. Police agencies must recognize and work with community resources. These resources may include churches, civic associations, women’s groups, and ethnic associations. Targeting youth through programs at high schools that may include “career academies” and cadet programs will pay dividends.

In recognizing the problem of testing failures, summit participants suggested that “pre-test” programs be considered. These programs would help candidates by familiarizing them with testing procedures that may be unknown to them.

Finally, it was noted that police agencies *must* address negative images and perceptions created by allegations of racial profiling and biased enforcement. The only effective way of accomplishing this is to eliminate discriminatory practices

both within the agency and in dealings with the public. Police recruiters should deal with traditional stereotypes and communicate openly about the department's intent in addressing these issues. In order to convince women and minorities to apply for police positions, recruiters must be able to ensure fairness in employment and enforcement practices.

The following points summarize much of the above and identify additional points for consideration by law enforcement executives and city policymakers:

- Conduct a self-assessment of your organization's climate (i.e., is it welcoming, supportive, and encouraging to employees who are different?).
- Establish personal and professional relationships with community-based organizations, ministerial alliances, neighborhood groups, churches, boys clubs, YWCA, etc.
- Solicit assistance from organizations such as Hispanic Illinois State Law Enforcement Association (HISLEA), National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE), Asian American Law Enforcement Association (AALEA), Association of Black Law Enforcement Officers (ABLE), National Association of Women Law Enforcement Officers (NAWLE), etc.
- "Hot Link" (your agency's website) to historically and predominantly black colleges and universities.
- Make recruitment visits to minority student centers at colleges and universities.
- Establish and/or diversify explorer posts.
- Sponsor career academies and/or career orientation at your police department.
- Utilize women and minority officers who are alumna of high schools, colleges, and universities to return to their alma mater (in uniform) to tell first hand about their career.

Some Examples of Best Practices

While a number of agencies have moved away from traditional recruiting and testing techniques, only a few will be discussed in this brief overview. The Rockford Police Department has developed a proactive recruiting process. They have established a single point of contact. Simple recruiting brochures clearly explain the Rockford recruitment process, and all tests (written and physical) are conducted in a single day. Rockford has also developed ties with the community's ministerial alliance in an effort to attract more minority candidates.

Other communities like Palatine and Schaumburg are encouraging their officers to get involved in recruiting by offering a recruiting bonus of \$500. Some communities have recognized that recruiting advertisements must reach 21st century standards and have made extensive use of the Internet. Elgin reports that as many as 15% of their applicants are now coming from their website. According to the Taylor study, 30% of Illinois departments surveyed are now using the Internet in some fashion.

Elgin has also experimented successfully with the use of an “open house” during holiday seasons when college students are home. Waukegan Police Department utilizes its successful D.A.R.E. program to send recruiting materials home to parents. In addition, Waukegan has been successful in promoting its department through the use of on-campus testing of college students. Other agencies participate in university law enforcement/criminal justice internship programs that allow the student and the department an opportunity to get to know each other. The Springfield Police Department has developed a very successful Explorer Post, exposing young people to the police culture in their teen years. In addition, Springfield has also developed an outreach program to the military and attends their job fairs. Other initiatives in Springfield worth mentioning include the following:

- Lateral entry
- No residency requirement
- A public safety academy in the high school for juniors and seniors
- Continuous entry
- Mortgage assistance

The Illinois State Police is sending officers back to their alma maters to do onsite recruiting and testing. They have developed a CD for distribution, promoting the Illinois State Police organization. The State Police also makes good use of their own officers working with internal associations to attract qualified minority applicants. The agency has also developed an applicant follow-up process wherein field recruiters personally contact applicants.

Another initiative that has had some success in suburban areas is the recruitment consortium. Two consortium groups were represented at the summit: (1) Southwest Illinois Consortium and (2) the Northwestern Consortium. The consortium allows applicants to complete one application and testing process for employment in a number of communities. The Southwest Consortium represent five communities while the Northwestern Consortium represents 30 communities.

NOBLE was also a major contributor to the summit, presenting ideas concerning the recruitment of minorities. NOBLE representatives specifically discussed the importance of minority career fairs; co-op programs; and good, honest communication.

ILETSB's Current Activities and Possible Future Roles

ILETSB was encouraged by Summit participants to take an active leadership role in addressing statewide recruiting issues. ILETSB has already done so in the establishment of two new programs. The first is the Illinois Police Internship Program. The second is the Illinois Police Corps Project. The Internship Program allows qualified citizens to attend Basic Police Training at any of the participating Board Certified Basic Training Academies. The individuals are responsible for the costs associated with screening and testing and course tuition costs. The

Police Corps is a federally funded program that provides scholarships to qualified individuals interested in pursuing a career in law enforcement. The Police Corps Academy is much longer than the traditional basic academies, 24 weeks compared to the required 10 weeks. All recruits are required to complete a bachelor's degree as well as the 24-week academy. These recruits must commit to four years of service with an Illinois police agency when they graduate.

While both initiatives are established, both are relatively new. The Police Corps program is only in its second year; however, the Corps currently has 33 active recruits. Fourteen will report for employment to Illinois police agencies in August 2001. The Internship program now in its third year has had limited response. There are few individuals who have chosen to pay their own way through an academy, when they can get hired in today's employee's market and have the hiring agency not only pay for the academy experience, but also pay their salary while in study. Options of shifting the costs back to the police agencies are being considered. In a recent ILETSB survey, over 33% of law enforcement executives indicated that they would be willing to support basic training costs for recruits if they could avoid the higher costs of paying salaries, benefits, and costs for officer replacements while in training (Taylor, 2001).

The Summit participants also encouraged ILETSB to consider the establishment of a statewide job database. Included in this concept was a belief that ILETSB should establish certain minimum standards, a standardized general application form, and standardized application testing. Dr. Steve Stanard demonstrated a model of such a computer-based system. The model included the ability to complete a standard application online as well as links to departments utilizing the state's job database.

Support for such a "universal certified eligibility list" also surfaced in a 2001 survey conducted by Kenneth Durkin. Durkin surveyed 235 recent graduates of Western Illinois University's Department of Law Enforcement and Justice Administration who had completed internships with a law enforcement agency. Fifty-eight percent of the respondents believed that the current police application process would be better served by implementing a universal hiring list, indicating that the applicant had completed a police written examination, POWER test, psychological examination, and polygraph test. Eighty percent felt that individual agencies should complete their own background checks of candidates. Sixty-eight percent reported that they supported a standardized State of Illinois police eligibility-hiring list.

The breakout panel on streamlining the employment process suggested the following ideas:

- Standardized application – one page submitted to ILETSB, available on the Internet
- Standardized written test – developed and maintained by ILETSB
- POWER test – conducted by ILETSB through their Mobile Training Units or at colleges and universities

- Hiring standards established statewide
- Establishment of a state-supported scholarship program to pay for testing and training of police interns

Legislative changes would be necessary to accommodate many of these proposals.

Conclusions

Rapid changes in demographics, the labor market, and technology have required police agencies to look at new methods of recruiting police officers. Old methods will no longer suffice. New programs and methods are required. As Thomas Repetto, President of the New York City Crime Commission said, "Rather than reducing standards marginally, the right direction is to try to attract more college graduates by selling policing as a human services occupation" (Purnick, 2000, p. B1). Law enforcement departments must pay officers what they are worth. Salaries must be competitive with other jobs. With a statewide average of \$25,000, there is certainly much room for improvement. ILETSB, working in concert with local government and law enforcement agencies, will continue to seek new strategies and initiatives for recruiting and retaining quality personnel to serve in law enforcement. The summit deliberations yielded many possibilities for improvement. It is imperative that the law enforcement communities take the necessary steps to continue to develop and refine recruitment strategies contained herein. Working together, we can continue to cultivate professionalism, loyalty, and effective service delivery in policing.

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Panel Participants

Identifying Roadblocks to Effective Police Recruitment

Jeff Doherty	Carbondale City Manager
George Koertge	Illinois Association of Chiefs of Police
John Harris	Springfield Police Department
John Lange	Effingham Police Department
Robert Means	Illinois Board of Sheriffs' Merit Commission
Don Devine	Illinois Fire and Police Commissioners Association
John Sidbeck	Illinois Fire and Police Commissioners Association
Mark Donahue	Illinois Fraternal Order of Police
Ted Street	Illinois Fraternal Order of Police
Dave Wickster	Illinois Fraternal Order of Police
Irwin Bock	Illinois Municipal League

Harold Johnson Illinois Sheriffs' Association
Sean Smoot Policemen's Benevolent and Protective Association of
 Illinois

Identifying Effective Recruitment Strategies

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Thomas J. Jurkanin serves as the Executive Director of the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board, a position he has held since 1992. He has 25 years experience in the policing field. Dr. Jurkanin holds a PhD from Southern Illinois University in Education and Social Justice. Dr. Jurkanin serves as Vice Chairman of the Governor's Law Enforcement Medal of Honor Committee.

Robert J. Fischer is Director of the Illinois Law Enforcement Executive Institute. Dr. Fischer earned his PhD. At the Southern Illinois University at Carbondale in 1981. He served as a police officer and detective. He has twenty-three years of teaching experience at Western Illinois University, over seventeen years of administrative experience. Published over thirty articles and five books.

Vladimir A. Sergevnin is a research associate for the Illinois Law Enforcement Executive Institute and professor at St. Petersburg University of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, Russia. He earned his PhD at the Moscow Institute of Popular Economy in 1986. He has 24 years of teaching experience at Illinois State University, Western Illinois University, St. Petersburg University, and Vladimir Juridical Institute (Russia). He has published over 40 articles and written six books.

Stakeholders in the Community: A Community-Oriented Policing Solution to the Problem of Officer Retention and Recruitment in Urban Communities

David Bradford
Chief of Police
Village of Glen Carbon, Illinois

In military and police jargon, the initials R and R mean *rest* and *relaxation*. For local law enforcement administrators in smaller urban communities, these initials have become an acronym for the double-edged sword of *recruitment* and *retention* that hangs over their heads. Competition from larger departments and a prosperous private sector, higher educational requirements, noncompetitive wages and benefits, and the impact of Generation X work ethics and values are but a few of the many reasons and trends cited as causes for the drain on the available applicant pool. Better working environments, better pay and benefits, career advancement, and family obligations are cited as a few of the reasons for the jumping ship phenomenon that describes officers who take valuable law enforcement experience with a smaller department and use it as a stepping stone to a larger department (Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board, 2001). Whatever the reasons, indications are that the shortage of available applicants is a long-term dilemma and not a problem to be resolved by a quick-fix pay increase (Swope, 1999).

In an attempt to deal with the shrinking applicant pool, recruiters from larger departments are actively raiding smaller departments, considering them as sources of already trained and certified applicants. They have not been shy about recruitment raids, making personal contacts with neighboring communities' officers, and producing statewide mailings of recruiting materials containing enticing pay and benefit announcements to smaller police departments. In his article, "Small-Town Policing in Illinois: Challenges, Options, and Successful Strategies," Robin Johnson accurately summarizes the retention problem faced by the local law enforcement administrators of smaller departments. "Small towns face a vicious cycle of constantly hiring and training new recruits which hinders continuity and stability and imposes additional financial burdens" (Johnson, 2000).

Smaller local law enforcement agency administrators, supported by their village boards and city councils, have attempted to respond with improved pay packages and added benefits, including take-home police vehicles; however, such measures are limited by municipal budgets, are restricted in many cases by tax caps, and provide little protection from the efforts of the public sector equivalent of the private sector corporate raider. If smaller agencies are going to be able to compete in the recruiting market and retain quality officers once they are on board, an

alternative to the mercenary environment of services to the highest bidder must be developed. Also, if smaller agencies are going to be successful in breaking the vicious cycle of constantly hiring and training new recruits only to have them leave for more generous pay and benefit packages, they must provide incentives and motivation for officers to stay with their department that are not purely mercenary.

One such alternative is the development of recruitment and retention strategies rooted in Total Quality Management (TQM) and Community-Oriented Policing principle of ownership. Police officers who own and occupy a residence in the community where the police have a vested interest in the community that extends beyond a paycheck and related benefits. They are stakeholders in the community's present and future and have a direct influence on the quality of life in the community. When police officers are stakeholders in the community, public education for their children, community morals and ethics, and the issues and concerns of the immediate neighborhood, become a problem solving concern and provide a motivation, interest, and commitment to the future that far surpasses a purely mercenary involvement. The opportunity to become a stakeholder in the community is a valuable recruitment tool in light of the shrinking applicant pool and a longevous incentive that addresses the issue of retention.

It should be noted, however, that being a stakeholder in the community is not synonymous with residency in a community. Police Officer residency has been an issue debated at the collective bargaining table by police labor unions and municipalities for decades. The negotiated compromise has been satisfactory to neither officers nor the municipalities. Furthermore, an officer who rents a residence from a landlord generally does not have the property interest that is needed to promote residency stability and continuity. Renting certainly does not promote or provide a vested interest in the quality, maintenance, and development of the property value. Officer retention issues have traditionally been addressed with pre-employment agreements or contracts that call for the officer to refund the municipality for training and equipment costs if the officer leaves prior to completing a specific time of service to the community. Such agreements provide no real incentive for officers to complete their contractual service when neighboring departments offer to buy officers out of their obligations or the courts rule that the agreement is not binding. Such agreements provide no realistic incentive or motive for an officer to stay.

Faced with the recruitment and retention dilemma and committed to the Community-Oriented Policing Model, the Village of Glen Carbon accepted the challenge of developing an alternative recruitment and retention strategy. In February 2001, the Glen Carbon Village Board passed the *Resolution Providing Benefit to Police Officers to Obtain Residency Within the Village of Glen Carbon*. (A copy of the resolution is included at the end of this article.) The resolution is an incentive for village police officers to become stakeholders in the Village of Glen Carbon and addresses the issues of residency, recruitment, and retention from a TQM and Community-Oriented Policing perspective.

The residency benefit is a bi-provisional benefit made available to any person employed in the position of a full-time Village of Glen Carbon Police Officer who has successfully completed the probationary employment period. The program

contains and provides for a one-time financial benefit to an officer in the amount of \$2500 toward the purchase price and closing costs of the police officer's primary, single-family, owner-occupied residence within the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon. The residence must be the officer's first owner-occupied dwelling within the corporate limits and may not be rented to others. The financial benefit is paid by the Village at the time of closing to the appropriate designated agent and is applied to the down payment and closing costs. The officer provides a promissory note and second mortgage on the residence payable to the Village of Glen Carbon in the amount of \$2500. The promissory note and second mortgage is for a period of five consecutive years, commencing on the day of closing. During the five-year period, the Village does not require a monthly payment or interest on the note or mortgage. The Village shall forgive the promissory note and create a satisfaction and release of the second mortgage and promissory note at the end of the five-year period if the officer has been continuously employed by the Village for the said five-year period and is at the time of the expiration of the five-year period currently employed, on active duty status, and in good standing.

The Village of Glen Carbon currently has an 18-month probationary period. By the time an officer has completed the probationary period, the Village has invested approximately \$73,308 dollars in the recruit, attributed as follows:

Salary	\$50,856
Training & Recruitment (Academy and FTO)	\$18,952
Uniform & Equipment	\$3,500

Little, if any, of this cost can be recovered when officers leave the department shortly after the completion of their recruit training or probationary period. The \$2500 addition is a small premium to pay to help ensure that the officer will stay at least five years with the department so that the Village realizes some return on its investment. Should the officer leave for a position in the private sector or another police agency, there is the realistic possibility that the officer and his or her family will remain within the community, making a positive contribution; and if not, the Village's \$2500 assistance is protected by the second mortgage.

A second provision of the resolution provides a benefit for officers who are already stakeholders in the Village at the time the resolution is passed or a one-time benefit for stakeholders who desire to renovate or upgrade to a larger or newer residence within the village:

Any full-time Glen Carbon Police Officer, who has successfully completed the probationary period, is currently employed and on active duty status and in good standing; and who resides in and owns an owner occupied dwelling within the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon, shall be qualified to receive a financial benefit from the Village in the refinancing of the mortgage on said dwelling; or the purchase of another owner-occupied dwelling located within the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon that is to replace the current dwelling. The financial benefit shall be in the form of payment of the closing costs of the refinancing of the mortgage or purchase of the replacement owner-occupied dwelling. The benefit shall not exceed \$3000 and shall be limited to one application or occurrence. The officer shall provide a promissory note and second mortgage on the replacement

owner-occupied dwelling payable to the Village in the amount of the funds provided by the Village for closing. The Village shall forgive the promissory note and execute a satisfaction and release of the second mortgage if the officer has been continuously employed by the Village for ten years and at the time of the expiration of the ten-year period is currently employed, on active duty status, and in good standing.

In the event of death, or permanent disability as determined by the Police Pension Fund Board, any second mortgage held by the Village of Glen Carbon will be forgiven.

The resolution addresses the issue of officer retention by establishing the Glen Carbon Police Officers' Housing Benefit Fund. The village is the sole owner of the fund and any interest in any revenue or interest produce by the fund. Officers who have funds credited in their name have no vested interest or claim to any money in the fund until the officer has completed 20 years of consecutive employment. Upon completion of an officer's 20th consecutive year, the amount of money attributable to an officer is applied to any outstanding mortgage on the officer's owner-occupied dwelling within the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon according to the terms and conditions stated in Article 3 of the resolution (Sections a and b):

The Village of Glen Carbon shall, beginning at the end of the first calendar month in which the officer has closed on the purchase of the officer's owner-occupied dwelling within the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon, establish a monthly credit of \$150.00. Said credit shall be credited to the name of the police officer and will continue for the duration of the officer's service to the Village of Glen Carbon or the end of his 20th year of service, whichever occurs first. If the officer vacates the owner-occupied dwelling located within the Village corporate limits, prior to the completion of his 20th consecutive year of employment said monthly credit made on behalf of the officer shall cease, while he remains in a non-owner occupied dwelling.

Village of Glen Carbon Police Officers who have participated in the housing benefit fund program of the Village of Glen Carbon and have had monthly deposits credited in their name into the Fund, may in the first fiscal year following the end of their 20th year of consecutive employment as a Village of Glen Carbon Police Officer authorize the Village to disburse to their mortgage holder the amount of money credited to the officer in the fund. Upon notification and authorization from the Officer, the Village shall pay directly to the mortgage holder said amount, which shall be applied to the remaining principal balance of the mortgage. If the amount credited to the officer in the fund is greater than the remaining principal balance of the mortgage, the Village shall disburse an amount equal to the principal balance. If for any reason an officer with at least ten years of continuous service and who has funds credited to him in the Fund, desires to retire the mortgage on the first primary owner-occupied dwelling located within the Corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon prior to completion of his 20th year of continuous service, he may petition the board for release of the funds credited to him to be paid to the mortgage holder for the retirement of the mortgage.

It should be noted that any funds delivered to police officers or their mortgagees are generally considered bonus compensation, and officers will be solely responsible for the payment of any tax liability that may attach to the distribution of monies from the fund. Also, officers may not use any money credited to the fund in their name as collateral for any loan or indebtedness. Credits are not assignable, nor do they move to the benefit of any heirs or descendants. In the case of the death of a police officer or permanent disability, as determined by the Police Pension Board, the amount credited to the fund in the name of the officer shall be distributed to the mortgage holder upon request. Finally, the Village reserves the right to amend, modify in whole or in part, or terminate the benefit plan at its sole and exclusive discretion.

Some Important Factors to Consider

- The Village retains sole ownership of the fund and any interest or revenue generated. After a period of time determined by an actuary table that factors in the number or participants, length of service, and so on, the fund becomes self-funded.
- The cost to the municipality is in direct proportion to the number of officers employed by the municipality.

A resolution or benefit to police officers to obtain residency such as presented here is not the only solution to recruitment and retention issues facing smaller departments in today's labor market. It is, however, an affordable alternative tool that is attractive to the recruit, the currently employed officer, and the employing municipality. The smaller municipality can then afford to help level the playing field with its larger neighbors in the competition for desirable police officer candidates.

Resolution 2001

Village of Glen Carbon Glen Carbon, Illinois

A Resolution Providing Benefit to Police Officers to Obtain Residency Within the Village of Glen Carbon

Whereas the Village of Glen Carbon authorizes and maintains a full-time regular police force; and

Whereas the Village of Glen Carbon has a requirement that police officers reside within five miles of the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon but has granted exceptions to this requirement for certain circumstances involving economic hardship for the officer; and

Whereas the Village of Glen Carbon Police Department is a Community-Oriented Policing Police Department; and

Whereas it is an acknowledged tenet of Community-Oriented Policing that police officers live and reside in the community that they serve; and

Whereas the Village of Glen Carbon desires that police officers of the Village of Glen Carbon reside within the corporate limits of the Village in furtherance of the Community-Oriented Policing Philosophy and become stakeholders in the Community; and

Whereas the Village of Glen Carbon desires to retain career police officers in the service of the Village of Glen Carbon Police Department; and

Whereas the Village of Glen Carbon recognizes the commitment and dedication required of community-oriented police officers that reside in the venue in which they serve;

Now Therefore Be It Resolved:

1. That the Village of Glen Carbon hereby authorizes and establishes a residence benefit program that shall be made available to any person employed in the position of a full-time Village of Glen Carbon Police Officer who has successfully completed the probationary employment period.
2. That the residency benefit program contain and provide for the following elements:
 - a. The Village will provide a one-time financial benefit to an officer in the amount of \$2500 toward the purchase price and closing costs of the police officer's primary single-family owner-occupied residence within the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon. The residence must be the first owner-occupied dwelling within the corporate limits and may not be rented to others. The financial benefit shall be paid by the Village at the time of closing to the appropriate designated agent and be applied to the

down payment and closing costs. The officer shall provide a promissory note and second mortgage on the residence payable to the Village of Glen Carbon in the amount of \$2500. The promissory note and second mortgage shall be for a period of five consecutive years, commencing on the day of closing. During the five-year period, the Village shall expect no monthly payment or interest on the note or mortgage. The Village shall forgive the promissory note and create a satisfaction and release of the second mortgage and promissory note at the end of the five-year period if the officer has been continuously employed by the Village for [the] said five-year period and is at the time of the expiration of the five year period currently employed, on active duty status and in good standing.

- b. Any full-time Glen Carbon Police Officer, who has successfully completed the probationary period, is currently employed and on active duty status and in good standing; and who resides in and owns an owner-occupied dwelling within the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon, shall be qualified to receive a financial benefit from the Village in the refinancing of the mortgage on said dwelling; or the purchase of another owner-occupied dwelling located within the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon that is to replace the current dwelling. The financial benefit shall be in the form of payment of the closing costs of the refinancing of the mortgage or purchase of the replacement owner-occupied dwelling. The benefit shall not exceed \$3000 and shall be limited to one application or occurrence. The officer shall provide a promissory note and second mortgage on the replacement owner-occupied dwelling payable to the Village in the amount of the funds provided by the Village for closing. The Village shall forgive the promissory note and execute a satisfaction and release of the second mortgage if the officer has been continuously employed by the Village for ten years and at the time of the expiration of the ten-year period is currently employed, on active duty status, and in good standing.
 - c. In the event of death or permanent disability as determined by the Police Pension Fund Board, any second mortgage held by the Village of Glen Carbon will be forgiven.
3. That the Village of Glen Carbon shall establish The Glen Carbon Police Officers Housing Benefit Fund (hereafter referred to as the Fund). The Village shall be the sole owner of the Fund and have sole interest in any revenue or interest produced by the Fund. Officers who have had funds credited to the Fund in their name shall have no vested interest or claim to those funds until the officer has completed 20 years of continuous employment as a Glen Carbon Police Officer. Upon completion of 20 years of continuous employment, the funds attributable to an officer shall be applied to any outstanding mortgage on an officer's owner-occupied dwelling within the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon according to the terms and conditions that follow.
- a. The Village of Glen Carbon shall, beginning at the end of the first calendar month in which the officer has closed on the purchase of the officer's owner-occupied dwelling within the corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon, establish a monthly credit of \$150.00. Said credit shall be credited

to the name of the police officer and will continue for the duration of the officer's service to the Village of Glen Carbon or the end of his 20th year of service, whichever occurs first. If the officer vacates the owner-occupied dwelling located within the Village corporate limits, prior to the completion of his 20th consecutive year of employment said monthly credit made on behalf of the officer shall cease, while he remains in a non-owner-occupied dwelling.

- b. Village of Glen Carbon Police Officers who have participated in the housing benefit fund program of the Village of Glen Carbon and have had monthly deposits credited in their name into the Fund, may in the first fiscal year following the end of their 20th year of consecutive employment as a Village of Glen Carbon Police Officer authorize the Village to disburse to their mortgage holder the amount of money credited to the officer in the fund. Upon notification and authorization from the Officer the Village shall pay directly to the mortgage holder said amount, which shall be applied to the remaining principal balance of the mortgage. If the amount credited to the officer in the fund is greater than the remaining principal balance of the mortgage, the Village shall disburse an amount equal to the principal balance. If for any reason an officer with at least ten years of continuous service and who has funds credited to him in the Fund, desires to retire the mortgage on the first primary owner-occupied dwelling located within the Corporate limits of the Village of Glen Carbon prior to completion of his 20th year of continuous service, he may petition the board for release of the funds credited to him to be paid to the mortgage holder for the retirement of the mortgage.
- c. Credits made to the fund in the name of an officer, cannot be used by the officer as collateral for any loan or indebtedness or in any manner that may create a lien, or claim against the funds by any person or entity. Credits to the fund are not assignable and do not move to the benefit of any heirs or descendants.
- d. This fund shall exist at the sole discretion of the Village of Glen Carbon Board of Trustees. The Village reserves the right to amend, modify in whole or in part, or terminate the benefit plan in its sole and exclusive discretion. Participation in the fund shall be approved and authorized by the Village Board in its sole discretion. Should the fund be modified, amended, or terminated, the Village shall be obligated only to the extent of the funds credited to the individuals who are participants at the time of modification, amendment or termination.
- e. The funds delivered to the police officer or his bank will be considered as bonus compensation, and the officer shall be solely responsible for the payment of any tax liability that attaches thereto.
- f. In the event that an officer's death occurs in the line of duty, or the officer suffers a duty-related permanent disability as determined by the Police Pension Board, any amount in the fund attributable to the officer shall be disbursed to the mortgage holder upon request of the surviving spouse, heir, or executor of the officer's estate. The amounts in the fund attributable

to an officer in the fund shall remain the sole and exclusive property of the Village of Glen Carbon. No spouse, ex-spouse, or heir shall have any interest at any time in the fund, whether the officer is vested or not, except as provided in the first sentence of paragraph three, section (f).

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David Bradford received a master's degree in public administration from Southern Illinois University. He has been a police officer since 1979 and is currently the chief of police of Glen Carbon, Illinois. He is a charter member of the Madison County Child Abuse Task Force and serves on the Madison County Juvenile Justice Council. He is a diplomat of the American Board of Law Enforcement Experts and a member of the American College of Forensic Examiners. Previous publications include an article on police officer background investigations in *Public Personnel Management* (Vol. 27, No. 4, Winter 1998) and on police academy training in *Police Quarterly* (Vol. 2, Number 3, September 1999).

Cooperative Police Agency Recruiting Plan

Lieutenant Rick Willing
Carol Stream Police Department

Introduction

There is currently a nationwide shortage of qualified police employee candidates, resulting in a large-scale staffing problem. This shortage has led to an applicant's market, where qualified candidates are able to shop for the most attractive positions and departments.

Many departments are finding that applicants, even once hired, will leave if a more attractive offer for employment becomes available. Especially vulnerable are smaller agencies. Due to their size and limited financial resources, these agencies are finding it hard to compete for qualified police officers. Many smaller agencies are finding themselves the training grounds and stepping stones for police officers looking for career opportunities.

Locally, this problem will be compounded by recent pension legislation that should generate a higher number of retirements than in previous years. Many police officers in Illinois held off retiring in 2000 in anticipation of the improved pension benefits being considered by the Illinois legislature. The pension legislation, which was approved in December 2000 and signed into law recently by Governor George Ryan, allows officers to retire earlier, with maximum benefits. Between the national shortage of qualified applicants and the local increase in retirements, there is a serious police officer staffing crisis on the horizon in Illinois.

No longer can police agencies simply rely upon just placing an ad in a local paper in order to recruit enough qualified candidates. It is important that police executives throughout Illinois establish a comprehensive cooperative recruiting plan for the hiring and retention of police personnel. A global effort by Illinois police executives could provide local agencies with a competitive advantage in the police recruitment market.

Several professional organizations are providing technical assistance to address this problem. The International Association of Chiefs of Police recently published a report entitled "Recruitment & Retention of Qualified Police Personnel: A Best Practices Guide." This report is available on their website, <www.theiacp.org>. The Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board (ILETSB) and the Illinois Law Enforcement Executive Institute will be hosting a statewide summit on police recruitment in 2002.

I recently proposed a cooperative recruiting and testing plan for the DuPage County police agencies through the DuPage County Chiefs of Police Association. Although this proposal was designed in a local area effort, I believe that this model could be used regionally or globally.

I gained an interest in recruiting several years ago while I was studying for my master's degree. One of my project papers was on the incorporation of marketing principles in a recruiting program. I believed that it was important for departments to find out what qualified applicants were looking for in a police job or department. Departments could then use those specific "attractions" to their advantage. Our department conducted several surveys of potential applicants in order to find their demographics, what characteristics of a department and community attracted them to apply, where they looked for job openings, and how they found out about our hiring campaign. We found that using this information allowed us to attract large numbers of potential and qualified candidates.

Police departments in the early and mid-1990s really did not have much trouble attracting sufficient numbers of qualified applicants. There seemed to be an endless pool of candidates, and not much effort was necessary to fill vacancies. As the century ended, the qualified applicant pool seemed to dry up. Departments, as means of finding enough qualified candidates, began offering preference points for previous experience, and officers began jumping from one department to another. We are now at a critical time in the staffing of police departments because of the limited, qualified applicant pool that currently exists.

Through personal experience and discussions with other police managers throughout the country, I concluded that this problem definitely exists. To identify the magnitude of the problem in DuPage County, I surveyed all of the county's police agencies. The survey requested information about current staffing vacancies for both sworn officers and civilian employees and about projected vacancies in the next year, with and without consideration to the then pending pension legislation.

The DuPage County Problem

The police agencies in DuPage County are experiencing difficulty in recruiting police employees and maintaining authorized staffing levels.

A survey conducted in August 2000 of DuPage County police agencies revealed that . . .

- In DuPage County, there were 68 sworn officer and 38 civilian vacancies.
- Police officials anticipated another 133 to 151 sworn officer vacancies and another 15 civilian vacancies in the next year (without consideration to unexpected attrition).

The low unemployment rate in the area has compounded agency efforts to recruit and maintain employees. In an effort to increase department staffing, agencies have resorted to recruiting officers and civilian employees from other departments. This has not eliminated the global problem of police agency staffing, especially in DuPage County.

The Proposal

As a means of addressing the problem in DuPage County, I submitted the following written proposal to the DuPage County Chiefs of Police Association requesting that

they support a cooperative plan for recruiting potential applicants for civilian and sworn police employees. The association would provide an advisory/oversight committee to direct the cooperative efforts of this partnership. Participating agencies would share the cost of the identified recruiting efforts and provide the necessary personnel for recruiting events. I was honored that the DuPage Chiefs Association took interest in this proposal and that it is actively working to implement several of these ideas.

Proposed Plan

Participating agencies would work cooperatively to recruit police employees using several strategies, including the following:

- **Common police employment website, <www.dupagecopjobs.com>**
The annual cost of the website would be \$300. Nationally, employers are finding that website recruiting is becoming the most popular and effective means of attracting candidates. Police Executive Research Forum officials report that online applications are also becoming a very effective means of increasing applicant numbers.
- **Group e-mail alerts for updated recruiting information**
New employment opportunities could be e-mailed by group list through the website (no cost).
- **Common newspaper ads**
The cooperative could use a regular ad in the newspapers to advertise all agency openings. The ad costs would be pro-rated based upon each agency's use. Interested candidates would know that they could look for a regular ad in the newspaper for local law enforcement job opportunities.
- **Cooperative recruiting visits**
Participating agency representatives would attend job and career fairs and recruit candidates on behalf of all agencies in the partnership. This would save time and personnel costs compared with all departments sending representatives to the same career fairs. A cooperative booth would be established and maintained. The coordinator would assist with the scheduling of agency representatives. Booth cost estimate would be \$3,000.
- **Police employment hotline**
The Village of Carol Stream has an information line that could be used for recorded messages concerning current employment opportunities and application information for all participating agencies. Such a number could be used by all participating agencies at no cost.
- **Cooperative test scheduling**
Many times, agencies schedule applicant tests or orientation meetings on the same day. In order to maximize attendance at these tests, agencies should work cooperatively not to schedule concurrent events. This allows each agency to offer employment opportunities to a select group at no cost. This partnership would act as a clearinghouse for test dates and times.

- **Cooperative recruiting flyers and brochures**

The cooperative would develop flyers and brochures that would promote the participating agencies and recruiting efforts. Five thousand full-color brochures would cost approximately \$1500.

- **Radio/TV commercials**

Radio and/or television commercials would be cost-prohibitive for individual agencies; however, cooperative commercials with a shared cost might be feasible. The use of local access television could be used on a regular basis to announce application and test information (no cost).

Funding

Funding for this plan would be provided through seed money from the DuPage County Chiefs of Police Association and a shared assessment of the participating agencies on a per-capita basis.

Oversight Committee

The DuPage Chiefs of Police Association would provide an oversight committee that would provide the necessary direction and supervision of the cooperative. This committee would establish policy and provide direction to the recruiting coordinator.

Coordinator

The DuPage Chiefs of Police Association's Recruiting Oversight Committee would name a coordinator, who would be responsible for implementing the proposed strategies and coordinate the mutual responsibilities and activities of the participating agencies.

Testing Consortium

Another possibility would be a testing consortium. Applicants would pay for and take a common test(s), and the results could be sent to agencies selected by the applicant. This would save the agency money for the preliminary screening process since the agency would not be paying the test fee. This type of common screening may attract more out-of-state or long-distance applicants since they would not have to make multiple trips to the area to test for several individual departments.*

* Since the original proposal, I have learned more about the successful testing consortium currently being used by Chicagoland fire departments. The College of DuPage Fire Science Division has been successfully coordinating consortium testing for some time. They conduct a multiple-agency test twice a year.

Individual departments still recruit individually, but the physical agility and written test is administrated cooperatively. The candidate's test results can be submitted to as many agencies as he or she desires. This has significantly decreased the testing costs for individual departments, and they have found that such a test attracts a greater number of qualified candidates. Candidates are then subjected to additional screening before being placed on the individual department's eligibility list.

This individuality in testing helps prevent the top candidates on a single list being hired and other departments left to select candidates lower on the list. Since tests are given at least two times a year, the eligibility lists do not become stale.

Evaluation Measurements

The following measurements could be used to determine the success of the proposed project:

- Number of “hits” on the website
- Annual cost savings associated with common ads
- Agency applicant volume
- Agency staffing levels
- Number of information line connections
- Recruitment survey of applicants

Conclusion

Police agencies throughout the nation are currently struggling with staffing as a result of a tight labor market. There is a global problem of recruiting and retaining qualified police officers. Police agencies in Illinois are experiencing the same situation. It is imperative that we cooperatively and proactively address this problem.

A cooperative plan would be cost-effective and should be more efficient than independent agencies recruiting. Several no-cost opportunities would help coordinate the recruiting efforts for all agencies. The continued quality of police services and organizations in Illinois is dependent upon departments’ ability to hire qualified candidates. The current shortage of candidates necessitates that Illinois departments work innovatively and cooperatively in order to meet the staffing demands.

I applaud the efforts of the ILETSB, the Illinois Law Enforcement Executive Institute, the DuPage County Chiefs of Police Association, and the International Association of Chiefs of Police for their leadership role in this critical situation.

Lt. Rick Willing is a 21-year veteran of the Carol Stream Police Department. He earned an MS in Criminal Justice Management from Aurora University. He is also a graduate of the Illinois Law Enforcement Executive Institute's Executive Management Program and the Police Executive Research Forum's Senior Management Institute for Police.

College Credit Articulation for Basic Law Enforcement Academy Training

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In August 2000, the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board's (ILETSB's) Executive Director, Thomas J. Jurkanin, announced the formation of a Law Enforcement Articulation Committee. The committee was given the charge of exploring the feasibility of articulating basic law enforcement courses for college credit recommendations.

The committee sought to build upon previous and existing initiatives in Illinois in order to facilitate some degree of uniformity in the acceptance of college credit recommendations for law enforcement training by community colleges and universities. A survey conducted by Dr. Thomas Arnold of the College of Lake County revealed that many colleges and some universities granted various hours of credit for academy training courses in the topical areas of introduction to law enforcement, criminal and procedural law, and traffic administration and management.

The Police Training Institute, an academy located at the University of Illinois at Champaign, previously received credit recommendations from the American Council on Education (ACE). The ILETSB Articulation Committee reviewed application processes, costs, and evaluation commitments and concluded that articulation could be accomplished in Illinois in a more cost- and time-effective manner.

During the review process, the committee established a liaison with the Criminal Justice Drafting Committee of the Illinois Articulation Initiative (IAI). The IAI has been facilitating the transfer of credits between educational institutions in Illinois and previously identified three semester hours of criminal justice core courses and an additional 12 semester credit hours of other transferable criminal justice courses. The IAI has been very helpful in assisting the ILETSB committee in establishing evaluation criteria for training courses, including the number of contact hours, instructor qualifications, testing/measuring, and course goals and objectives.

The Articulation Committee recommended nine hours of credit in the previously identified topical areas of basic law enforcement training. ILETSB accepted the recommendations at its quarterly meeting in Chicago in December 2000. The Articulation Committee has moved toward implementation with a mailing to all criminal justice program coordinators in Illinois educational institutions. The coordinators were invited to review the recommendations, compare their institution's offerings for compatibility, and submit their admission requirements and position on the recommendations to ILETSB. At this juncture, their responses will be posted to the ILETSB website at <www.ptb.state.il.us> for review by interested law enforcement officers in Illinois.

The Articulation Committee is currently reviewing similar criteria for evaluating inservice training courses offered through ILETSB's mobile training units. The committee anticipates that the courses will be screened for conformance and then posted to the ILETSB website. The inservice postings, conversely, can be reviewed by educators when considering awarding or accepting transfer credits at their respective institutions.

Although many law enforcement agencies require 60 or more college credit hours for entrance, many smaller agencies are not able to make such requirements because of budget and benefit constraints affecting hiring by small units of government. The awarding of college credit for some basic training courses will encourage officers to continue their education and concurrently enhance the level of law enforcement professionalism in Illinois.

Patrick F. Vaughan, currently Deputy Director, Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board, retired as Chief of Police, Decatur, Illinois, after 38 years in law enforcement. He has a BA; studied criminal justice at the graduate level; attended the FBI National Academy; served as Law Enforcement Coordination Manager for U.S. Attorney, Central District of Illinois; and presented for U.S. Department of Justice training programs.

Contemporary Views of Adult Learning: Implications for Law Enforcement Education and Training

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There is little doubt that possessing conceptual understanding and intellectual skills, as well as strong technical skills are important aspects of our daily lives. The ability to learn by thinking conceptually, critically, and creatively is a fundamental competency for the workplace (Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills, 1991). In the practice of law enforcement, officers are experiencing increased complexity of work and social life. To deal with this complexity, a need exists for law enforcement officers to interact in teams to solve problems that extend beyond the boundaries of their area of specialization. This type of interactive problem solving demands effective social and communication skills along with critical and creative problem-solving abilities.

The speed at which technology changes also influences the importance of learning. As technologies are developed and diffused into the official workplace, new knowledge and skills are needed to install, operate, and maintain equipment and to manage the processes used to control the technologies. These changes demand that we continually develop our ability to learn in order to gain the understanding and skills needed to adapt to changes.

Education and training researchers are beginning to question the very nature of practice in schools and training institutions. For example, the results of the National Assessment of Educational Progress study "suggest that current forms of schooling are doing a poor job of preparing individuals for even the basics of adult life, let alone the increasingly complex demands of the workplace" (Balfanz, 1991, p. 357). We cannot continue to design instruction only around learning theories that result in instructors telling students what to remember and what to do, then punishing or rewarding them for their performance. This common approach to instruction will get students to memorize things and perform certain tasks, but it will not lead to conceptual understanding, help them think, or enhance their ability to learn on their own. Part of the problem is that education and professional training has been driven by assessment practices and philosophies that emphasize the importance of gaining knowledge rather than applying knowledge. Efforts to increase students' factual knowledge seem to impede the development of intellectual, or critical thinking, skills (Balfanz, 1991).

There exists a strong need to design instruction using learning theories that explain how intellectual skills are developed. Through these appropriate learning theories,

law enforcement recruits will learn to think conceptually, critically, and creatively when analyzing situations, developing solutions to problems, and learning from their experiences. The purpose of this article is to discuss the importance of developing intellectual skills in law enforcement education and training, to identify problems and issues related to learning and transfer, and to present recommendations that will enhance instruction and lead to more effective and efficient learning in law enforcement contexts.

Intellectual Skill in the Context of Law Enforcement

Changing Nature of Work in Law Enforcement

The entire field of law enforcement is experiencing change. This change has been precipitated by changing societal priorities, problems of communities, increased reliance on technology, rising expectations of the public, various new threats to public safety, and various other factors. The end result is a changing job and a changing set of responsibilities for law enforcement professionals. *Complexity* is a key word in describing many of these changes. The job of an officer has become and will continue to become more complex. The size of problems encountered and the complexity of these problems result in the need for officers to increasingly rely on higher order thinking to make decisions and to take appropriate actions. Following a specific set of guidelines or relying on past experiences are no longer sufficient to deal with the new, complex situations of today.

Technological advances have led to the development and use of new tools to support the work of law enforcement officers. Computer technology provides officers with better information, faster access to information, and faster processing of information. These advances facilitate more effective performance of trained officers; however, the new technology requires new skills. The most common technology-related skills are linked directly to the use of the technology. The use of a sophisticated rendering system for developing composite drawings of suspects requires an officer to learn the computer and software specifics. Additionally and often overlooked, officers need to learn how to use the results or outputs of the technology in new and more sophisticated ways. This often involves the advanced use of intellectual skills.

Concepts and Terms

Conceptual and operational definitions are needed before the difficulty of developing intellectual skills is addressed. At the most basic level, intellectual skills are those mental operations that enable us to acquire new knowledge, apply that knowledge in both familiar and unique situations, and control the mental processing that is used to acquire and use knowledge

Thinking Skills: Thinking skills are the specific mental operations that are used in combination to achieve a particular goal (Marzano et al., 1988). The following list identifies 21 core thinking skills grouped into eight broad categories. While the following list of thinking skills is not comprehensive, it does provide a conceptual scheme for organizing the specific skills that good thinkers possess (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Core Thinking Skills

Focusing Skills <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Defining problems2. Setting goals	Analyzing Skills <ol style="list-style-type: none">11. Identifying attributes and components12. Identifying relationships and patterns13. Identifying main ideas14. Identifying errors
Information Gathering Skills <ol style="list-style-type: none">3. Observing4. Formulating questions	
Remembering Skills <ol style="list-style-type: none">5. Encoding6. Recalling	Generating Skills <ol style="list-style-type: none">15. Inferring16. Predicting17. Elaborating
Organizing Skills <ol style="list-style-type: none">7. Comparing8. Classifying9. Ordering10. Representing	Integrating Skills <ol style="list-style-type: none">18. Summarizing19. Restructuring
	Evaluating Skills <ol style="list-style-type: none">20. Establishing criteria21. Verifying

Source: Marzano et al., 1988, p. 69

Thinking Processes: The value of the specific thinking skills is limited unless we are able to combine them into larger thinking processes. Marzano et al. (1988) identify eight thinking processes that are used to gain knowledge and can be applied in daily life. The first three processes (concept formation, principle formation, comprehension) are used primarily while learning. The next four processes (problem solving, decisionmaking, inquiry, composition) are used to apply knowledge. The final process, oral discourse, is used during both knowledge acquisition and knowledge application.

Critical and Creative Thinking: Critical and creative thinking are unique types of thinking processes (Marzano et al., 1988). We engage in varying degrees of creative and critical thinking while solving problems and making decisions. For example, when engaged in a problem-solving activity, one problemsolver may use a very creative approach to arrive at a solution while another may use very little creativity. Problem solvers also differ in the degree of critical thought used to reflect on the process needed to solve a problem.

Metacognition: Metacognition, or what is often called strategic knowledge, refers to awareness of one's own thinking processes while performing specific tasks. This is an important factor in intelligence, learning, and problem solving. Metacognition involves the planning that takes place before beginning a thinking activity, regulation of thinking while working through the activity, and evaluation of the appropriateness of one's thinking after completing the activity. This type of thinking includes strategies such as self-monitoring, advance planning, self-checking, questioning, summarizing, predicting, generating alternatives, and evaluating. All of these strategies are very useful as law enforcement officers

learn from their successes and mistakes while striving to better serve and protect their communities.

Critical Issues Confronting Law Enforcement Education and Training

Before discussing instructional approaches that can enhance the development of conceptual understanding and intellectual skill there are several critical issues confronting law enforcement education and training that need to be addressed. These issues include problems with specialized courses designed to teach thinking skills, concerns about the failures of learning transfer, and doubts about the ability of formal education and training to teach what is needed in the worklife of law enforcement professionals.

The Failure of Specialized “Thinking” Courses

Many attempts have been made to develop courses that emphasize the development of intellectual skills. Specialized “thinking” courses are based on the belief that thinking can be divided into specific skills that can be taught and then combined into larger applications of thought. This is a very simplistic view.

Part of the reason these courses fail is because they ignore the importance of content knowledge as a major factor in the application of intellectual skills. Cognitive research has clearly established the link between content knowledge and intellectual processes. Chase and Simon (1973), in their classic study of chess experts, found that the superior performance of chess masters could be attributed more to their ability to recognize board layout patterns from past experience than to superior mental capabilities. In fact, Chase and Simon found that when the chess masters were confronted with random chess layouts, the experts performed like novices. The designers of “thinking” courses also fail to realize that in order to develop a specific thinking skill you must already possess the larger thinking processes. Consider the differences between a veteran officer and a new recruit. Both may have the same sheer thinking capability; however, the veteran officer has the ability to draw on conceptual and contextual knowledge and experience that the recruit does not have.

Rather than view thinking as a set of discrete skills that can be learned and combined into a larger set of processes, it may be better to view the development of intellectual skills as a cyclic process of refining and honing the ability to think critically, creatively, and conceptually. This approach acknowledges the fact that learners already possess the ability to think. The fundamental issue is that thinking skills cannot be taught in isolation of content and context.

The Problem of Knowledge Transfer

A second issue confronting law enforcement education and training relates to knowledge transfer. Once we acquire new knowledge and skills, are we able to transfer what we learned to other classes, to our daily lives, and to our work? Research suggests that all too often, we cannot. Numerous examples show that students who are taught a new strategy fail to apply the strategy when it is appropriate. For example, when children are taught a skill, such as solving a problem mathematically, they often fail to recognize that their new skill can be

used to solve a similar problem at a later time. Knowledge and skills do not transfer easily because students may learn how to perform a strategy, but they do not learn when it is appropriate to use. This describes the problem of inert knowledge—knowledge that is not used in new situations and contexts even though it is relevant. In other words, the knowledge students possess is inert if they have proven that they can use it in one situation (such as in a lab or on a test) but fail to use it in an appropriate situation at a later time (such as in a restaurant, at work, or during leisure activities). The problem of inert knowledge may exist in some practices of law enforcement academies that solely emphasize classroom learning and paper and pencil testing. In some cases, academies may fail in helping recruits develop conditionalized knowledge—knowledge about the conditions under which knowledge is applicable.

A second reason why it is difficult for knowledge and skills to transfer is because of differences between the learning situation and the situation in which the transfer is to occur. The degree of great difference or dissimilarity between the learning situation and the work situation is described as “far transfer.” Far transfer occurs when a skill is performed in a context that is very different from the context in which the skill was learned. Far transfer involves the development of generalizable skills that are acquired and used in different contexts (Clark & Voogel, 1985). Far transfer occurs less often and is more difficult than near transfer because the situation must be deliberately analyzed in order to recall the rules or concepts needed to apply knowledge and skills in that particular situation.

Knowledge and skills also fail to transfer to new situations because what is learned in schools and training institutions is not necessarily what is needed in later life or the workplace. For example, Lesgold and colleagues (1988) found that expert radiologists use different intellectual skills to analyze x-rays than those taught in medical school. In another study, Scribner (1984) found that dairy workers who assemble delivery orders and take inventory do not use the strategies and formulas they learned through formal mathematics instruction, rather, they use their knowledge of the physical environment and constraints to invent strategies that are physically and mentally more efficient. Similar studies of reading show that workers employ reading strategies that are different and more effective than those learned in the classroom. Along these same lines, Scribner and Cole (1981) found that the cognitive skills used by literate people who have no formal schooling are very different from the cognitive skills of those who become literate through formal schooling. It has even been suggested that many of the strategies used by workers are similar to the procedures used by children prior to instruction and by unschooled adults who have learned through experience (Balfanz, 1991). Ultimately, the learning transfer problem occurs because formal education emphasizes the mechanical aspects of knowledge (e.g., rote learning of facts, calculation formulas, rules, and procedures) rather than the activity of thinking.

The Relationship of Education and Training to Real-World Thinking

Educational researchers have recently become more aware of the differences between the way in which we learn in school and in formal training institutions and the way in which we learn outside of these settings (Resnick, 1987). Resnick contends that schools and training institutions teach students how to think in order to succeed in the classroom but do not teach them how to think in order

to succeed in daily life and work. Resnick uses the following four contrasts to make this point:

1. In the classroom, we traditionally emphasize individual thinking while shared cognition is most important in daily life and work.
2. In the classroom, we traditionally emphasize independent thinking that is done without the external support of books, notes, calculators, and other tools. In daily life and work, we rely on books, manuals, job aids, computers, and other cognitive and physical tools to facilitate our thinking.
3. In the classroom, we traditionally emphasize the manipulation of symbols and following rules in artificial contexts, while thinking in daily life and work occurs in a rich contextual environment that includes objects, events, people, and many other variables that may facilitate the thinking process.
4. In the classroom, we traditionally emphasize general, widely usable skills and theoretical principles that are believed to transfer to situations outside of the classroom even though evidence suggests otherwise. In daily life and work, we use our practical knowledge to invent strategies and develop competencies that are useful in specific situations.

Resnick's set of contrasts between learning that occurs in the classroom and outside of the classroom is a useful starting point for understanding why students have difficulty developing intellectual skills. Yet, her contrasts oversimplify the differences between learning in the classroom and learning in daily life and work. While Resnick's description of the classroom seems accurate, we can also apply those same characteristics to formal training programs in business and industry. Also, not all learning that occurs in educational institutions is as formal as Resnick implies. In formal educational institutions (e.g., public schools, technical institutes, law enforcement academies, private sector training centers), considerable learning takes place as students interact between classes, collaborate in study groups, and socialize during breaks and after-class activities. Rather than try to dichotomize "in-school" and "outside-of-school" learning, it may be better to contrast those settings in terms of their degree of formality, that is, in terms of the differences between formal learning and informal learning. The "in-school" problems described by Resnick are characteristic of formal educational settings while the "outside-of-school" characteristics occur through informal learning, whether that learning occurs in the classroom or elsewhere.

Contextual Learning

A rich learning environment filled with authentic problems and real situations is critical for developing intellectual skills. Expertise is created through interaction with the environment, not in isolation from it (Berryman & Bailey, 1992). As we interact with others in a contextually rich learning environment, we "pick up relevant jargon, imitate behavior, and gradually start to act in accordance with" the norms of the cultural setting (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989, p. 34). Through this "authentic" activity, we have the chance to observe the behaviors of others, practice the skills we see, use the tools and materials of the day, and give and receive advice. Learning within a rich context also helps address the transfer

problem by learning in an environment that reflects the way knowledge will be used in real life. Various approaches to instruction that build on contextual learning have been developed recently including situated learning, anchored instruction, and cognitive apprenticeship.

If law enforcement education and training is to facilitate learning that is useful outside the classroom, it must take place in contexts that resemble the situations in which the knowledge and skills will be used (to facilitate near transfer) and provide extensive opportunities for practice (to facilitate low-road transfer). Once students develop a relatively firm grasp of the rules and principles that underlie concepts and are taught how to apply them in other situations, they will be more likely to spontaneously use (i.e., transfer) their knowledge in new situations. The use of practicals, scenarios, and real-time practice, that are incorporated within many of the law enforcement academies of the United States (including the Police Training Institute of the University of Illinois) provides for effective contextual learning.

Peer-Based Learning

“We learn from the company we keep.” All cognitive activity is socially defined, interpreted, and supported (Rogoff & Lave, 1984). By interacting with others, tutoring them, and being tutored by them, we have the opportunity to learn from them; share our knowledge; and engage in competition, cooperation, collaboration, conversation, and negotiation of meaning. Essentially, through the social activity of learning, we have the opportunity to develop a community of learners.

Peer-based learning involves working together to achieve a learning goal, and this team approach makes training programs more realistic; therefore, what is learned cooperatively may be more transferable to the real world because of the similarity between the training situation and the actual work situation. The teacher’s role is to participate as a peer, monitor the activity, and facilitate and moderate as needed. Getting the right answer is not as important as getting the learners to work together to develop a solution. Even if an incorrect solution is reached, how and why it was reached must be understood so the error will be less likely to occur again. Examples of instructional approaches that are grounded in peer-based learning include reciprocal teaching, cooperative learning, peer tutoring and cross-age tutoring, and paired problem solving.

One of the reasons students learn so well when working with others is because of the amount of verbalization that takes place. Peer-based learning fosters extensive verbal elaboration that aids cognitive restructuring of information. In fact, it is the verbal interaction among group participants that contributes the most toward learning.

Working with others leads to verbal interactions that help in several ways. First, by verbalizing their thoughts, learners become more aware of thinking activities and actually begin to listen to their thinking. Second, the interaction helps students learn how to modify someone else’s thinking and how to defend their own ideas. Third, group interaction supports reflective activity as learners self-monitor and self-correct by observing and modifying their own cognitive behavior. Finally,

the verbalization process contributes to more precise thinking and stimulates conceptual development.

Activity-Based Practice

As one examines educational practice, there seems to be an assumed separation between knowing and doing in education. Knowing is valued over doing. Mental activity is valued over physical activity. This separation, however, has been challenged in recent years. The activities through which learning occurs are inseparable from cognition.

People who use tools . . . build an increasingly rich implicit understanding of the world in which they use the tools and of the tools themselves. The understanding, both of the world and of the tool, continually changes as a result of their interaction. Learning and acting are interestingly indistinct; learning being a continuous, life-long process resulting from acting in situations (Brown et al., 1989, p. 33).

In order for peer-based learning to be successful, some form of activity must become the focus of the community of learners. This activity should be oriented toward the design or construction of a project or product and involve the integration of knowledge and skills.

Activity-based practice can be provided in many forms. Discovery learning, thematic instruction, and project-based learning are common techniques for engaging students in motivational activities that involve considerable amounts of creativity, decisionmaking, and problem solving. Arthur Anderson and Company uses six instructional approaches to engage their trainees in active learning: (1) structured-on-the-job training, (2) apprenticeships, (3) goal-based scenarios, (4) action learning, (5) problem-based learning, and (6) project-based learning. Each of these instructional approaches emphasizes the importance of learning from experience—experience that is highly goal driven and activity-based. Since these activities usually take a considerable amount of time to complete, they provide for sustained thinking about specific problems over long periods of time.

Law enforcement training academies utilize a variety of activity-based practice events. Course-based scenarios, case studies, integrated practicals, firearms practice sessions, and defensive tactics practice sessions are examples that are in use.

Learning through activity-based practice is closely connected with learning as a social activity. Experiential learning provides extensive opportunities for apprenticeship-type activity. For example, *action learning* is the term used in executive training to describe activity-based practice that involves giving teams of learners (i.e., peer-based learning) real business problems to solve.

Through the years, apprenticeship has been a common activity-based form of learning technical skills. Traditional apprenticeship typically involves an expert who models the desired performance for novices, coaches them through a task, and gives them more autonomy as their skills develop. In a traditional craft guild, for example, the master models how to do a task while explaining what is being done and the reason behind it. By observing the master perform, the apprentice

learns the correct actions and procedures and then attempts to copy them on a similar task. The master then coaches the apprentice through the task by providing hints and corrective feedback as needed. As the apprentice becomes more skilled, the master gives the apprentice more control over the task by “fading” into the background.

The pairing of newly trained recruits (academy-based training) with experienced field training officers in local police departments provides an extension of the apprenticeship model in law enforcement training.

While traditional apprenticeship emphasizes physical ability, Collins, Brown, and Newman (1989) advocate using cognitive apprenticeship as a model for developing intellectual skills. Modeling of correct performance, coaching students through difficult tasks, providing scaffolds as needed, and providing less assistance as competency increases are major components of this model. Cognitive apprenticeship also includes the selection and sequencing of learning experiences based on an individual’s performance.

Learning Through Reflective Practice

“There is a big difference between having experiences and learning from them” (Marsick & Watkins, 1991, p. 11). Even if instruction occurs in rich contexts and involves interacting with peers while working on various activities, quality learning will not take place unless there is reflective introspection. People who do not reflect on their experience fail to learn from their experience. Although reflection is a critical aspect of learning, Jones points out in his chapter that self-evaluation and reflection are not features of many students’ technological capability. While students may be able to solve a technological problem, they typically proceed in a linear fashion with no reflection.

Everyday practice is influenced by the reflective conversations we have about a situation. Strategic knowledge, or what is often called metacognition, is an important part of reflective practice and an important factor in intelligence, learning, and problem solving. According to Brown (1978), “the ability to monitor one’s own understanding . . . is an essential pre-requisite for all problem solving ability” (p. 83).

While most educators agree that learners should be aware of their own thinking, the merits of teaching metacognition directly versus indirectly have been debated. There appears to be a growing consensus that it is beneficial to explicitly and directly teach learners both the concept of metacognition and the use of metacognitive processes (Brown, 1978). When using the direct approach, teachers should explicitly teach strategies and skills. Instructors should explain not only what the strategy is, but also how, when, where, and why the strategy should be employed. Once students become aware of metacognitive processes, they should be able to apply their metacognitive skills through reflection while working on various learning activities.

Reflective practice is compatible with the movement toward “continuous learning for continuous improvement” in the workplace (Marsick & Watkins, 1991). As we become more comfortable reflecting on our own thinking, we will also be more

aware of the limitations in our knowledge, skills, and thinking abilities. Once we are aware of these deficiencies, we can work to reduce them.

Direction for the Future

Incorporating the four elements mentioned above into formal law enforcement instruction will not, by itself, lead to ultimate conceptual learning and intellectual skill development. The educational power of informal learning environments is enhanced when knowledgeable and caring instructors combine the appropriate learning environment with the modeling, coaching, and scaffolding needed by the recruits. Instructors need to combine cognitive learning principles with the elements of informal learning. Cognitive research has led to the development of six broad, general instructional principles that enhance conceptual learning and thinking (Johnson & Thomas, 1994). These six principles include the following: (1) helping students organize their knowledge, (2) building on what students already know, (3) facilitating information processing, (4) facilitating “deep thinking,” (5) making thinking processes explicit, and (6) supporting the use and transfer of knowledge and skills. Johnson and Thomas (1994) have also identified many instructional strategies that can be used in formal instruction to address the cognitive principles of learning. Combining direct instruction using strategies that are designed around the six cognitive principles of learning within an environment provided by the four elements of informal learning will result in robust opportunities for recruits to gain conceptual understanding and develop their intellectual skills.

Conclusion

As indicated throughout this chapter, the law enforcement environment is rapidly becoming more complex and technologically driven. This fact alone calls for the field to quickly take note and assume a sense of urgency in areas in which preparation of quality law enforcement officials is of utmost importance. Law enforcement training institutions must begin to operationalize these concepts and focus not only on formal learning, but also on the rich benefits of informal learning—learning that incorporates connectivity between intellectual, attitudinal, and psychomotor skill and knowledge development focusing primarily on increased transfer to the contextual environment. It is this contextual, real-world environment where every second counts; lives are on the line; events can change abruptly; and law enforcement officials are required to have the intellectual capacity and flexibility, physical skills, and appropriate state of mind to effectively apply sound law enforcement principles to whatever situation may arise. The utilization of thinking processes, creative thinking, and metacognition for effective transfer of knowledge and skill is critical and must begin in the classroom through the use of contextual learning, peer-based and activity-based learning, and reflective practice. It is through learning that we grow and through growing that we succeed. Law enforcement success is of great concern to every aspect of society, but it begins with each law enforcement official’s opportunity to learn. The application of these concepts will increase learning opportunities and enable the law enforcement field to successfully meet the demands of the changing workplace.

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How *Not* to Use Instructional Computers

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Introduction

Experience during the last 25 years of Computer-Based Education (CBE) has amply demonstrated the difficulty of finding techniques guaranteed to produce effective instructional material for this medium. On the other hand, new CBE authors appear to have no difficulty in rediscovering, at substantial cost to their progress, a number of approaches which virtually ensure production of poor material. One of the authors of this article, identified and described five of these pitfalls many years ago (Avner, 1974). We now advance the state of this dismal art by adding another five pitfalls. The ten self-destructive techniques described below have all been thoroughly tested. All have been found thoroughly wanting.

1. **Art for the Sake of Art.** The watchwords here are “make full use of the medium.” From your title frame (at least three minutes of dazzling op-art), your major objective should be the entertainment of yourself and your audience through a virtuoso display of your command of the CBE equipment and language. Games of skill and mind-bending graphic displays are especially appropriate. Assume that anything that can be done by CBE is automatically worth doing. Moreover, assume that anything that attracts attention should be programmed.
2. **Do Your Thing.** Impress yourself and your colleagues by applying CBE to your current research. Ideally, the topic presentation should leave all but your most able colleagues with a feeling of personal inadequacy. Above all, do not limit yourself by the needs, interests, or abilities of prospective students. In fact, do not even think about where the material might be used until after it is completed. Research shows (Taylor, 1970) that the degree to which the material impresses your peers will generally be inversely related to its teaching value.
3. **The Procrustean Bed.** Assume that all instructional media are, or should be, about the same. Find a convenient programmed text or filmstrip, and make an exact translation of it for CBE. If you feel more creative, produce new material

while strictly adhering to the limitations of some other medium and ignoring any unique capabilities of CBE. Your objective is material demonstrating all of the disadvantages of both media and none of the advantages of either.

The Procrustean approach is a favorite of graduate students needing a quick thesis topic. Few readers of the thesis are likely to note that the “well-controlled research design” has eliminated most major differences in the experimental treatments. Thus, by studying a new medium, the degree candidate satisfies the interests of the more innovative members of his or her committee, and, by finding no significant improvement over other media, he or she satisfies the biases of the nonbelievers.

4. **“Damn the Torpedoes.”** Pick a good solid goal (say, creating a one-semester course on CBE), and do not let anything distract you until it is reached. Do not worry about possible alternative approaches. Any competent teacher ought to be able to write the final version on the first try. Do not waste time trying preliminary versions on students. After all, if they knew what they needed, they would not be students. Do not show your material to other teachers. They will only suggest unneeded frills. Vigorously defend the finished product. Assume that any comments other than words of awed admiration are intended as slurs on your professional ability and ancestry. Eventually everyone will see things your way (you can tell by the fact that they will stop making suggestions). You may be surprised at the stupidity of some of your students who will be unable to comprehend the most obvious (though perhaps not explicitly stated) information. Unfortunately, large numbers of students may never see cunningly devised remedial sequences designed at great cost in time and effort to aid deficiencies that no one seems to have. Other students will no doubt complain bitterly about being bored by having to plow through material that they claim they already know or could have learned faster on their own. Accept these problems as normal drawbacks to use of programmed instructional approaches. You may be assured that you are using one of the most efficient techniques for production of ineffective material (Markle, 1967).
5. **Hitch a Ride on a Bandwagon.** You just cannot go wrong by keeping up with the latest trends in instructional design. Do not worry too much about how the current fashion should be implemented or what possible limitations it might have. Ignore any relationships with more established techniques or your own experience. The important thing is to use the right terminology and those features of the technique that are most convenient to apply. If you are either wildly successful or unsuccessful you will have an automatic and easy publication to your credit. If you have been careful to be rather casual in your interpretation of the technique, you should also be assured of many citations to your article by those writing rejoinders. Even if you find no significant effects, your cocktail party presence will be enhanced by the fact that you will be considered a worker on the frontiers of science. Most important, your students will have had the opportunity to serve as a part of the Noble Effort to Further Mankind’s Knowledge. Ignore those students who complain that they were more interested in furthering their own knowledge.

6. **Promise to have the system serving 1,000 students by next month.** Your manager or funding agency will be impressed by your positive attitude, and your name will be mentioned with reverence for at least a few weeks. Skilled practitioners can stretch their moment of glory out for several months beyond the promised deadline by the simple expedient of writing lots of memos claiming that you would be right on schedule if it were not for unexpected problems with (pick one or more of the following): (1) hardware delivery, (2) hardware design, (3) hardware reliability, (4) staff cuts, (5) staff increases, (6) need for more staff, (7) software delivery, (8) software design, and/or (9) software reliability.
7. **Budget only for hardware.** “Everyone” knows that new technology is really only hardware. Support this view by asking only for enough to get that hardware into your building. Naturally, once the hardware is there, it will become evident that a great deal of added effort will be needed before it can be used effectively. When your ungrateful colleagues decline the opportunity to leap to your rescue by volunteering to do that work in their spare time, begin writing memos indicating that the hardware has arrived on time, but that a lack of vision on the part of your coworkers is hindering its glorious application (see also 6. above).
8. **Assume that the great majority of the CBE work is done by computer programmers.** If they call it Computer-Based Education, then computers are obviously the most important component, and who knows more about computers than computer programmers? Why complicate life by trying to manage a team of subject-matter experts, instructional design professionals, graphics designers, and evaluation specialists in addition to computer programmers? In fact, everyone knows that any 13-year-old knows all about computers and computer programming. If it were not for those outrageous child labor laws, we could get everything done by kids at a couple dollars per hour, and the resulting materials would be good for students. After all, in real-life, you have to learn from sources of information that are often inaccurate and presented in a fashion that is sometimes incomprehensible. Why should students have it easier?

Some Conclusions Based on Items One Through Eight

A few common threads run through most of the above techniques. One is a lack of appropriate attention to the capabilities of CBE for instruction. Either ignoring these capabilities or making them ends in themselves is a mistake.

A second error is a lack of attention to the current status and future needs of students. The needs of different students are not likely to be met by material which ignores differences or bases individualization solely on “educated” guesses. In the absence of reliable prescriptions for effective instruction, we must rely heavily on empirical cut-and-dry approaches. Fortunately, CBE provides several features (ease in data gathering and revision of material) which aid such approaches. Unless maximum use is made of these special features as well as those features which make CBE attractive as a medium, CBE will continue to be simply a rather expensive experimental technique.

A third error is in assuming that the hardware is what is really important in educational technology. Hardware is a great tool, but it works in education only when supported by a lot of skilled human effort. The real teaching is not done by computer or even by people who know how to talk to computers, but rather by humans skilled in the nuances of the subject matter being taught and in the techniques of communicating those nuances to other humans. In the development and implementation of CBE, you may plan milestones for all major events and assign projected dates for their completion, but underestimating the amount of human effort required and voicing or declaring too much confidence in the date on which a future milestone will be achieved will almost certainly result in a loss of credibility or in termination of support. Though it will be difficult to budget for the human resources required to implement CBE, those needs are real and must be estimated if implementation is to be successful. In a common practical situation, where funding is limited, consider estimating the amount of money available, and work backwards from that figure to a level of specificity of deliverables acceptable to your institution. Rather than attempting to gain approval for new funds down the road, it may also be easier to change funds from one category to another when the CBE system becomes operational.

A final similarity among all of the poor approaches described above is the fact that all are used to some extent by virtually every CBE author. It will always be difficult for humans to avoid being entranced by a new gadget, to avoid testing the limits of their own abilities, and to avoid (particularly under time pressures) using familiar rather than unfamiliar approaches and snap judgments rather than time-consuming alternatives. Nevertheless, they all are poor approaches, and wide use or the weaknesses of the species do not alter that fact.

Topics Generated Via the Author's Faculty Internet Hot-Line

As over 20,000 of our graduates can tell you, we are convinced that computers have a vital role to play in cost-effective criminal justice training. Our current pioneering "state of the audience" microcomputer lessons in Appendix A and arrangement of those lessons by module in Appendix B are based on instructional techniques proven effective in training over 20,000 sworn police officers of city, town, county, state, and federal agencies.

Over the years, some solutions to education and training problems have been developed by the authors and staff associates of the Police Training Institute and ILETSB. For almost three years, we have been responding to questions about CBE on the Internet <www.staff.uiuc.edu/~royw> that could be answered based on the author's collective experience.

If you have heeded the sage advice in items one through eight as presented in this paper and implemented it carefully in your program, you are well on the way to ensuring the demise of your CBE effort, but Internet inquiries to the authors suggest two more approaches to disaster.

9. **Computer teaching lessons should be treated just like books.** It is not appropriate to view computer lessons as books. They are more like individual

tutors. By bringing the Internet and World Wide Web (WWW) into the picture as first introduced in the Police Training Institute at the University of Illinois by two of the authors (Walker and Avner) in May 1996, we can involve the benefits of currency, branching, tailored feedback, required responses, repetition, and simulation that would be present in the best tutoring environment to complement the traditional classroom instruction (Walker, Janssen, & Avner, 1997a). We can also extend the instruction to any number of locations simultaneously or even replace the physical classroom. Students can interact with the instructor outside of class hours, view materials from libraries and other virtual resources around the world, run interactive software, complete homework assignments, consult subject matter experts, collaborate with other students, and communicate in other ways consistent with active learning. This is the virtual classroom approach as described by Ball (1998) and Walker, Janssen, and Avner (1998).

10. Intimidate your inexperienced users. There are many members of the instructional staff who have little experience with instructional computers. They can be easily intimidated. Instead of making the computer seem more of a threat than a helper, start with an aspect of good instruction with which they are already familiar. Good instruction historically has been based upon questioning. By bringing computer technology into the picture as first introduced in the Police Training Institute at the University of Illinois by Education Professor J. Richard Dennis, we can involve the benefits of currency, tailored feedback, required responses, repetition, and multi-media as would be present in the best tutoring environment (Dennis, Flammang, & Walker, 1979). In optimizing the learning of concepts, principles, and factual information, one must be aware of several important principles:

1. A single question correctly answered once carries a relatively low probability of signifying learning.
2. A single question, correctly answered several times, increases the probability that learning has occurred, but also increases the probability that such learning is rote memorization.
3. Correctly responding to several similar (but not identical) questions on an objective increases the probability that learning has occurred and minimizes the chance that such learning is other than desirable.
4. Questions eliciting incorrect responses must be revisited more frequently and a greater number of times to ensure correction of the misconceptions.
5. Incorrect responding requires very specific and appropriate feedback to facilitate correction of a misconception.

An instructor, alone, cannot affect the level of instructional complexity implied by the preceding principles. Neither do the conventional instructional media. Some type of automated individualization and management assistance is required. This is an appropriate instructional task for a computer system. Most instructors already have the knowledge component of their program cast in terms of objectives and subobjectives. For each objective, a pool (set) of questions is created representing the knowledge and behavior associated with the objective. This pool contains questions causing the learner to address the objective from several points of view. These questions are entered into a computer-controlled question bank that preserves the clustering by objective and subobjective.

Such a facility may be used in several ways. For initial instruction, objectives and subobjectives may be grouped to form self-study facilities. Included with such an organization would be assignments to multimedia facilities, readings, etc. The computerized questioning facility would have an instructor-planned curriculum. Keeping records on the student about successes and weaknesses allows the study principles mentioned above to be invoked.

This mode of computer application is referred to as computer-managed instruction (CMI). Studies of similar instructional systems in other settings suggest that each student will encounter two to three times as many questions in a unit of time as in conventional instructional environments. The more important attribute, however, is that when questioning is responsive to each individual, learning rates increase.

A second way to use a computerized question bank is to provide the student with a means for self-initiated review. In this mode, the student would receive questioning on objectives- or subobjectives of his or her choice. These could be confined to a single objective, a cluster of objectives, or a comprehensive survey over all of the objectives in preparation for an examination.

Still another use of an automated question bank is to administer evaluation activities. The reader may have to pause at this suggestion, thinking that using questions for both study and testing in some way destroys the credibility of the testing. This is not a concern when the set of items for each objective is more than a few questions. As a practical matter, in most of the areas of police science, a pool of eight has been found to be more than enough. At this level, the probability of having study activities identical to testing activities drops to nearly zero.

The authors can be contacted through their website at <www.staff.uiuc.edu/~royw> for reviews; an e-mail box for asking questions, including how to get started in developing your own courseware; and running computer-based police training demonstrations live via the Internet.

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Appendix A

Listing of Lessons by Hour

Lessons	Equivalent Classroom Hour (ECH) ¹
Arson Crime Scene Search, The	.6
Arson Drill and Practice Review	.2
Child Sex Exploitation	.4
Child Sex Exploitation Drill and Practice	
Communication in the Police Environment	.6
Communication in the Police Environment Final Exam	
Community Policing: Police Community Relations	.4
Community Policing Myths and Case Study Analysis	
Crime Scene Search	.2
Crisis Intervention	10
Crisis Intervention Final Exam	
Crowd-Mob-Riot Behavior	.2
Crowd-Mob-Riot Behavior Drill and Practice	
Emotional Stability for Police Officers	10
Evidence Potential, Packaging, and Transmittal	.2
Feedback, TA, and Personality Traits Drill and Practice	.1
Illinois Domestic Violence Act Drill and Practice	.2
Interviewing and Interrogation	10
Interviewing and Interrogation Final Exam	
Jail Climate	.2
Jail Climate Final Exam	
Leadership Styles	.6
Motor Vehicle Theft	.2
Observation and Perception: Street Communication	.6
Packaging and Transmittal of Evidence (Part One)	.2
Packaging and Transmittal of Evidence (Part Two)	.2
Passenger Vehicle Identification	.4
Police Management: Problem Personnel	.4
Police Management: Problem Personnel Case Study Analysis	
Police Use of Deadly Force	.4
Police Use of Deadly Force Final Exam and Case Study Analysis	
Report Writing Drill and Practice	.1
Sexual Harassment in Policing	.6
Stabilizing the Traffic Accident Scene	10
Stress Management	10
Stress Test (Drill and Practice)	.2
Test Your Evidence Potential I.Q.	.2
The Arson Crime Scene Search	.6
The Functional Components of Interrogation	.2
The Police and the Underprotected Child	.20
The Police and the Underprotected Child Drill and Practice	
Variant Behavior	10
Variant Behavior Final Exam	10
Pretest and Posttest (Variations by Lessons and Modules)	.2
Total	154
Drill and Practice (17 Basic topics, a total of 897 items)	15-30
Total	169-184

¹ Equivalent Classroom Hours (ECHs) represent an estimate of the time it would take to teach each lesson in the traditional classroom setting.

Appendix B

Suggested Arrangement of Lessons by Module Crisis Management Leadership Module

This microcomputer module is designed to provide the police officer with a variety of competencies intended to ensure appropriate development of effective crisis management leadership skills involving critical operational problems. The purpose of the pretest and posttest is to verify that the students have the prerequisites for instructional modules, and when completed, that they have demonstrated the required level of learning.

Lessons	Equivalent Classroom Hour (ECH)
Sexual Harassment in Policing	6
Leadership Styles	6
Police Management: Problem Personnel	4
Stress Management	10
Community Policing: Police Community Relations	4
Crowd-Mob-Riot Behavior	2
Police Use of Deadly Force	4
Crisis Intervention	10
Pretest and Posttest	2
	Total 48

Note 1. The hours listed are Equivalent Classroom Hours (ECHs) which represent an estimate of the time it would take to teach each lesson in the traditional classroom setting.

Note 2. Student study guides have been developed for almost all lessons with the exception of the drills.

Emotional Stability, Stress, and Variant Behavior Module

Street-level oriented, the instruction is intended to address selected major operational problems on the street (e.g., emotional instability due to a mismatch among emotions, expectations, and behaviors; failure to understand what is happening under physical and psychological stress; and on-scene operational ineffectiveness in responding to disturbed person's calls). The purpose of the pretest and posttest is to verify that the students have the prerequisites for instructional modules, and when completed, that they have demonstrated the required level of learning.

Lessons	Equivalent Classroom Hour (ECH)
Emotional Stability for Police Officers	10
Stress Test	2
Variant Behavior	10
Pretest and Posttest	2
Total	24

Interviewing and Interrogation Module

The instruction is intended to address selected major operational problems on the street (e.g., failure to obtain necessary information in situations calling for precise application of interview and interrogation skills; arid general street operational difficulties due to a lack of communication skills). The purpose of the pretest and posttest is to verify that the students have the prerequisites for instructional modules, and when completed, that they have demonstrated the required level of learning.

Lessons	Equivalent Classroom Hour (ECH)
Communication in the Police Environment	6
Interviewing and Interrogation	10
Observation and Perception: Street Communication.	6
The Functional Components of Interrogation	2
Pretest and Posttest	2
Total	26

Investigation Procedures Module

With an on-the-street orientation, the instruction is intended to address selected major operational problems (e.g., expecting too much from the forensic science/crime laboratory due to overestimating the relative value of physical evidence submitted and making improper submissions; inaccurate decoding and reporting of vehicle identification numbers [VINs]; improper protection of the crime scene resulting in the contamination, loss, or unnecessary movement of physical evidence items, any one of which is likely to render the evidence useless; failure to prepare clear, concise, accurate, and effective reports; and forgetting or ignoring proper procedures when faced with complex traffic accidents and time pressures). The purpose of the pretest and posttest is to verify that the students have the prerequisites for instructional modules, and when completed, that they have demonstrated the required level of learning.

Lessons	Equivalent Classroom Hour (ECH)
Crime Scene Search	2
Packaging and Transmittal of Evidence (Part One)	2
Packaging and Transmittal of Evidence (Part Two)	2
Passenger Vehicle Identification	4
Stabilizing the Traffic Accident Scene	10
Test Your Evidence Potential I.Q.	2
Pretest and Posttest	2
Total	24

Child Abuse/Neglect Investigation Module

Street-level oriented, the instruction is intended to address the problem of oversimplified perceptions of a sophisticated multidimensional social phenomena, coupled with the need for a wider focus during the initial stages of the investigation of child abuse/neglect allegations. The purpose of the pretest and posttest is to verify that the students have the prerequisites for instructional modules, and when completed, that they have demonstrated the required level of learning.

Lessons	Equivalent Classroom Hour (ECH)
Child Sex Exploitation	4
The Police and the Underprotected Child	20
Pretest and Posttest	2
Total	26

Special Programs

Miscellaneous Lessons	Equivalent Classroom Hour (ECH)
Feedback, TA, and Personality Traits Drill and Practice	1
Illinois Domestic Violence Act Drill and Practice	2
Jail Climate	2
Report Writing Drill and Practice	1
Pretest and Posttest	2
Drill and Practice (897 items with 1,794 feedbacks)	15-30
Total	24-39

Motor Vehicle Theft Investigation Module

Lessons	Equivalent Classroom Hour (ECH)
Evidence Potential, Packaging, and Transmittal*	2
Motor Vehicle Theft	2
Passenger Vehicle Identification*	4
The Functional Components of Interrogation*	2
Pretest and Posttest	2
Total	12

Note 3. The asterisks identify a lesson tailored for more than one module. The modules listed are optional. Curricula are available for the modules with the exception of Arson Investigation and Special Programs. The curricula feature a seminar component with practical activities.

Arson Investigation Module

Lessons	Equivalent Classroom Hour (ECH)
Arson Drill and Practice Review	2
Passenger Vehicle Identification*	4
Stress Management*	10
The Arson Crime Scene Search*	6
The Functional Components of Interrogation*	2
Pretest and Posttest	2
Total	26

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Introduction to the Police Training Institute's Problem-Based/Student-Centered Curriculum

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Introduction

The University of Illinois Police Training Institute, in conjunction with the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board (ILETSB), has been in the process of developing a problem-based/student-centered curriculum for the past several years. In developing and implementing this new curriculum delivery model, traditional, innovative, and unique ideas have been incorporated into the philosophy and structure of the curriculum. This new direction was researched and validated through countless hours of planning and research within the current academy structure. The most important factor in developing and implementing this new curriculum delivery model was recognition and understanding by the ILETSB and the Police Training Institute that change was needed. Although change is never easy, the need for such change was clearly essential in achieving a training methodology that best serves the new police officers and the communities they are hired to protect and serve.

As part of the initial phases within the new curriculum development, it was vital that the Police Training Institute establish and clearly define the academy's values, standards, and discipline structure. It was also essential to recognize that the communities represented by the attending officers needed to be included in the planning and development process. A commitment toward a common goal was, and is, at the forefront of this process. We recognized that in training new officers, there are fundamental values, assumptions, skills, concepts, and standards that guide professional police training. It was recognized that the new officers also brought much to this process and that as adult learners, we needed to approach this process quite differently.

In the past, much of the curriculum delivery and content was left up to the instructional staff, who not only presented their material, but also interpreted it for the new officers. The Police Training Institute, now for the first time, has established clear guidelines and foundations for the delivery and evaluation of this new curriculum delivery method, thus reducing the ever-present risk of inconsistent and contradictory material being presented.

The Process

One of the greatest challenges faced was trying to identify what fundamental values, skills, and concepts were to be presented and how they related to policing. In fact, there was much debate on whether some of these areas could even be identified. The curriculum development group wrestled with this for

several months and knew that in order to begin, it would have to establish starting points.

In establishing these starting points, we first drew on our own knowledge and experience in delivering professional police training in all of its facets. We then went to many of our clients and sought input as to their needs and the needs of their communities. We then looked at other training academies and visited other training programs such as the Maryland and Illinois Police Corps and The Royal Canadian Mounted Police programs to research their unique approach to training. Our staff also sought training in adult education from the ILETSB and spent time meeting with Dr. Karen Spencer whom ILETSB brought in for training development. By combining all of these resources, we were able to identify and form the basis and framework of this curriculum delivery method.

The Conceptual Foundation

To form the framework of this problem-based/student-centered police curriculum, topics or core areas were developed to encompass and integrate into all training portions of the curriculum. The curriculum also had to provide police recruits with the basic knowledge and skills necessary to become police officers. The core areas were not designed to function and be delivered in isolation as in the past. There needed to be a connecting relationship between these core areas, and when connected, they formed the framework for the curriculum. The core areas that were decided upon and developed are Law, Communications, Community Policing, Health and Fitness, Physical Skills, and Strategy and Tactics. These core areas encompass and include all training areas in the problem-based/student-centered police curriculum.

Under this type of training format, the core areas are enhanced by development of training units covering a wide range of subject matters. These would include, but are not limited to, legal topics, patrol tactics, interpersonal skills, physical/mental fitness, motor skills, use of force, report writing, domestic violence and related areas, investigations, human behavior, cultural diversity, firearms, and traffic enforcement. The importance of the interrelation of these core areas and the fundamental principles of this type of delivery serve as a philosophical guide and foundation for this new curriculum model and its delivery.

These enhanced core topics have a direct relationship with traditional police training and clarifying current curriculum material. It must be remembered that essential basic police officer recruit knowledge and behavioral skills are the emphasis in developing this curriculum delivery model. The guiding principles utilized are not, nor were they intended to replace or substitute current curriculum. The emphasis was on delivering the current information in a more realistic and adult-centered fashion.

The Process

Once the process began, all areas were examined in an attempt to fully reorganize and integrate them into this delivery system. No area was left untouched as this model progressed. Every area from student rules, regulations, and disciplinary procedures to experiential and scenario-based practical exercises were examined,

and determinations were made to integrate all into the recruit's lifestyle. The redeveloped curriculum was designed to provide instruction, skills, and most importantly, police-related experiences for the new recruit. The core areas encompass education, philosophical views such as cultural diversity and community policing, and skills and evaluation abilities that enhance all of the units taught. To effectively ensure that this curriculum is integrated into these core areas along with all other aspects of the recruit's performance, the following were included homework assignments, experiential and integrated scenarios, written and performance-based testing and most importantly, the debriefing process that all recruits go through each and every time they perform their duties. Officers are highly encouraged to question each other, debate, and discuss their own actions and the actions of others, and discuss the content of the material as they learn to apply it.

Delivery Modifications/Adjustments

As the development of this curriculum continues and is constantly updated, it is presented to the recruit classes. The result of delivering this model at various times and in various ways allows the committee to develop a sequential methodology that progresses in a much more deliverable fashion thereby enhancing understanding by the recruit and allowing for knowledge learned to be tried repeatedly under increasingly more difficult circumstances. It was discovered that by rearranging the order in which topics had previously been taught in the curriculum, information could be presented in a more timely manner thus allowing for practice later in the delivery. (This did not extend the amount of time mandated but actually increased the amount of practice time available within the current 480-hour curriculum.) This was accomplished by eliminating stand-alone, lecture-centered units and incorporating them into either reading assignments or practical exercises. It simply maximized the content and delivery allowing more time for the recruits to perform what they had learned.

To accomplish this goal, different methods of delivery were identified and are currently in use. These methods include classroom instruction in the form of chunked lectures, skills sessions, experiential scenarios, integrated practical scenarios, homework assignments, group discussions, and both individual and group projects.

Within the first few days of training, the recruits are introduced experientially to the core areas. The first week sets the foundation for the remainder of the academy. Emphasized during the first week are the areas of Law, Communications, Community Policing, Health and Fitness, Physical Skills, and Strategy and Tactics. This introduction sets the basis for all that is to follow.

As each week progresses, recruits continue to receive instruction and training that builds on each area taught and integrates the core areas and their principles. The goal of this type of delivery is to build on and strengthen the recruit's academic, problem-solving, and evaluative skills; physical, ethical, and emotional abilities; as well as those skills necessary for survival. Recruits are encouraged to question and debate all material learned while attempting to apply it to many of the current social issues of our time.

Lesson Plans Development

The Police Training Institute's Curriculum Development Committee developed a new lesson plan format that is the foundation of the material taught. It focuses on recruit behaviors and contains all the administrative and support information needed as well as the projected behaviors for that unit of instruction. This is an ongoing process and is being developed by the training staff as the curriculum is delivered. This type of lesson plan development allows us to view the training in a sequential fashion and most importantly outlines, for the first time, the recruit's behaviors that should be observed. This is also a structured document that contains the material needed to view the curriculum as a whole.

These lesson plans adapt and concentrate on adult learning principles. These principles include traditional lecture format, chunked lecture, guided group discussion, case studies, experiential based scenarios, integrated scenarios, practical exercises, reading, homework, student-centered evaluations, and debriefings. The emphasis is on the delivery of the material presented with the bottom line question being, "How can we get the recruit involved in this unit of instruction?" These lesson plans allow staff to view them and decide how they want to facilitate a unit of instruction should they have to fill in for another.

Facilitating Scenario-Based Training

It was felt by the training staff that there would be a shift from instructor-centered presentations to more student-centered learning. This prompted a necessary change in how instructional staff would respond to students during the learning process. With the goal in mind of letting the students discover the answers for themselves, the obvious form of instructor interaction would be that of facilitating, that is, leading the discussion or debriefing by the use of guided questions while letting the students themselves discuss possible outcomes. Techniques such as group and individual assessments, redirecting of questions back to the group, and the use of training aids (debriefing cards) are being used to emphasize self-analysis of behaviors rather than the instructional staff telling them the do's and don'ts.

The purpose of the integrated practical exercises is to allow the recruits to analyze and evaluate themselves and their peers while dealing with complex community, social, and tactical issues. It requires the recruits to apply, at various stages, their training up to that point and sometimes beyond in order to prepare them for upcoming training units while reinforcement of behaviors learned is constantly applied. Many of these integrated practical exercises are designed around "community environments" allowing for the delivery of problem-based issues facing police officers on a daily basis.

This type of delivery and the manner in which it is facilitated allows the entire curriculum to be constantly reviewed as the recruits move throughout their training. Most practical exercises are videotaped, allowing the officers to view themselves any time. This provides a systematic approach and calculated exposure to the recruits to expedite the learning process. All units of instruction then become mutually supporting thus allowing instructional staff to develop scenarios that feed upon and continue the training. An example is the legal issues and

information required to obtain an arrest warrant. The recruits first have to obtain the warrant; then a judge must issue the warrant; finally, the warrant must be served by a team of recruits. The overall goal is to provide the recruits with the opportunities to problem solve by applying their training experiences in a step-by-step building process leading to more complex issues thus enhancing their analytical and evaluative skills.

The Future

The exciting and highly visible changes that the instructional staff have observed are lending support to this new delivery model. While teaching and sometimes learning are difficult under these constantly changing conditions, the positive impact it is having on recruits far outweighs the negatives. This new delivery model is a living entity that is constantly changing to reflect those issues mentioned. Recognizing that these recruit officers can handle this type of training methodology makes for a more dynamic and enhanced training environment.

It has been said that change is a process not an event. Change is about the getting, the going, the moving from here to there. Change is even the turmoil, sometimes the confusion. The goal is not the payoff; it's what you experience and learn getting to it. Change is about self-discovery. The University of Illinois Police Training Institute welcomes change and the self-discovery that it brings.

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Responding to the New Challenges in Police Training: Speculation on the Future

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"The more things change, the more they are the same."

– Jean Baptiste Alphonse Karr

The Loop

The subject of police training is a problematic discourse that defies simplistic interpretations. The coming changes to and expectations of society will require law enforcement leaders to reexamine many of the fundamental components of police training. The community-oriented policing philosophy adopted by agencies nationwide continues to drive an extraordinary change in policing.

More than 30 years ago, the President's Commission on Crime and the Administration of Justice issued its final report, "The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society."¹ The commission's report set the agenda for an unprecedented array of justice system improvements. Increased professionalism among police officers and the decrease in crime rates were among the commission's most important accomplishments. Today police are facing new challenges in both of these areas.

The most exciting part of professionalization is police training and education. The important issue to keep in mind regarding education and training is the purpose and function of these learning concepts. Generally speaking, education is a process in which the student broadens his or her intellect and develops a base of knowledge upon which values and judgment are established. The higher education process is a period in which the student broaden his or her understanding; become acquainted with the sciences; and develop evaluative, intellectual, and decision-making capabilities. The educational process assists the individual in making increasingly complicated social decisions and responding more effectively to variant conditions and circumstances and provides a backdrop for continued education, learning, and training.

Training is a learning process designed to enhance task- and skill-oriented mastery. Emphasis in training is concentrated not on the education of the individual but on identifying tasks to be performed and specific protocols to be followed to ensure successful completion of a given job. A quality education will help the officer decipher policies and procedures, aid in reasoning, and identify options. Quality

education and training are quintessential to the learning process of our future police officers.²

The 19th and 20th centuries demonstrated an interesting development in police education and training.

The Political Era

The growth of urban police systems in the mid-19th century had one vivid characteristic—personnel policies during this era were virtually nonexistent. Police officers had no training and very limited education. The phrase, “The Gilded Age” (1866-1899) was coined by Mark Twain to underscore his disenchantment with a late 19th century America that he viewed as corrupt, materialistic, and tawdry.³ The police incompetence during the period was widespread; there was no training except learning by experience from other poorly trained officers. This period can be identified as “in-practice training” because there were no special training institutions, requirements, standards, and so on. The experienced officer, who was a mentor and patron for a rookie, had a combination of roles, including “selection commission, instructor, and field training officer.” His responsibilities were limited because most hiring decisions were political. It was not only necessary for the mentor to train the newcomer but also to keep him out of “trouble.” There were no definite training techniques except “do as I do.” The only advantage to this kind of training was that it was the first hand experience and that there were close links between the generations of police officers.

The Professional Era

Since the beginning of the 20th century, police practitioners, academics, and investigation commissions have noted the poor quality of police personnel and pointed out the need for intelligence, honesty, and sensitivity in police officers. Among the scholars, the most vocal support of higher police personnel standards were August Vollmer, Bruce Smith, and O. W. Willson who believed in education, training, discipline, and the use of modern technology in policing.⁴ Supporting their views were the findings and recommendations of investigating commissions, most notably the Wickersham Commission in 1929 and the President’s Crime Commission in 1967. Central police academies were created to offer comprehensive training programs to recruit officers. Recruit schools often lasted for months, and a precedent for lengthy periods of police training was established. After World War II, hundreds of two-year institutions were established across the country, many of which instituted police science programs.⁵

Even so, the President’s Commission in 1967 found that preservice training was inadequate, inservice training was rare, and little emphasis was placed on advanced education for policemen, especially broad-based education. As a result, the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP) was created to provide financial aid to students seeking or continuing a career in criminal justice.

As the 1970s dawned, police departments began to show dramatic increases in the educational levels of their personnel.

This period can be identified as *academic and pedagogical training* because most of the police training institutions adopted the traditional lecture-seminar method.

The Community – A New Political Era

In most major jurisdictions today, the need for intelligent, sensitive, flexible people in policing has finally been accepted. Police departments are hiring more and more well-educated people.

Research into the on-duty activities of American police conducted by the Bureau of Justice Statistics indicates that officers spend 10% of patrol activity on criminal-related matters and the remaining 90% on a variety of service-related calls (e.g., neighborhood disturbances, conflict resolution, etc.) Other studies have found that police officers spend about 20% of their time dealing with actual crimes or violations and that they devote the majority of their remaining time to service-oriented aspects. Many police scholars have drawn similar conclusions.⁶

What kind of training are new recruits receiving? In most of today's police academies and police training institutes, they are receiving crime fighting or crime control training. Such training is referred to as basic or recruit training and roughly consists of patrol techniques and criminal investigation, force and weaponry, legal issues, administration, communications, criminal justice systems, and human relations. A 1986 survey of municipal and state police agencies (in cities with at least 50,000 population) indicated that the mean (average) length of basic training was 13.5 weeks or 541 hours.⁷

Since most of the time police officers are dealing with non-crime-related problems, this current police training is not adequate. Law enforcement officers are not being prepared for social problem-solving. They have to receive social problem-solving training or social work training.

Police departments in the next century have to be an agency that can take, analyze, and then give a diagnosis and treatment for police-related social problems. In order to do so, police departments must have adequate funding and a mechanism for influencing the government. Police departments are going to be the feedback agent for the local, state, and federal government in solving social problems.

How does training have to be changed in this respect? Instead of crime fighters from paramilitary institutions with the skills of "soldiers," a "social analyst-worker" combination will be required.

What specific additions to crime fighter training do we have to provide for police officers in the immediate future? We need to provide the necessary skills for police officers to analyze and diagnose problems in each of their respective jurisdictions. We have to train police officers on how to prevent social problems from occurring again. The availability of departmental social workers and psychologists would be helpful in this area. If the problems reoccur, we have to give officers the skills and knowledge to limit the damage and restore peace to the victim/family/community.

Today, law enforcement officers have ever-increasing opportunities to participate in training offered by a variety of training institutes.

The most fundamental change that we can see today in the instructional methods is a drift from traditional methods in a lecture format towards self-directed learning, or *andragogical police training*, which is practical in nature.

Police scholars have long argued that instruction should become learner-centered rather than teacher-centered.⁸ In various current law enforcement publications, a new model of training featured is “Florida’s Revolution.” “The state of Florida is changing to scenario-based training. We are getting away from the talking-head lecture,” pronounced A. Leon Lowry II, director of professionalism (which includes training) for the Florida Department of Law Enforcement.⁹

One of the main problems of present-day police training is the focus on what the police do, rather than on the community and crime. The turn from train to fight to train to treat and serve allows us to compare police training with medical training which is a comprehensive combination of knowledge (science) and practical exercises.

Training should include the ability to transfer from imaginary time, place, and criminal to real situations in the community.

An intermediate methodology between imaginary training and realistic training is the use of role-playing exercises. Each area of police training can be converted into fairly realistic role-playing exercises. Even the legal training of the cadets, which is usually based on memorization of laws and cases, has to be converted into the use of legal interpretations during actual courtroom role-playing.

This turn to self-directed learning methods and philosophy shows that the police training made a loop from practical training, through mainly academic training, to the new level of practical training based on adult learning concepts and real-life situations within the community.

This training requires first-hand experience from the instructors and practical knowledge. The future of police training is in practical training with a possible relocation of portions of the training to the police departments and the streets. It is possible to see the combination of police departments and training institutions under “one roof” in the future.

Thus, police training has evolved:

- The content of training has to reflect the new political era in which the police are influencing politicians and pushing them toward socially correct decisions, but not vice versa.
- The method of training has to be practical, experiential, and first hand. It must follow the adult learning model.

From Combat to Ethics Training

“Adam was but human—this explains it all. He did not want the apple for the apple’s sake; he wanted it only because it was forbidden.”

– Mark Twain

Kenneth Culp Davis, emphasizing the central role of police in the justice system, estimated that about half of the discretionary decisions made by criminal justice agencies were made by police.¹⁰

Because of the shift of U.S. law enforcement from the traditional to the community-policing model, or from the reactive to the proactive paradigm, the amount of time for an officer dealing with noncriminal activities is increasing dramatically.¹¹

As George Kelling stated,

Skillful order maintenance activities acknowledge that squeegeeing, like prostitution, panhandling, and drug dealing, will never be eliminated, but good policing can determine the conditions under which and how such activities can take place, and bring them into line with the community standards. Was the officer taught how to use discretion in this fashion while he was in the academy?¹²

Of course not. Most likely the officer learned about how to deal with discretion on the streets from more experienced officers or has developed his or her own guidelines, which are based on his or her values and morals. The research, which was conducted by Bergner shows that for the question “What do I wish I’d known my first day on the job as a police officer?” the highest common response was “professional attitudes and values,” and among them “discretion,” “spirit of law, not letter,” “we work for the public,” and others.¹³

The increased contact that the police have with citizens requires officers receive more training in such areas as discretion, ethics, interpersonal interaction, ethnic diversity, drug and alcohol awareness, domestic violence, and so on.

The police officer has to change the image to get respect and strength from the citizens. He or she has to be not a “human in law and force” but the *homo morale*. When the police are enforcing the law in some way, they are dividing citizenry into “us and they,” but when the police use ethics as a basis for action, it unifies law enforcement agencies and the people. These codes are reinforcing internal relations of agencies but not the relations between police and citizenry.

Interestingly, most of the police departments in the U.S. have codes of ethics, which are mainly internal documents not widely applied in the real world.

Also, the exercise of discretion is often shaped by ethical considerations, because in many instances, a police officer makes a decision to act or not to act, to enforce the law or not to.

The common way of developing relations in a group of academy cadets going through socialization in the police academy and police department is deindividuation. It is a result of pressure exerted by the group, and people lose the ability to regulate their individual behavior. To some extent, the police and correctional officer subcultures evolved because those groups had to protect themselves from the outside influence of new norms and values. These are subcultures in which there are little or no dominant culture values. This subculture of police and correctional officers often covers their "wrong doing." Deindividuation of police officers was necessary because the "rules and morals" of law enforcement agencies were different from that of the communities. The recruit had to jump from one social group to another. The future of police training involves reindividuation. In the future, it will not be necessary to jump from group to group because the officer will follow the community morals, which will be reinforced by the policies of the police department.

From Training "for Everybody and Anybody" to Individualization of Training

"Life . . . is deeds, creativeness, the aim of which is the uninterrupted development of the priceless individual qualities of man."

– Maxim Gorki

Even today, in most police academies, the instructor sees not an individual who has a certain level of skills, abilities, and knowledge but one generalized recruit with a *tabula rasa* of police experiences. Future training will determine and identify the unique level of skills and knowledge of the particular recruit and will develop and implement an individual program of training which will meet the standards.

Present-day training is dealing with individuals, who are entering the police profession with a different set of job expectations and values, different ethnicities and cultures, and different social and ideological backgrounds than their predecessors. The individualization of police training will give a different degree of training to individuals depending on their specific needs.

From Militarization to Humanization of Training

"You can get a lot more done with a kind word and a gun, than with word alone."

– Al Capone

Upon opening any current issue of a law enforcement publication, one will find a pretty accurate mosaic picture of the law enforcement image which is constructed by police officers themselves: firearms, uniforms, weapons, arrest techniques, and so on. The image is silent but aggressive, and citizens are more likely to be apprehensive about communicating with officers.

This stereotypical perception is not surprising since most police departments are designed according to the crime-fighting model.

Police training of the 20th century was paramilitary, and a lot of police training institutions will carry this model into the 21st century (some state police academies, RCMP, and so on). This model and orientation of police training is a good example of ideological inertia.

Paramilitary institutions cannot deal with the people but can fight with them. The police officer of the 21st century, however, will have to be trained in humanistic orientation. Officers must learn how to deal with human behaviors, which can facilitate criminal activity, including love, jealousy, greed, revenge, and so on. This type of training is necessary because a lot of crime and domestic violence are derived from pain and stress. A police officer has to be trained not only in methods of putting a “bad guy” down, but also bringing the suffering citizen up.

From “Board and Chalk” to High-Tech Training

“Give us the tools, and we will finish the job.”

– Winston Churchill

Technology is moving so rapidly that it is almost impossible to stay abreast of how it will affect us today—much less tomorrow. New systems and machines are changing the tools of law enforcement agencies profoundly (i.e., the electronic booking system; remote laser guidance system, brain fingerprinting system; metal, trace explosives, and drug detectors; radars; video; digital imaging; cellular phones and pagers, and so on and so on).¹⁴

Current recruit training, however, does not provide adequate technological and advanced tools training for officers. At the same time, the recruit’s awareness of new technologies is much higher in comparison with a lot of instructors, who are 40- to 50-years-old and use the PC as a typewriter. The gap between general usage of the new technologies and training police officers in this area is growing.

There is no doubt that the demand for technological skill is going to increase tremendously. That is why it is absolutely critical to provide decent new technologies training both for recruits and inservice training for current officers. New technology training is becoming more and more available to the police officers and recruits. The most obvious example is the Internet connection. Today, training for the police officer is available 24 hours a day through the Internet. The development of more distance learning programs that can be made available over the Internet is urgent.

Because of these fast moving technological developments, police training will move from the classrooms to homes, PC screens, tactical training centers, and the streets of the cities.

Several studies have shown that one of the most effective methods of teaching and evaluating judgmental and decision-making skills of shooting, emergency vehicle operation, and pursuit driving is through the use of simulators.¹⁵ Today’s simulators employ virtual reality with varying degrees of sophistication. As this technology evolves, the applications for it will become virtually limitless.

Simulators allow trainees to hone their decision-making skills in potentially life-or-death scenarios. It would be impossible to effectively and safely teach these skills without the use of simulation. Specific problems or situations are artificially reproduced and repeated; this type of training provides a very intensive learning experience for the trainee. Different aspects of the learning process can be separated, allowing specific activities to be practiced until the trainee has mastered them.

In the next decade, virtual reality training in which the police officer can go through scenarios as many times as necessary to establish a skill will be available. Police academies and institutes will research, and methodological centers will provide the courses and programs.

From Decentralization to Unification and Centralization

“Injustice anywhere is the threat to justice everywhere.”

– Martin Luther King, Jr.

Each state in the U.S. has its own unique system of police training: basic, inservice, preservice, and so on. Institutions are different in size, length of courses, numbers, attitudes and rules, and models of training. This wide variety is astonishing because it produces a great amount of new approaches and practices. This “microbrewery environment” of training brings a lot of flavor and competition, which results in intensive searching for new and effective methods of training. This author has visited at least 20 police training institutions, and all had different courses.

This age of uniqueness is coming to an end with the development of federal training programs like the FBI National Academy, FLETC, and others. They may well become the accumulators of positive and effective practices nationwide.

Associations also play a fundamental role in absorbing and really implementing new practices of training. Conferences often distribute new outlooks on methods and content of training. The profound challenge for unification is managing the Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) commissions and boards.

Training Back

“Only in a police state is the job of a policeman easy.”

– Orson Welles

It is necessary for law enforcement to educate citizens about what police are doing to protect them in order to be understood and to truly be a part of the community. The majority of people only have a minute understanding of what police departments are actually doing. The misinterpretation of law enforcement activities creates distrust and fear on the part of the citizens. This affects not only the attitudes towards police forces, but also the status of crime and order in the area. The importance of citizenry education was realized in the U.S. in the 1980s with the creation of citizen police academies. The first recorded U.S. citizen

police academy, in Orlando, Florida, dates back to 1985 when the Orlando Police Department recognized the importance of citizens understanding its operations. The Orlando program was modeled after a citizen police academy in England, which began in 1977.

The citizens' police academies are a tremendous first step in educating the public, but the down side of the academy is the literal copy of the police training institutions, whose missions are actually quite different. The police academy trains professionals with professionals, and the citizens' program must educate on how not to be a victim and the subject of the police activity, and how to cope with other people, police, community members to solve the social problems which confront all of us. In this case, the role of the citizens will be real. They will be not "disabled little brothers and sisters of the police family."

The future of the community-police training is in providing knowledge and skills and developing the abilities of people to be socially healthy in a modern environment. In this model, the policeman is a "social health-officer."

From Solid Cop to Specialist

"Knowledge is of two kinds. We know a subject ourselves, or we know where we can find information upon it."

– Samuel Johnson

One of the fundamental problems of modern police training is that we are training people to do everything in a very limited time frame. The final product of the police academy is a rookie who has some pieces of the "puzzle," but does not know where the rest of the pieces are or how to put them together.

The rookie, in turn, is also a puzzle for police chiefs and supervisors because they don't know which pieces of the puzzle are present and which they have to find and insert.

Future police training will be based on a profound system of continuous evaluation, which will help to decipher how many pieces are missing or have to be restored according to the "individual skills and knowledge passport."

Modern police training is ignoring the division of labor in law enforcement agencies and mainly fulfills the socialization goal for the police departments, preparing recruits to be trained by the streets, other cops, and the social environment.

If compared with the area of medicine, it is "family doctor training," who treats all kinds of patients with thermometer (club), pills (handcuffs), and so on.

Police training is becoming more and more diverse because it has to encompass the vast areas of problem solving, crime fighting, and prevention. Of course, it is unrealistic to presume that it will be possible to obtain specialization in the framework of police academies, inservice training, and other forms of modern police training. It has to be a flexible combination of training and education.

Need for Continuous Update Training

“Even if you are on the right track, you’ll get run over if you just sit there.”

– Will Rogers

The 20th century perception of police training was a painful step before the career of a law enforcement officer actually began. Training was difficult and frustrating in many ways, but it was mainly because instructors were born and shaped in the system and did not know any other ways of instructing except the ways they were taught themselves.

For many decades, the police academy was the only training program through which police officers went during their whole lives. Even today, in some remote areas of the U.S., the situation is just like it was 50 years ago.

The 21st century is going to be socially and technologically very dynamic. The older generation of active law enforcement officers started their careers with radios and typewriters and will be finishing with e-mail and computers. Police training will not be simply the starting point but an ongoing process.

The proof for this trend can be found in mobile training units history. These units were developed recently because of the lack of refresher training.

Today, inservice training is more comprehensive than most basic training if all of the time that police officers and managers spend in seminars, conferences, and inservice programs is considered. Ongoing inservice training is the future of police training.

This trend shows that this aspect of police training will be the everyday practice, and researching community needs will become the norm.

More and more instructors from outside of police departments will be recruited for training purposes because the same level of expertise will not often be found inside the system.

In addition, since we are moving from institutional help to self-help in many areas, we can predict more and more self-training.

The Challenge

“What I hear, I forget; what I see, I remember; what I do, I understand.”

– Confucius, 451 B.C.

Toffler and Toffler caution, “To guarantee democracy’s future in the dangerous decades to come, all the agencies that form part of the American criminal justice system need to rethink their assumptions about tomorrow and to pool their findings.”¹⁶

This article presents a number of responses to the new challenges for police training in the future. First, the crime-fighting model of police training does not match the new role and mission of the police and has to be rethought and redesigned. Secondly, the training methodology is coming back to the old days' practice of training recruits by utilizing the real environment and first-hand experiences of police officers. In addition, police training is moving to individualization, humanization, and high-tech training technologies. Also, the mission of police in the next century will be to change the social environment using community support and participation, making it safe and secure from criminal threat. Policing is going to be an open social institution, which makes it possible for citizens and government to cooperate in establishing law and order. The police job is also evolving from a craft to a science and art, in which police officers will not be mechanical fulfillers of orders, but creators of a social environment devoid of conflict and crime. Lastly, police training is going to be an incessant process of everyday improvements of personnel quality, skill, abilities, and knowledge.

Endnotes

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Prioritizing Police Training: Tight Budgets and Tough Decisions

Thomas Arnold, EdD

There is, I believe, a general consensus among police executives that the preservice and inservice training of police officers is essential to providing their communities with competent and professional police services. In reality, the training budget is often one of the first items to be reduced when departmental budget cuts are required. When it comes to training, we often talk a good game, but in execution, we fall far short of our rhetoric. Although this statement may seem to be of a critical tone, let me add that it is understandable that training must, at times, take a back seat to more vital or pressing departmental needs and functions. What I wish to offer in this article are some suggestions to help guide police executives in making training decisions that provide for a more efficient and logical analysis of training needs and result in a greater degree of cost effectiveness and overall benefit to their agencies.

I'd like to begin by taking time to reflect on why we train. It may seem like this question is too rudimentary or even silly to consider, but some of the less obvious yet important reasons for training get lost in the shuffle of day-to-day management concerns. There are a host of practical reasons for training police officers which I'll address later. For now, I would like to mention some reasons that we may tend to overlook.

Police executives, by virtue of their position, have a moral and ethical responsibility to provide the best possible training for department personnel. This responsibility emanates from a duty to the community that is being served. The citizens of any city, town, or county have an expectation that by funding a public police force with their tax dollars, they will be provided with comprehensive, professional, and responsive police services. When one accepts a position as chief executive officer of a police agency, acceptance of this position is not only a legal one but a moral and ethical one as well. A failure to adequately train police officers is a breach of an obligation and a moral and ethical duty.

There is also an ethical and moral implication in the relationship between management and department personnel. The chief executive officer has a duty to the officers working under him or her to provide them with the best possible tools and training available. It is, in my view, a breach of this obligation to allow officers to perform their duties untrained or undertrained. To ask officers to perform the already difficult and hazardous tasks associated with police work without the proper preparation and support is a breach of professional as well as moral duty.

In addition to the philosophical positions mentioned, there are a host of more practical reasons for providing adequate training to department personnel. One which is always on the minds of administrators is the relationship between training and civil and criminal liability.

To say that we live in a litigious society is an understatement. In many cases, the litigious nature of the citizenry and the legal profession has resulted in a near paralysis of government services. At the very least, significant changes in the way we do business and the services we offer or no longer offer have been directly influenced by litigation. Training is often touted as a means of avoiding or minimizing civil and criminal liability. In many cases, this is absolutely true. It is especially true in law suits alleging a "failure to train." This type of suit has become more commonplace since the landmark case of *Canton vs. Harris*. The courts have recognized that governmental agencies have a duty to train their personnel to perform the duties and tasks associated with their jobs. Although governmental agencies enjoy general immunity from law suits, if it can be shown that the agency knew or should have known that training would reasonably be required to perform the work associated with a specific position and then failed to provide such training, the agency can be held liable. Providing and documenting training that is consistent with the standards of the law enforcement community in which the agency operates is one way of minimizing liability and a practical and acceptable reason to conduct training.

Other legal considerations play a part in why we train. There are statutory training requirements that are commonly found in every jurisdiction. By the mid-1970s, every state had created a governmental agency tasked with regulating police hiring and training standards. In Illinois, that agency is the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board (ILETSB). ILETSEB's statutory authority encompasses several areas of regulation including certain basic qualifications for hiring and mandatory preservice training as well as training in certain police specialties and training for part-time police officers. Compliance with the regulations set by ILETSEB is obviously a valid and necessary reason to conduct training.

In addition to basic police academy training, general and specific departmental training needs must be met in order to meet operational goals and standards. For example, if the department has chosen to install MDTs in its vehicles, department personnel will need to be trained in the use of this new tool. Other examples of general or department-wide training may include weapons transition training, basic computer training, law updates, breathalyzer recertifications, and others. These types of training can be referred to as "skills maintenance training," which is training essential to organizational performance and efficiency. Another type of needs-based training may be called "skills enhancement training." I use this term to refer to the department's need for specialized training of its personnel. Examples would include training associated with the addition of a K-9 program, the need for specialties such as juvenile officer, evidence technician, or accident investigator. This type of training provides the agency with the ability to respond to the changing demands of the community and to new technological developments in the field of policing.

An often overlooked but valid reason for training concerns the career development of department staff. Career development is something that private business and industry is much more attuned to than organizations in the public sector. A career development program may be as simple as asking the employee about his or her future occupational plans and aspirations when conducting a six or 12-month performance evaluation. In a more sophisticated form, some departments encourage and even require employees to develop plans for advancing their skills

and knowledge and to describe their interests and job-related goals. Some agencies link training to compensation and promotion.

Career development programs can help the department in constructing a logical and organized plan to meet future training needs. These programs may also improve retention and employee job satisfaction. Employees tend to feel more satisfied in their work when they are allowed to have some degree of control or influence over their future.

The concept of career development may require us to alter the way we perceive the benefits versus the costs of training. In the field of law enforcement, we tend to want to see some immediate benefit to the department from the training dollars we've spent. Career development programs require us to recognize future benefits as well. They also require us to redefine the relevance and purpose for training. Most agencies are reluctant to send an employee to a training seminar if the topic is not directly related to their current job assignment. This practice may be a bit short-sighted. The community service officer who requests to attend a basic accident investigation course perhaps should be allowed to do so. Many agencies use CSOs to handle property damage accidents on private property. Even if your agency doesn't do so at the present time, it may in the future.

Although an emergency telecommunicator will not assume the role of a hostage negotiator at the scene of a barricaded subject, it is the telecommunicator that usually establishes a dialog with the offender until the "experts" arrive. What I'm suggesting is that if time and money permit, it is beneficial in the long run to support and encourage the occupational interests and aspirations of department personnel.

This discussion of some of the reasons we train has provided a template for formulating a basis for prioritizing training decisions. Making sound and logical decisions as to how to spend our training dollars is essential to good fiscal management and to meeting operational goals. In order to get the most "bang for the buck," the first step in the process should be to establish a plan. At the very least, an attempt should be made to determine and plan for training needs for the next fiscal year. Ideally, planning two, three, and even five years ahead would be recommended. Impossible? Not really. If a plan is recognized as a decision making tool and a starting point for thought and discussion rather than an immutable document written in blood, then thinking about training two and three years down the road will begin to make sense.

Usually, we can make at least an educated guess about future training needs. We can make some basic assumptions about the need for preservice training based on the number of officers who will be retiring in the near future. We may be able to predict when the board of trustees will free up funds to hire additional personnel, and usually, we can forecast new legislative mandates such as the mandatory juvenile officer training signed into law a few years ago. From these estimates, a basic plan can be formulated. We can't predict injuries and disabilities, disciplinary discharges, or voluntary resignations, but the fact that there are variables we can't control or accurately predict is not an excuse to reject the potential benefits of the planning process. Remember the old adage "we don't plan to fail, we just fail to plan."

Using the previous discussion as a guide for prioritizing training decisions takes us to the first consideration which is mandated training. Meeting statutory requirements handed down by the legislature or policies established by the training board or other agencies should be the first consideration when planning the training budget. These decisions will focus on mandatory preservice training of newly hired officers as well as skills enhancement issues related to regulated specialties and recertification of personnel performing special functions such as breathalyzer operator. Satisfying the requirements of regulatory agencies should be a high priority.

Second on the list of training priorities will be the documentation of training that will help to shield the department from civil and criminal liability. This will require an analysis of the areas of police work that cause the most exposure to litigation. The three prominent areas that are the basis for most litigation tend to be (1) use of force, (2) operation of police vehicles, and (3) false arrest/imprisonment.

With a few exceptions, police officers in Illinois are not properly trained in the emergency operation of police vehicles. Basic academy training in most cases consists of classroom instruction only. It is absolutely insane to think that a classroom presentation on EVOC is adequate preparation for police officers to operate their vehicles in a safe and professional manner, especially under emergency conditions. What we end up with is a sworn officer operating a police vehicle with civilian driving skills. Until the curriculum in Illinois police academies is adjusted to rectify this issue, remediation of the problem will fall to individual departments.

Use-of-force training is certainly a concern to police administrators. The use of force is an area of training that should encompass the use of deadly and nondeadly force as well as legal, ethical, and moral considerations. Of particular concern in this area is the use of training simulators. As useful as these machines may be, they are not a replacement for a live fire course of evaluation and instruction. One major flaw associated with the use of simulators is the absence of a properly designed and documented curriculum. Most agencies use the simulators in a stand alone function for use-of-force decisionmaking drills. The problem is that there is no documented curriculum with a stated purpose, goals and tests, and measurements of the outcome. Without a well-conceived, documented course curriculum, the time spent on a simulator is of no use in a court of law. It might as well never have taken place at all. In a program I helped develop, the "use of force" curriculum requires officers to spend one day in a classroom learning the basis for use-of-force decisionmaking including state and federal laws, situational analysis dealing with opportunity, manifest intent, and other basic elements of use-of-force decisionmaking. The curriculum also covers report writing and court room testimony as well as moral and ethical issues. The second day officers use the simulator to apply the knowledge gained in the previous day's classroom instruction. The course culminates with a written exam and a pass/fail grade in the practical exercises. In this example, there is, at the very least, a curriculum in place that can demonstrate, in court, that the department has taken steps to properly train officers in the use of force.

The next tier of training priorities will likely focus on the operational needs of the department. In this area, department managers have a bit more control over the choices they make. In order to maximize the benefits of limited training budgets, planning is a must. Since training is often linked to other initiatives and programs such as the purchase of new technology or changes in policies, each management decision should be evaluated, keeping possible training implications in mind. For example, the installation of mobile data terminals or the addition of a new computer system in the records division will probably require a corresponding training expense. Policy decisions made internally or imposed by an external source such as the state-mandated sex offender registration program will also have a training-related component attached and must be considered when preparing the training budget. Even when training is tuition free, there is also the potential expense of overtime or replacement for the personnel attending training.

Skills enhancement training, especially the addition of specialized functions such as evidence technicians, accident investigators, K-9 officers, and others, can be an expensive proposition and a drain on the training budget. Although we may all desire to be a stand alone police agency with a full compliment of police services to offer the community, it may not always be a valid or cost-effective goal. A careful and objective evaluation of the agency's needs must be conducted before spending limited training funds on the expansion of police services. For example, if the county sheriff has in place a well-organized K-9 unit that has been able to respond to the department's needs in the past, it is probably better to continue to use this resource rather than spend money on an expensive specialty unit that will be of limited or infrequent use. The same holds true for functions like SWAT, accident investigations, and evidence technicians. One chief of police in a sizable Chicago suburb decided to use the services of the Illinois State Police Crime Scene Unit rather than spend money on evidence technician training for officers in his department. His reasoning was that this specialty was not used frequently enough by his department to justify the expense to train and equip personnel to cover all shifts on all days. In addition, he believed that the infrequent use of the training the officers received would result in a loss of much of the knowledge and skill they had acquired during their initial training. Since the state police were able to provide quality service and it was free of charge to the department, it was a more cost-effective choice. Ego and desire have no place in making sound management training decisions.

Using the resources of larger law enforcement agencies is one way to save on training expenses. Another is to share resources with other departments. Cross-utilization of equipment is not particularly unusual. Departments share such things as truck scales, firing range simulators, and other equipment. This practice could be expanded to include the sharing of knowledge and skills. Using another department's range officers, self-defense instructors, or computer savvy personnel to train your staff could be another way to save on training expenses.

Another level of training involves the idea of a career development program as mentioned earlier. It should be understood that this training may have to take a back seat to other priorities, but it should not be excluded from consideration. During the last 18 years of police service, I have been aware of officers who have volunteered to go to training on their own time and even willing to foot the bill for tuition and expenses but were denied permission to do so. Some of these

officers were told that the agency would not sponsor them because of department's potential liability under workmen's compensation laws which, on the whole, is a valid concern. It should, however, be only one component of the decisionmaking process. If the potential for liability is viewed as the dominant consideration, then it is probably a good idea not to train at all. It would be better to regard liability as something that can be reduced or minimized but never completely avoided. As it relates to training, potential liability should not prevent us from allowing department personnel to participate in new learning experiences on the department's time or on their own time if time and money permit.

Where and to whom we send personnel to be trained is an important consideration from both a quality and a fiscal standpoint. Money spent on poor or inadequate training is a waste of the limited resources of the department as well as the employee's time. Fortunately, in Illinois, police departments have available to them a sophisticated network of state-supported training programs in the form of Mobile Training Units (MTUs). These locally based training entities, formed under the auspices of the ILETSB and governed by regional advisory boards, are designed to respond to the training needs of local police agencies. It has been my experience, working with several MTUs over the years, that they provide police departments with quality, affordable training. Whether an agency wishes to purchase an annual membership, giving their personnel unlimited access to training or to pay for training on a course-by-course basis, the MTUs are a bargain.

Other choices exist in both the private and public sector but tend to be more expensive than state-sponsored programs. These programs can still be a worthwhile investment of training dollars, but care must be taken in choosing a training venue or provider with a solid reputation in the field. Organizations like Northwestern University, The Southern Police Institute, and The Institute of Police Training and Management have long standing reputations for delivering quality training. When considering a private training source, it may help to lower expenses if the local MTU is asked to sponsor the training program. State funds can often offset all or a portion of the tuition. If a local MTU is unable to assist, then consider hosting the training yourself and inviting other agencies to send their personnel. Often, these private training providers will give the sponsoring agency several free or reduced tuition seats in the class.

An often forgotten or overlooked training resource is the local community college or university. Although these institutions may not conduct police training per se, they can provide departments with valuable and affordable training resources. Courses in foreign languages, report writing skills, computer operation, general physical fitness and nutrition, and grant writing are some examples with which a local college or university could assist police agencies in meeting some of their training needs. Most, if not all, of these institutions are committed to assisting the local community, including local government, in any way they can and are willing to provide training and education at a reasonable cost.

One final point I wish to make regards the methods or processes we use as a basis for deciding who will be trained and what training they will receive. I have observed that training is sometimes used as either a reward or a punishment. Personnel who are well-liked by management tend to be rewarded with advanced

or specialty training opportunities whereas those employees less highly regarded are often denied training requests. When this practice becomes a part of the culture of the organization and is used as a formal or informal basis for training decisions, it can have significant adverse effects on the agency as a whole.

Sending someone to a course of training for which he or she is ill-prepared is a waste of limited resources. In one case, a fellow deputy requested and was chosen to attend a series of accident investigation courses at Northwestern University, an expensive and difficult course of instruction. This deputy was chosen, in part, because he had an excellent attendance record, good performance evaluations, and got along well with his supervisor and the chief of patrol. The logical assumption would be that this employee would do well in these courses and be a capable and dependable addition to the traffic unit; however, no one bothered to ask why he wanted to enter this specialty or what skills, prior experience, or training he had that would facilitate successful completion of the courses. As it turned out, this deputy's request was motivated by a desire to be reassigned to the day shift rather than a real interest in accident investigations. To make matters worse, the department chose not to administer a pretest, available from Northwestern, to assess the deputy's mathematical abilities, an absolute necessity for this type of training. As a consequence of this flawed process, the deputy in question barely passed the required courses, and after two years of substandard performance as an accident investigator, he was transferred from the unit. The time and money spent training the wrong person was enormous, especially when it became necessary to train another deputy to fill the position only two short years later.

Providing training opportunities to an employee with an average or below average performance rating or one who may not be well-liked because they have an "attitude problem" may seem illogical or counterproductive, at least at first glance, but consider the potential effects a new training experience may have on an officer that is bored or "burned out." Training, particularly specialty training, can reinvigorate or restimulate an employee's interest in his or her job. It also sends a message that he or she is still a valued member of the department and have not been "written off." On many occasions, I have been witness to this type of transformation when a new training experience is provided. It may not always work, and, therefore, it is a little risky, but it has the potential of giving an employee with lackluster performance and failing interest an opportunity to become reinvested in their job with renewed vitality.

Using training as punishment is a poor disciplinary tool. I have had the painful experience of training officers who did not want to be there but were ordered to attend my course. It is next to impossible to teach someone that is completely resistant to the learning experience before them. How anyone can expect a good outcome from this practice is beyond my ability to understand.

I am not suggesting that only officers with a high level of enthusiasm can be trained. If that were the case, we would be conducting very little training at all. Some officers are, occasionally, in need of some type of additional or remedial training. My suggestion is that the training "assignment" be presented in such a manner as to minimize the officer's resistance to the experience. In other words, "sugarcoat" it, if possible. For example, in one case, a deputy, in desperate need of improved communications skills, was sent to George Thompson's Verbal Judo

course. At first, the deputy resented the implication that he needed to improve his communication skills. I suggested to the shift lieutenant that he be told that the department was considering sending everyone to the course, but that it was expensive. Since he was the senior deputy on the shift with the most experience, he was being sent to evaluate the quality of the course and its relevance to police work. He returned with a glowing recommendation of the course, and the number of citizen complaints about his gruff demeanor evaporated. Tactics like this may not always work, but anyone who has been in this business long enough knows that you can issue a ticket and have the driver thank you and wish you a nice day or you can leave him or her angry and pissed off. It all depends on the delivery.

As part of the master training plan, I recommend that the department establish policies and guidelines dealing with the evaluation of training requests and the selection of personnel for training. Having written policies and procedures in place will assist management in making thoughtful and logical decisions and will send a message to the "troops" that the training selection process is fair and equitable and not about favoritism or punishment. Included in this policy should be a requirement that openings for specialty assignments and other training opportunities will be posted for all to read. As part of this plan and policy, I also recommend that an application and résumé requirement be included. It will be a benefit to all concerned if an applicant is required to write a brief summary of the reasons why they wish to attend a specific course, what benefit their attendance will provide to the department, and what knowledge, skills, and experience they have that may contribute to successful completion of the course of study.

I think anyone reading this article will recognize that I have not pushed the envelope of modern policing or shaken the foundation of police management practices. What I have discussed are issues and ideas that are common to every agency I have worked for or observed. My purpose has been to invite the reader to reflect on, review, and revisit the way we look at and formulate training decisions. New learning experiences are very valuable. So to are experiences that lead us to relearn or rethink the what, how, and why of what we have been doing which in turn may lead us to what we should be doing.

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Law Enforcement Executive Education: Towards a Paradigm for the 21st Century

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In recent years, the job of the law enforcement executive has become increasingly complex. Every day, our nation's law enforcement managers must face an array of issues as diverse as budgeting, human resources, technology, and police community relations. In addition to mastering many administrative tasks, police commanders must often wind their way through a complex political system.

As the job of the law enforcement leader changes, the types of training and education in this sector must expand and diversify. As demands on public safety managers increase, it will be necessary for the institutions involved in executive education to reflect that increased complexity and sophistication. This article describes a plan for reaching that objective.

Training America's Police Leaders

The career path for American police managers is different from their counterparts in much of the world. In many countries, potential police leaders attend a police college or similar institution prior to joining the police service. In some countries (e.g., India), admission to the police college is highly competitive. Upon completion of the program, graduates enter the police service at the middle manager rank. They generally do not serve at the police officer rank. This system results in a clear demarcation between police officers and commanders, both in terms of preparation and career development.

Of course, in the American system, police leaders typically enter their organization at the lowest level and work their way up. Most law enforcement officers spend their entire career with one organization. While many departments recruit police chiefs from outside the organization, those chosen from outside have usually worked their way up through another organization.

American police executives in general have less formal education than their international counterparts. While many chief executives have earned advanced degrees, it is not uncommon to find that lower level police managers lack such preparation. Very few organizations make college education a condition of promotion.

It is fair to say that this set of circumstances poses a challenge for law enforcement organizations. They need to develop methods to select and train those individuals who will serve as senior commanders. In some cases, this development must start early in a person's career.

The University-Based Police Training Institution

While police training is provided in a host of different ways, one of the most unique mechanisms is the provision of police executive education through a university. Universities such as the University of Southern California, the University of Louisville, and Northwestern University have been engaged in such work for many years.

In 1936, Northwestern University established the Traffic Institute to provide police managers with training and education in the then emerging field of highway safety. Before long, law enforcement agencies from this country and others were sending officers to Evanston for an academic year. While the program devoted considerable attention to traffic safety, it also focused substantially on the tools required for effective administration (i.e., budgeting, planning, staffing, and law). At a time when only a handful of universities had degree programs in criminal justice existed, the "long course" at the Traffic Institute was truly unique.

In 2000, the Traffic Institute was renamed the Center for Public Safety to reflect the Institute's more diversified activities, particularly in the areas of forensic science and police and fire management. The Center for Public Safety will continue to serve in its traditional role as a provider of high-quality law enforcement training. In addition, we plan to expand our activities to increase our contribution to the public safety community. There are three areas that we believe to be particularly critical: (1) lifelong training and education for public safety managers, (2) cutting-edge research, and (3) police-academic partnerships.

Education for Public Safety Managers

As discussed previously, law enforcement managers rarely come to their organizations with the kinds of education and training that they need to be successful. Many times, in fact, individuals that excel as police officers are promoted to supervisory positions. We know that success in one position will not necessarily result in success in the other. With this in mind, we have developed a three-level approach to management training.

The first course in the management series is Supervision of Police Personnel. This two-week course is designed to prepare the newly appointed supervisor for his or her new role. In particular, we focus on topics like leadership, communication, planning, performance evaluation, discipline, and dealing with problem employees.

Our second management course is the School of Police Staff and Command (SPSC). This ten-week program is designed for those in middle and senior management. We expect that all of the students will have had some preparatory training in supervision. SPSC is organized around four topical areas: (1) understanding management, (2) law enforcement management and its environment, (3) human resource administration, and (4) skills for planning and analysis. Students completing this course receive 18 hours of university credit from Northwestern University.

Finally, we offer the Executive Management Program (EMP). This intensive three-week program is designed for senior commanders and is organized around emerging topics of critical interest to executives. For example, a recent session examined issues such as police-news media relations, the role of the law enforcement executive in the political arena, and racial profiling.

All of our management programs are designed with the needs of the law enforcement agency in mind. We offer flexibility in schedule and location, and in recent months, we have significantly increased opportunities for distance education.

Cutting-Edge Research

One of the unique capabilities of a university-based police training institution is its extraordinary capacity to do research. At Northwestern, we are particularly lucky to have world-class scholars and research facilities, but research should not be done solely for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge. The advantage that we at the Center have is that as we learn things through research, they are immediately brought to the classroom. Our students can take this back to their home agencies. This significantly shortens the time required for dissemination and utilization of new information.

Police-Academic Partnerships

Finally, as an independent academic institution, we are in a unique position to serve our nation's law enforcement communities. A recent case illustrates this capability. Last year, the issue of racial profiling emerged as a critical issue. The topic was very controversial. Many police executives denied the existence of racial profiling; still others fought efforts to require data collection on traffic stops. Several police chiefs came to the Center looking for information and advice on how to respond to this problem. Together with them, we organized a national symposium that was attended by some 400 law enforcement leaders from around the country. Since then, we have been working closely with several law enforcement organizations around the country on this issue. We have a unique partnership based on trust, independence, and specialized qualifications.

Conclusion

As the law enforcement profession continues to mature, it is clear that managers will need more sophisticated and specialized executive education. Institutions like the Center for Public Safety are uniquely qualified to provide that education and to work with our communities to ensure the safety of our citizens.

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From 1992-1998, Dr. Weiss was an assistant professor of criminal justice at Indiana University–Bloomington. Professor Weiss taught courses on policing, criminal justice policy, and quantitative methods. He also served as chief criminologist of the Indianapolis Police Department.

Prior to coming to Indiana, Dr. Weiss was on the staff of the Northwestern University Traffic Institute where he served as director of research and director of the School of Police Staff and Command. Dr. Weiss was a police officer and supervisor for the Colorado Springs Police Department. Among his assignments was that of director of operations analysis in the department's planning section.

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Police Higher Education and Its Evolution: The Impact of Chief August Vollmer

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August Vollmer (1876-1955), Chief of Police, Berkeley, California (1905-1932), the “father of modern professional policing in the United States,” was a bold, progressive, and visionary individual. In sum, a genius. It was Vollmer who stood above his peers calling for higher education as unpopular as this was for all members of the police service. Vollmer’s police career began on April 15, 1905 when he was elected town marshal at Berkeley, having been widely supported in his bid for office by W. Richardson, publisher of the *Berkeley Daily Gazette*; Jim Kenney, fire chief at Berkeley; Thomas Richard, mayor of Berkeley; and internationally renowned biologist, Dr. Jacques Loeb, University of California–Berkeley. Many in the community felt this youthful 29-year-old town marshal would never succeed in law enforcement, but history would prove them wrong. Within two years after taking office, he was elected president of the California Police Chiefs Association in 1907. On August 13, 1909, the elected position of marshal was eliminated, and by ordinance, the office of chief of police was created. Vollmer was immediately appointed (Parker, 1961; Stead, 1977).

Although Vollmer’s education consisted of grade school with several business courses tacked on, he began hiring university-educated police officers. The newspapers of the time quickly began referring to this new cadre of officers as “Vollmer’s College Cops,” a “high order of human material” (Swan, 1986, p. 215). Some of the luminaries among these “college cops” were such notables as Orlando W. Wilson, who ultimately became dean of the School of Criminology, University of California at Berkeley; V.A. Leonard, chair of the police science department at the University of Washington; John Larson, who invented the polygraph; William A. Wiltberger, who became chief of police at Evanston, Illinois; George Brereton, who served as director of the California Bureau of Investigation; A.S.J. Woods, who created a modern police force in Nanking, China; and J. Stewart Rooney, who became professor of pathology at Harvard University, to name but a few. August Vollmer strongly believed that success of any police department was predicated on the recruitment of highly qualified men of superior intellect and education. By this short list, one can readily see he succeeded in this goal. He strongly believed police officers needed a strong foundation in the liberal arts and criminology to provide them the tools to handle the complex, unpredictable, and precarious issues a police officer is confronted with in any given tour of duty. August Vollmer, “became the most outspoken practical criminologist throughout the 1920s and 1930s and the most articulate police person of the first forty years of the [last] century” (Morn, 1980, p. 9). Vollmer’s goal was to “make the job of the policeman into a profession” (Parker, 1961, p. 85). He strongly believed police professionalism could only be achieved through education, and he preached it! He was appalled with the criteria for police officer selection (i.e., who was the biggest, toughest candidate who could readily be given a badge, gun, map of the community and

put on the street to met out justice with nothing more than the golden rule as guidance and direction).

August Vollmer in his renowned work, *The Police and Modern Society* (1936) had strong opinions defining the qualities required of those entering the police service:

[A police officer must have] the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of David, the strength of Samson, the patience of Job, the leadership of Moses, the kindness of the Good Samaritan, the strategy of Alexander, the faith of Daniel, the diplomacy of Lincoln, the tolerance of the Carpenter of Nazareth, and finally, an intimate knowledge of every branch of the natural, biological and social sciences. If he had all these, he might be a good policeman (Vollmer, 1936, p. 222).

When Vollmer made this pronouncement of qualities necessary for success as a police officer, 75% of the police of the nation could not pass an army intelligence test (National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, 1931b). Fuld had noted 27 years earlier, “patrolmen are almost invariably men of limited education and intelligence” (Fuld, 1909, pp. 48-49). By 1915, Chief August Vollmer was calling for a standard of a college/university education for police officers. In 1916, he established “a formal relationship with the University of California” where courses were made available to “working policemen and university students” (Carte & Carte 1975, pp. 27-28) forming the school of criminology of which Vollmer is credited (Saunders 1970, p. 16). He believed a university education for police officers should go beyond offerings in police science and that they should be well rounded in the social sciences (Fyfe et al. 1997, p. 13).

Vollmer was committed to the principle that colleges/universities should educate police students in the arts and sciences rather than to have police departments attempt to duplicate that training after they are hired (Gammage 1963, p. 61). He was the first police chief to call for the baccalaureate degree as a prerequisite for men and women entering the police profession —“every police department should require a B.A. degree for its recruits” (Sherman 1978, p. 32) Vollmer is considered the “founder of this movement” (Fyfe, et al. 1997, p. 13).

August Vollmer forcefully presented his views on higher education in his work, *The Police and Modern Society* (1936):

The police structure will continue to remain fundamentally unsound as long as it is generally assumed that a person with any type of training is qualified to perform police duties. If the legal, engineering, or medical profession recruited its members at random, with no requirements of preliminary training, from among all the persons who might desire to hang out a professional ‘shingle,’ disaster would be the inevitable consequence of such stupidity. No person would dare place his life in the hands of shoemakers, chauffeurs, bricklayers, or persons engaged in any other trade or occupation. When he is ill, he wants a medical man, professionally trained, experienced in the practice of his profession. If a skyscraper or a large bridge is to be constructed, we certainly do not go to the medical profession, legal profession, or the trades for designs for the structure; we go to the experienced bridge

engineers. But it has not yet been recognized that the work of the modern policeman requires professional training comparable to that required for the most skilled profession (Vollmer 1936, pp. 230-1).

Movement toward professionalism had been frustrated on many fronts (e.g., lack of education and training standards, greatly impeded by political patronage appointments to the police department). Vollmer and Schneider (May 1916 - March 1917) noted, "following the adoption of Civil Service Reform . . . and the improvement in the organization that resulted there-from, came the wide-spread use of this method for selecting applicants for positions on the police force" (p. 877). Graper (1921) noted, "conditions were immensely improved by the introduction of civil service reform with its emphasis upon minimum physical and educational standards" (p. 108). Although laudable, it remained too little, too late. By 1929, President Herbert Hoover formed the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement to address the many "defects" in the criminal justice system with George Wickersham appointed as its chairman. The Commission, often referred to as the "Wickersham Commission," consisted of 14 reports. Among those were *Report 11: Lawlessness in Law Enforcement* and *Report 14: The Police*.

On May 28, 1929, at the first meeting of the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (Wickersham Commission), President Herbert Hoover said,

The American people are deeply concerned over the alarming disobedience of law, the abuses in law enforcement and the growth of organized crime, which has spread in every field of evil-doing and in every part of our country. A nation does not fail from its growth of wealth or power. But no nation can for long survive the failure of its citizens to respect and obey the laws which they themselves make. Nor can it survive a decadence of the moral and spiritual concepts that are the basis of respect for law, nor from neglect to organize itself to defeat crime and the corruption that flows from it. Nor is this a problem confined to the enforcement and obedience of one law or the laws of the federal or State governments separately. The problem is partly the attitude toward all law.

It is my hope that the commission shall secure an accurate determination of fact and cause, following them with constructive, courageous conclusions which will bring public understanding and command public support of its solutions . . . I do pray for the success of your endeavors, for by such success you will have performed one of the greatest services to our generation. (Myers & Newton, 1936, p. 390)

Mr. Wickersham, in reply, said,

We are under no illusions as to the difficulty of our task. We know there is no short cut to the millennium. But we have confidence in the fundamental honesty and right-mindedness of the American people and their readiness to support sound methods of reform when the existence of evils is exposed and practical methods for their eradication submitted to popular judgment. (Myers & Newton, 1936, p. 390)

The focus of the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement's *Report 11: Lawlessness in Law Enforcement* (1931) was the "third degree," the "chief factor in bringing about the present attitude of hostility on the part of a considerable portion of the population toward the police." The report further noted, "the real remedy lies in the will of the community [to] insist upon higher standards in police" (p. 191). When Chief August Vollmer was "solicited in confidence by the commission for his views," he replied, "The use of the third degree is an admission of stupidity and ignorance and brutality" (p. 72).

The National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement's *Report 14: The Police* (1936), with its principle author Chief August Vollmer, focused on police administration and professional reform noting that one of the "great promise[s] for the future, is the college or university" (p. 82). The report emphasized the college program at San Jose State Teachers' College in California. It made note of the work of the University of California in establishing the Bureau of Municipal Administration, stressing that when the universities "join in the work [of educating police]. Then will real progress be made" (p. 85).

We slowly began to see universities offering curricula and degrees in criminology and criminal justice in the 1930s which grew until the 1960s. "Between 1963 and 1968, they doubled in number," due in large measure to pressure which was growing from two-year colleges for transfer programs (Saunders, 1970, p. 98). The aggregate number of criminal justice programs grew from "an estimated 64 in 1965 to almost 700 in 1973 and more than 1,200 in 1978" (Simpson, 1979, p. 53). "The impetus for this expansion of criminal justice education came largely from the federal government" (Moran et al., 1977, p. 46); however, "courses were often viewed as being of the 'Handcuffs 101' genre and were primarily designed and offered for in-service personnel or 'police groupies' who were less able than other students" (Moran et al., 1980, p. 31).

On July 25, 1965, the "war on crime" was launched by President Lyndon B. Johnson with the formation of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. President Johnson announced to Congress and the nation the approach necessary to deal with crime and criminal activity:

The problem of crime brings us together. We must make a common response. There is no other way. Even as we join in common action, we know there can be no instant victory. We face an immense journey. Ancient evils do not yield to easy conquest. Modern criminology has yet to light many corridors. We cannot limit our efforts to enemies we can see. We must, with equal resolve, seek out new knowledge, new techniques, and new understanding. . . . We must improve the quality of local law enforcement throughout the country. (Message to Congress, March 9, 1966)

The President's Commission perused the aggregate of the criminal justice system with two volumes of interest to this treatise, *Task Force Report: The Police and The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*. With this commission, we saw a defined line of demarcation between the "old" and "new" views of criminal justice. It also brought about visionary "thinking that eventually undermined the traditional view" (Conley, 1994, p. 21).

In advising the President's Commission, George W. O'Connor of the International Association of Chiefs of Police wrote in *Task Force Report: The Police* (1967),

It is nonsense to state or 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 with the hope 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. (p. 126)

In addition, the report noted that “the quality of police work will not significantly improve until higher education standards are established for its personnel” (p. 126). These recommendations were not enforced, no mechanism was ever established to do so. Although many of its recommendations were implemented by a minority of police agencies, its greatest success initially was to draw national attention to the problem:

An important step toward the professionalization of the police was a recognition established through public opinion and government action that police officers throughout the country must experience increased levels of quality education and training so that they may become more knowledgeable and proficient in the performance of their job function (Jurkanin, 1984, p. 23).

Sheeham and Cordner (1995) notes that the police function is one of the special talents and needs requiring “tremendous discretion and judgement.” What is required of a police officer as a knowledge base is no less than that required of “doctors, lawyers, clergy members, marriage counselors, teachers, and business people” in order to function within their respective professions (p. 437).

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice's *Task Force Report: The Police* (1967) was the most comprehensive effort thus far in recommending higher education for police: “Cities and counties which fail to recognize the vital necessity of upgrading the educational levels of their police departments are guilty of perpetuating ineffective police service and are not providing their citizens with adequate police service and protection,” and, “the quality of police will not significantly improve until higher educational standards are established for its personnel” (p. 126).

The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (1967) by The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and administration of Justice was the first federal document that specifically recommended the college/university degree: “The ultimate aim of all police departments should be that all personnel with general enforcement powers have baccalaureate degrees” (p. 109). The commission further noted that if the long-range goal was the baccalaureate degree for all police officers then the short-range goal should be for police supervisors and chiefs of police to have baccalaureate degrees:

Police departments should take immediate steps to establish a minimum requirement of a baccalaureate degree for all supervisory and executive positions . . . the long-range objective for high-ranking officers should be advanced degrees in the law, sociology, criminology, police or public administration, business management, or some other appropriate specialty (p. 10).

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice was the catalyst for action in the United States Congress in 1968, with the passage of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act. Among other things, this Act created the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) to administer federal funding called for in the President's Commission with a focal point on planning and education. The LEAA would function, as outlined in the Act in five ways (Twentieth Century Fund, 1976, p. 4):

1. Supporting statewide planning in the field of criminal justice through the creation of state planning agencies
2. Supplying the states and localities with block grants of federal funds to improve their criminal justice systems
3. Making discretionary grants to special programs in the field of criminal justice
4. Developing new devices, techniques, and approaches in law enforcement through the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, LEAA's research arm
5. Supplying money for the training and education of criminal justice personnel

Attached to the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Street Act by President Lyndon B. Johnson was the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP). It was added by the President of the United States at the urging of Congressman William R. Anderson of Tennessee who had collaborated on a bill in the House of Representatives to provide loans/grants to police officers pursuing college/university degrees (Sheehan & Cordner, 1995). The catalyst for LEEP was to encourage police officers to pursue a college/university degree based upon the reality that the . . .

education process broadens the students' intellect and develops a base of knowledge in which values and judgement are established. The higher education process is a period where the student should broaden his/her understanding, become acquainted with the sciences, and develop evaluative, intellectual, and decision-making capabilities, which will serve him/her in the future. The educational process assists the individual in making increasingly complicated social decisions; it assists the person in responding more effectively to variant conditions and circumstances; and it provides a backdrop for continued education, learning, and training. (Charles, 1998, pp. 10-11)

The findings of Charles sustain the findings of many scholars and five national commissions: (1) National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement

(Wickersham Commission), 1931; (2) The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967; (3) The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (Peterson Commission), 1973; (4) The National Advisory Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers, 1978; and (5) The Joint Commission on Criminology and Criminal Justice Education and Standards, 1984.

The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973), often referred to as the "Peterson Commission" after Russell W. Peterson, its chairman, was the first national commission to establish a timetable for the implementation of a baccalaureate degree requirement for police officers:

1. Every police agency should require immediately, as a condition of initial employment, the completion of at least one year of education (30 semester units) at an accredited college or university. Otherwise, qualified police applicants who do not satisfy this condition, but who have earned a high school diploma or its equivalent, should be employed under a contract requiring completion of the educational requirement within three years of initial employment.
2. Every police agency should, no later than 1975, require as a condition of initial employment the completion of at least two years of education (60 semester units) at an accredited college or university.
3. Every police agency should, no later than 1978, require as a condition of initial employment the completion of at least three years of education (90 semester units) at an accredited college or university.
4. Every police agency should, no later than 1982, require as a condition of initial employment the completion of at least four years of education (120 semester units or a baccalaureate degree) at an accredited college or university. (Police, 1973, p. 369)

The Peterson Commission also made note of the dramatic variance between hours required of police in training and hours required in other professions, with "physicians receiving 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" (Police, 1973, p. 380).

In the State of Illinois, it has only been since 1996 that 480 hours (12 weeks) of training were required of municipal and county recruit officers, this at the Police Training Institute of the University of Illinois/Urbana. Other police academies throughout the state, with the exception of the Illinois State Police Academy requiring 1,057 hours (26 weeks) for state troopers and the Chicago Police Academy requiring 1,015 hours (29 weeks) for Chicago Police Officers provide the 400-hour ten-week minimum training curricula acceptable to ILETSB. An overview of police training in the United States reflects a mean of 477 hours of training, putting Illinois' Police Training Institute curricula just three hours beyond the mean of the nation (IADLEST, 1997, p. 25). In addition to academy training noted above, Illinois has a Police Corps Program established at Western Illinois University in collaboration with ILETSB requiring an aggregate of 1,600 hours (24 weeks) of

police training divided into two increments. Those students accepted into the program (the focal point being on junior level university students) complete the first ten weeks after the junior year. Upon graduation from the university, they complete the final 14 weeks.

Over the years, it has been nearly impossible to achieve a uniform standard of training and education for police in the United States. Police departments have historically been extensions of local politics for good or evil. From the professionalism of Berkeley to the corruption of Tammany Hall, local control of police has been a hallmark of the American lexicon. Our system of police control (predominantly municipalities) be it village, town, or city is an integral part of American democracy. In the *Federalist Papers*, James Madison makes a compelling argument for local control of government and its varied factions: "Liberty is to faction what air is to fire, an aliment without which it instantly expires (Hamilton et al., 1787). Unless the legislative bodies of this union take control, not of factions, but of standards, however, it will remain impossible to implement educational requirements as called for by August Vollmer and recommended in the Wickersham Commission, President's Commission, and Peterson's Commission.

As we enter the 21st Century, Vollmer's vision is ever so slowly being realized. Today, the New York City Police Department requires police officers seeking promotion to ranks of sergeant, lieutenant, or captain to have completed at minimum, two years of college. A similar standard has been adopted for New York State Troopers. The Illinois State Police and Illinois Conservation Police have taken a step further, requiring completion of the baccalaureate degree.

The Chicago Police Department since 1997 has required recruit officers to hold an associate's degree with command personnel required to hold a baccalaureate degree. As of January 1998, recruits entering the Tulsa Oklahoma Police Academy are required to hold a baccalaureate degree. Seventy-three percent of the city's 794 police officers hold four-year college degrees. An additional 20% have 60 hours or more college credit, with more than 40 officers holding master's degrees. One Tulsa officer holds a PhD; three have law degrees (telephone interview, Chief Ronald Palmer, Tulsa Oklahoma Police Department, January 22, 1998). In the United States today, the State of Minnesota requires a college degree of all sworn officers (associate's degree); the State of Wisconsin requires an applicant for police employment to hold either an associate's degree or 60 credits from a college or university. The State of Florida is scheduled to implement the associate degree standard for entry police personnel in 2003. We have taken several steps toward August Vollmer's vision but still have much road to travel.

August Vollmer, the police chief with a grade school education and several business courses tacked on, ultimately became "the first Professor of Police Administration in the world." This happened when he began his work at the University of Chicago in 1929 having been given a two-year leave of absence from his duties by the City Council of Berkeley, California (Parker, 1961). August Vollmer, the most famous police chief in the United States, was invited to join the faculty at the University of Chicago by its president Robert M. Hutchins moving from police uniform to academic robes without so much as a high school diploma (Deutsch, 1955, p. 146). In the fall of 1931, Vollmer returned to Berkeley, and in the spring of that year, he was appointed Professor of Police Administration

at the University of California: "For a year, he held two jobs, police chief and professor" (Parker, 1961, p. 176). Unquestionably, Vollmer was the "father of modern professional policing in the United States" (Stead, 1977, p. 178) or as Vollmer's colleague, O. W. Wilson, put it, the "father of modern law enforcement (Wilson & McLaren, 1977, p. 351). In sum, a genius!

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Ronald D. Swan is chief of police at Illinois State University. Prior to his appointment at ISU, he was chief of police at Monticello, Illinois and Beverly Hills, Missouri. Swan is a graduate of the Municipal Police Training Academy of St. Louis County, the Major Case Squad Training School of Greater St. Louis, The National Training Institute of the Drug Enforcement Administration, The Dignitary Protection Institute of the United States Secret Service, and the Institute of Applied Science in Chicago. Chief Swan was elected to the law section of the British Academy of Forensic Sciences, London, England and has studied police administration and criminal investigation at Scotland Yard.

Swan holds an AAS degree in criminal justice from Hannibal-LaGrange College in Hannibal, Missouri; a BS degree in Liberal Studies/Criminology from The University of the State of New York; a BS degree in Administration of Justice from the University of Missouri–St. Louis; and an MA degree in Urban Affairs from Webster University, St. Louis.

Chief Swan is the recipient of such awards as the Police Medal of Distinction from the City Council of Monticello, Illinois; Life Saving Commendation from the Jewish Employment and Vocational Service of St. Louis; Letter of Commendation from Scotland Yard; Diploma of Honor and Veteran of Labor Medal from the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics; Law Enforcement Commendation Medal from the Sons of the American Revolution; Medal of Excellence in Service to Russia 1st & 2nd Order; Distinguished Alumnus Award 1993, Hannibal-LaGrange College; Medal of Yuri Gagarin; and Medal Freedom of Russia. The latter was presented by President Boris Yeltsin's representative. He was also awarded the List of Honor by the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Russia for saving the lives of three Russian citizens in 1993. Chief Swan received the "Outstanding Part-Time Faculty Award" in the Social & Natural Science Division 1996-1997 from Richland Community College.

FBI Training at the Local and State Level

Jim Treacy
FBI, Seattle Office

Virtually all federal law enforcement agencies engage in training initiatives with local and state counterparts; the Federal Bureau of investigation (FBI) is heavily involved in training outreach and has been for a large part of its history.

Probably the most well-known aspect of this training partnership between state and federal law enforcement is the FBI's National Academy program. Established in 1935, approximately 35,000 law enforcement officers have attended the FBI National Academy (FBINA).

The ten-week course for mid- and upper-level management of local, state, and international law enforcement agencies focuses on leadership development and emphasizes critical thinking. It is held at the FBI Academy in Quantico, Virginia, with four meeting times per year. Each FBINA session hosts approximately 270 officers, who take an array of courses, ranging from criminal law, police management practices, behavioral science, forensic science, communications issues in law enforcement, fitness/health, and a specialized instruction program in the law enforcement arena. Additionally, the FBINA courses are accredited through the University of Virginia, with up to 19 units of college-level credits available to students.

Of the student slots at the FBINA, approximately 10% are reserved for foreign law enforcement officers; over the years, an extremely wide variety of countries have been represented at the FBINA. For example, in keeping with the ever-changing geopolitical face of the world, officers from republics of the former Soviet Union have been attending the FBINA since approximately 1997.

Less publicized, but of equal importance, is the regional training conducted by federal agencies, either through their own auspices or through the law enforcement training academies overseen by the separate states. These courses may be held at federal venues, such as the FBI Academy, the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) Academy (also located at Quantico, Virginia), or the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center (FLETC) in Glynco, Georgia, but are usually presented at venues within the state requesting the training.

This training is usually focused on areas for which the federal agency is well-known and has a history of long-term institutional knowledge, such as drug trafficking investigations on the part of the DEA, or smuggling investigations by the U.S. Customs Service. The courses may vary in duration from two-day courses to courses of several weeks length.

James Treacy is a Special Agent of the FBI, currently assigned to the Seattle office. He is a graduate of Washington State University, with a BS in criminal justice. He has been in law enforcement for 25 years, both on the municipal and federal level, and has trained law enforcement officers, both on a state level and internationally, in courses ranging from officer survival techniques to Russian organized crime.

Field Training: The “Normal” Way

Gary G. Speers

Normal, Illinois Police Department

The motto of the Normal, Illinois Police Department is “Doing It Right,” a seemingly straightforward mission for this medium sized department of 66 sworn officers in central Illinois, but despite what the name of this community of 40,000 implies, policing expectations often seem anything but normal.

Normal, Illinois is a very diverse community, home to 20,000 Illinois State University students, as well as educators and staff. State Farm Insurance Companies employees, Mitsubishi Motors of America employees, and various other individuals from all walks of life and many different backgrounds all live and work here and present the department with a wide variety of policing expectations. One of the unique aspects of policing this community is the constant movement in and out of our population base as students graduate, professional staff workers are transferred, and factory workers come and go. With such population movement comes an extremely diverse group of individuals who have been exposed to many different policing styles; they bring with them quite an interesting variety of agendas.

One of the major challenges for this department in recent years has included preparing newly hired officers for the task of providing the type of daily law enforcement that lives up to the constantly changing expectations of the community. One way the department is “customizing” our new officers for this challenge is by utilizing a successful Field Training Officer (FTO) program.

The thrust of the FTO program is to pick up where basic training academies leave off with new recruits. In this day and age, many new officers come to us from outside of our community with little or no familiarity with the area or our citizenry. While the basic academies do an excellent job of providing an education base upon which to build, it is necessary to call upon the experiential background of our field training officers to deliver young men and women ready to “Do It Right.”

Our experience has shown that the critical key to a successful FTO program lies in the initial selection of the individuals to be trained as FTOs. Normal Police Department FTO candidates are required to go through a rigorous inhouse selection process including the submission of a letter of interest with an accompanying letter of recommendation from a current supervisor. A selection committee consisting of a senior FTO, the supervising lieutenant, an assistant chief of police, and the chief of police, review the applications and interview the officers interested in a training position. Traits that the selection committee particularly focuses upon are excellent interpersonal communication skills; a positive attitude; and most importantly, the ability to impart these skills, techniques, and attitudes to others.

This committee is looking for the “cream of the crop” among current officers to serve as the role models for our officers of the future. Every individual selected

to be an FTO for the Normal Police Department is then sent to the Northwestern University Center for Public Safety-Field Training and Evaluation Process 40-hour course either at Evanston, Illinois or on site locally coordinated through the ILETSB Mobile Training Team.

While our current cadre of seven FTOs is able to call upon a combined 98 years of practical law enforcement experience in the Town of Normal and their specialized formal FTO education, it still is of utmost importance that each individual officer selected brings something special to the training table.

The relative rookie of our group of FTOs is far from being a newcomer with five years of experience. His motto, "we are typically dealing with good people on their worst day," goes a long way towards inculcating our new officers with the sense of how each of us would like to be treated during perhaps the one encounter we might ever have with a law enforcement officer. He actively mentors our younger officers, stressing that by maintaining a positive attitude and being themselves, they will be able to enjoy their new career. Officers working with him are exposed to his role as an active community helper with his involvement in the Big Brother Program and the Resident Officer Program.

Our eight-year officer brings her ability to calmly assess each situation and an insistence that everyone be dealt with fairly. When it comes to addressing what is often a major challenge for the officer in training who is frequently new to the area, she is the undisputed champion of local geography. An officer who has trained with her need not worry about getting lost while in route to a call in our rapidly growing community. Each trainee is taken to areas with high incidences of calls and is required to memorize addresses and layouts of apartment complexes and developments. In other traditional residential areas, they are taken to the location of frequent or chronic callers. After inexperienced officers are trained by her, they will have excellent response times to calls for service and for officer back up.

With his statewide recognition for apprehending motorists who have been driving under the influence comes the opportunity for our 11-year officer to impart all the techniques necessary to address this major concern in our community. During the time trainees are assigned to him, they will be taught to recognize violations and to accurately apply the law relative to searching and seizing evidence and preparing accurate and complete testimony in court. Each new officer training with him works the night shift and has the opportunity to actively patrol our off-campus party and restaurant areas where the major alcohol concerns are centered.

One of our 14-year trainers leads by example in presenting a respectful, disciplined public persona. His "no nonsense" approach to dealing with the myriad of situations the new officer faces is consistently delivered in a constructive, helpful, and supportive manner during his daily evaluation sessions. Situation management through the correct use of presence, coupled with a professional unbiased approach to the concerns of every citizen, highlight his technique. His emphasis on following accepted officer safety procedures teaches young officers to be ever alert to changing situations. During each traffic stop, loud party call, or accident report taken, officers are tutored in vehicle placement and personal safety spacing. He drills them on doing it correctly each time and every time so that utilizing safe practices becomes an automatic response.

The other of our two 14-year FTOs is the guru of self-initiated activity. Trainees are often at first amazed at his ability to observe situations in which individuals are involved in suspicious activity. No area in his realm of responsibility escapes his "not on my watch" philosophy. His novices are tutored in the effective application of our local ordinances and the appropriate state statutes. Officers working with him will become proficient at completing booking and arrest reports and adept at utilizing our county-wide computerized reporting system to file criminal damage, theft, and battery reports.

The gentle art of persuasion through verbal communication is the specialty of our 18-year veteran. Teaching each new officer that there is a way to get through to almost everyone if you are patient and willing to take the time to actually listen to what your citizen contacts have to say is often a major accomplishment in today's fast-paced atmosphere. The ultimate use of friendly disarming discourse quickly establishes a useful rapport upon which the officer can build. This discourse technique carries over into the important realm of building relationships among peers by actively assisting and supporting them. Each neophyte also has the opportunity to gain insight and knowledge about many of the local long-term citizens and their expectations. Trainees are introduced to local business owners and shopkeepers in our downtown area and are walked through our shopping malls to meet sales and security staff.

The most experienced of our cadre of FTOs remains the individual that we typically select to represent the department while hosting visiting law enforcement officers in our frequent international exchanges. With his background as an accident investigator and emergency vehicle operations course instructor and with his outstanding knowledge of statutes, ordinances, and vehicle codes, this 28-year veteran makes the ideal teacher. His strongest attributes remain in his ability to leave every citizen with the impression that he is genuinely interested in serving them. The impression is far from an illusion as he goes out of his way to build positive relationships with our diverse citizenry. It is not at all unusual for the new officers working with him to be the recipient of letters of thanks from grateful citizens of our community who have been impressed with the assistance received when their car broke down, their lost child is located, or their dog is rescued from an open manhole.

When our new officers graduate from our 14-week FTO program having rotated through this carefully selected cadre of outstanding mentors, we feel they are truly prepared for "Doing It Right" the Normal way.

Gary G. Speers is an assistant chief of the Normal Police Department in Normal, Illinois and a 34-year law enforcement practitioner.

He has been a police officer in Normal, Illinois, since September 11, 1967. He served as police school liaison officer for the Unit 5 Public School System and University High School (Private). He initiated and supervised a police community services unit, supervised a traffic safety unit, and supervised patrol shifts as sergeant and lieutenant. Currently, he is the chief of detectives/assistant chief of police, Normal Police Department. He is also the coordinator of the Normal Police Department Citizen Police Academy and has conducted specialized training in a wide variety of areas, particularly police community relations; media relations; and community policing concepts in the U.K., Germany, and Russia.

Recent awards include the Illinois State University Department of Criminal Justice Sciences–Alumni Achievement Award and the WJBC “Spirit of McLean County” community service award.

Cops, Kids, Killing, and Video Games: The Psychology of Conflict, the Media's Role in Creating an Explosion of Violent Crime, and the Implications to Law Enforcement

Lieutenant Colonel Dave Grossman

Law enforcement officers live in a realm of violence. They carry instruments of deadly force as a standard part their job and are called to those times and places in our society when violence is most likely to occur.

Yet law enforcement officers, who should be experts on understanding and dealing with the psychology of violence and deadly force, are too often not trained to deal with this vital aspect of their jobs. The purpose of this article is to help establish a foundation of understanding in this area. In this article, the following points are discussed: (1) the psychology of close combat, (2) the resistance to killing in healthy individuals, (3) how the military and law enforcement world has learned to overcome this resistance, (4) how this kind of killing enabling is being done indiscriminately to the children of industrialized nations around the world through violence in the media and in interactive video games, and (5) some of the implications of this on the law enforcement officer.

Combat and the Resistance to Killing

To truly understand the nature of aggression and violence in human beings, we must first recognize that most participants in close-range, interpersonal aggression are literally frightened out of their wits. Once fists, knives, and bullets start flying, and heart rates rise to above 175 beats per minute, both victims and combatants stop thinking with the forebrain (that portion of the brain which makes us human) and start thinking with the midbrain (the primitive portion of our brain which is indistinguishable from that of an animal).

In conflict situations, this primitive, midbrain processing can be observed in the existence of a powerful resistance to killing one's own kind.

Animals with antlers and horns slam together in a relatively harmless head-to-head fashion. Piranha fight their own kind with flicks of the tail, but against any other species, these creatures unleash their teeth without restraint. This is an essential survival mechanism, which prevents a species from destroying itself during territorial and mating rituals.

One major modern revelation in the field of combat psychology is the observation that this resistance to killing one's own species is also a key factor in human combat. Brigadier General S. L. A. Marshall first observed this during his work as the Official U.S. Historian of the European Theater of Operations in World War II.

Based on his post-combat interviews, Marshall reported in his book, *Men Against Fire*, that only 15 to 20% of the individual riflemen in World War II fired their weapons at an exposed enemy soldier.¹ An absence of anonymity and a sense of accountability seem to have ensured that key weapons, such as flamethrowers, usually fired. Group dynamics ensured that crew-served weapons, such as machine guns, almost always fired, and firing would increase greatly if a nearby leader demanded that the soldier fire. When left to their own devices, however, the great majority of individual combatants throughout history appear to have been unable or unwilling to kill.

Marshall's findings were initially controversial. Faced with scholarly concern about a researcher's methodology and conclusions, the scientific method involves replicating the research. In Marshall's case, every available, parallel, scholarly study validates his basic findings. Ardant du Picq's surveys of French officers in the 1860s and his observations on ancient battles (*Battle Studies*), Keegan and Holmes' numerous accounts of ineffectual firing throughout history (*Soldiers*), Richard Holmes' assessment of Argentine firing rates in the Falklands War (*Acts of War*), Paddy Griffith's data on the extraordinarily low killing rate among Napoleonic and American Civil War regiments (*Battle Tactics of the American Civil War*), the British Army's laser reenactments of historical battles, the FBI's studies of nonfiring rates among law enforcement officers in the 1950s and 1960s, and countless other individual and anecdotal observations, all confirm Marshall's fundamental conclusion that man is not, by nature, a killer.

Indeed, from a psychological perspective, the history of warfare can be viewed as a series of successively more effective tactical and mechanical mechanisms to enable or force combatants to overcome their resistance to killing.

Overcoming the Resistance

By 1946, the U.S. Army had accepted Marshall's conclusions. Marshall, and the Human Resources Research Office of the U.S. Army, subsequently pioneered a revolution in combat training which eventually replaced firing at bull's-eye targets with deeply ingrained conditioning, using realistic, man-shaped pop-up targets that fall when hit.

The ability to turn a voluntary motor response into a conditioned response is demonstrated in one of John Watson's experiments early in this century, which studied learning in rats exposed to a type of maze that was simply a long, straight alley with food at the end. Watson found that once the animal was well-trained at running this maze, it did so almost automatically, or reflexively. Once started by the stimulus of the maze, its behavior became a series of motor responses, which were largely detached from stimuli in the outside world. This was made clear when Watson shortened the alleyway, which caused well-trained (i.e., conditioned) rats, with their eyes wide open, in a well-lit environment, to run straight into the end of the wall. This was known as the "Kerplunk Experiment" (due to the sound the rats made when they smacked into the wall), and it demonstrates the degree to which a set of behaviorally conditioned, voluntary motor responses can become reflexive, or automatic in nature. Only a few decades after Watson ran these early, simple experiments, the world would see these basic tenants of behaviorism used

to instill the voluntary motor responses necessary to turn close-combat killing into a reflexive and automatic response.²

Psychologists know that this kind of powerful “operant conditioning” is the only technique, which will reliably influence the primitive, mid-brain processing of a frightened human being. Conditioning through periodic fire drills ensures that terrified school children will respond properly during a fire. Conditioning in flight simulators enables frightened pilots to respond reflexively to emergency situations. Similar application and perfection of basic conditioning techniques increased the rate of fire from a baseline of 15-20% in WWII to approximately 55% in Korea and around 95% in Vietnam.

Equally high rates of fire resulting from nationwide modern conditioning techniques introduced in the late 1960s can be seen in FBI data on law enforcement firing rates since the nation-wide introduction of modern conditioning techniques in the late 1960s. One of the most dramatic examples of the value and power of this modern, psychological revolution in training can be seen in Richard Holmes’ observations of the 1982 Falklands War. The superbly trained (i.e., conditioned) British forces were without air or artillery superiority and were consistently outnumbered three-to-one while attacking the poorly trained but well-equipped and carefully dug-in Argentine defenders. Superior British firing rates (which Holmes estimates to be well over 90%), resulting from modern training techniques, have been credited as a key factor in a series of British victories in that brief but bloody war. Any future army or law enforcement agency, which attempts to go into battle without similar psychological preparation is likely to meet a fate similar to that of the Argentines.

Conditioning Kids to Kill

Thus, a startling revelation of modern combat psychology can be found in the tremendous impact of psychological conditioning to overcome the resistance to killing. This can be observed in combat circumstances in which conditioning gave U.S. and British units a tremendous tactical advantage in close combat, increasing the firing rate from the World War II baseline of around 20% to over 90% in these wars.

Another startling modern revelation can be found in the fact that violent programming on television, in movies, and in interactive point-and-shoot video games, is indiscriminately introducing the children of industrial nations to the same weapons technology that major armies and law enforcement agencies around the world use to “turn off” the midbrain “safety catch” that General S. L. A. Marshall discovered in World War II.

In my research as an expert consultant for the prosecution in the McVeigh case, I found that, according to U.S. Bureau of Justice Statistics data, law enforcement officers and veterans (including Vietnam veterans) are statistically less likely to be incarcerated than a nonveteran of the same age. The key safeguard in this process appears to be the deeply ingrained discipline, which the soldier and police officer internalize with their training; however, by saturating children with media violence as entertainment and then exposing them to interactive “point-

and-shoot video games, it has become increasingly clear that society is aping military conditioning, but without the vital safeguard of discipline.

The observation that violence in the media is causing violence in our streets is nothing new. The American Academy of Pediatrics, the American Psychiatric Association (APA), the American Medical Association, and their equivalents in many other nations have all made unequivocal statements about the link between media violence and violence in our society. The APA, in their 1992 report *Big World, Small Screen*, concluded that the "scientific debate is over," and in 1993, the APA's commission on violence and youth concluded that "there is absolutely no doubt that higher levels of viewing violence on television are correlated with increased acceptance of aggressive attitudes and increased aggressive behavior." The evidence is simply overwhelming, and the overall body of data linking media violence and violent crime is, by every measure, more scientifically sound than the data linking tobacco and cancer.

Dr. Brandon Centerwall, professor of epidemiology at the University of Washington, has summarized the overwhelming nature of this body of evidence in an article published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*.³

His research demonstrates that anywhere in the world that television is introduced, within 15 years, the murder rate doubles. (And across 15 years, the murder rate will significantly underrepresent the problem because medical technology developments will be saving more lives each year.)

Centerwall concludes that if television technology had never been introduced in the U.S, then there would today be 10,000 fewer homicides each year, 70,000 fewer rapes, and 700,000 fewer injurious assaults. Overall, violent crime would be half of what it is. He notes that the net effect of television has been to increase the aggressive predisposition of approximately 8% of the population, which is all that is required to double the murder rate. Statistically speaking, 8% is a very small increase. Anything less than 5% is not even considered to be statistically significant. In human terms, and from the perspective of the law enforcement officer on the beat, however, the impact of doubling the homicide rate is enormous.

Learning to Kill and Learning to Like It

There are several psychological and sociological processes by which media violence causes violent crime. From a developmental standpoint, we know that around the age of 18 months, children are able to discern what is on television and movies, but the part of their mind which permits them to organize where the information came from does not fully develop until they are five- to seven-years-old. Thus, when a young child sees someone shot, stabbed, beaten, degraded, abused, or murdered on the screen, for them it is as though it were actually happening. They are not capable of discerning the difference, and the effect is as though they were children of a war zone, seeing countless thousands of incidents of death and destruction all around them, and thereby being traumatized, brutalized, and led to accept violence as a way of life.

From a Pavlovian, or classical conditioning standpoint, there is what Dave Grossman has termed the “Reverse-Clockwork Orange process.” In the movie, *A Clockwork Orange*, a sociopath is injected with a drug which makes him nauseous, and he then is exposed to violent movies. After many repetitions of this, he eventually comes to associate all violence with nausea and is somewhat “cured” of his sociopathy. In real life, millions of children are exposed to thousands of repetitions of media violence, which they learn to associate, not with nausea but with pleasure in the form of their favorite candy, soda, and a girlfriend’s perfume as they sit and laugh and cheer at vivid depictions of human death and suffering on movie and television screens.

Finally, from a behavioral perspective, the children of the industrialized world participate in countless repetitions of point-and-shoot video games which provide the motor skills necessary to turn killing into an automatic, reflexive, “kerplunk” response, but without the stimulus discriminators and the safeguard of discipline found in military and law enforcement conditioning.

Thus, from a psychological standpoint, the children of the industrialized world are being brutalized and traumatized at a young age, and then through violent video games (operant conditioning) and media violence (classical conditioning), they are learning to kill and learning to like it. The result of this interactive process is a world-wide virus of violence, violence which the law enforcement officer faces on a daily basis.

Acquired Violence Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AVIDS)

A hundred things can convince the forebrain to take gun in hand and go to a certain point: poverty, drugs, gangs, leaders, radical politics, and the social learning and role modeling of violence in the media. Traditionally, however, all of these influences have slammed into the resistance that a frightened, angry human being confronts in the midbrain. With the exception of a tiny percentage of naturally occurring violent sociopaths (who, by definition, do not have this resistance), the vast majority of circumstances are not sufficient to overcome this midbrain safety net. If you are conditioned to overcome these midbrain inhibitions, however, then you are a walking time bomb, a pseudo-sociopath, just waiting for the random factors of social interaction and forebrain rationalization to put you at the wrong place and the wrong time.

An effective analogy can be made to AIDS in attempting to communicate the impact of this technology. AIDS does not kill people, it destroys the immune system and makes the victim vulnerable to death by other factors. The “violence immune system” exists in the midbrain, and conditioning in the media creates an “acquired deficiency” in this immune system, resulting in what I have termed “Acquired Violence Immune Deficiency Syndrome.”

Endnotes

¹ Marshall, S.L.A. (1978). *Men against fire*. Gloucester, MA: Peter Smith.

² Watson P. (1978) *War on the mind: the military uses and abuses psychology*. New York: Basic Books.

³ Centerwall, B. Report in Spring 1993 Issue of the Public Interest.

Lieutenant Colonel Dave Grossman is an army ranger, a West Point psychology professor, and a professor of military science who has written the Pulitzer-nominated book, *On Killing: The Psychological Cost of Learning to Kill in War and Society*, and the new book, *Stop Teaching Our Kids to Kill: A Call to Action Against TV, Movie and Video Game Violence*. *On Killing* has been translated into Japanese and Italian and is being used as required reading at West Point and in universities worldwide. Colonel Grossman has been recognized as one of the world's foremost experts in the field of human aggression and the roots of violence and violent crime, and he has been called upon to write the entry on aggression and violence in the *Oxford Companion to American Military History*, and three entries in the *Academic Press Encyclopedia of Violence, Peace and Conflict*. Colonel Grossman has also served as an expert on human aggression in state and federal courts, including *United States vs. Timothy McVeigh*, and he helped train mental health professionals after the Jonesboro school shootings. He was also involved in counseling or court cases in the aftermath of the Paducah, Springfield, and Littleton school shootings. Colonel Grossman was cited by President Clinton in his national address after the Littleton, Colorado school shootings, and in 2000, he was called upon to present to the American Psychiatric Association and the American Psychological Association.

Outside the Box: Police-Prosecutor Teaming and Community Building

Charles Reynard
McLean County State's Attorney
Bloomington, Illinois

It may not be an earth-shattering observation, though it is worth contemplating for more than a moment: police and prosecutors share a landscape of concerns, a reality that makes them, but for the oppressively traditional boundaries of organizations, a natural team for successfully building positive quality-of-life values in our communities. Imagine a courtroom scene with the prosecutor asking the questions and the police officer, as witness, delivering the answers. This scene provides more than the surface image of questioner and provider of answers; indeed, it is the culmination of a team enterprise. It starts with the police investigation of a crime. The police investigation, in its most effective expression, is assisted by a collaborating prosecutor who furnishes advice on legal concerns relating to the investigation. Thus, the investigation secures competent, legally admissible evidence prior to the court proceeding. Then, the prosecutor takes the lead in the trial proceedings; though in the best of scenarios, the prosecutor is also assisted by the collaborating police investigator. It is a team system for the delivery of truth in the courtroom. In a global sense, the courtroom scene is the outcome of both the police and prosecution asking each other questions and providing each other answers, the results of which are presented to judges and juries for adjudication. The relationship between these essential team players is and ought to be intense, intimate, and completely committed; however, that is the ideal.

The traditional tendency of police and prosecutors to blame each other for failures in court misses the true personal responsibility issue associated with the courtroom experience. The issue is whether we, within our independent disciplines, recognize that the courtroom experience involves co-ownership and is an interdependent enterprise. If it fails, it is the responsibility of both officer and prosecutor (unless, of course, we can blame the jury, the judge, or the defense attorney).

Merely developing better relations between officers and prosecutors for the purpose of improving courtroom outcomes of criminal investigations and prosecutions, however, is a much too limiting goal, for the landscape is not merely shared by investigators and trial lawyers. It is or ought to be more meaningfully shared by police executives and prosecution executives. I know from personal experience the ease with which my day can descend into the swamp of compelling legal and administrative detail. It is no surprise that this daily experience becomes so distracting and isolating that the swamp of routine overtakes not only my day and my week, but the entirety of my professional life. If police chiefs, sheriffs, and state's attorneys cannot recognize this phenomenon within their experience, then I fear they will never find their way from the swamp.

“Thinking outside the box” may be the current buzz phrase, destined for linguistic oblivion, but, for now, it refers to an executive style of refusing to be confined by the way things have previously been done. It is my belief that executives from

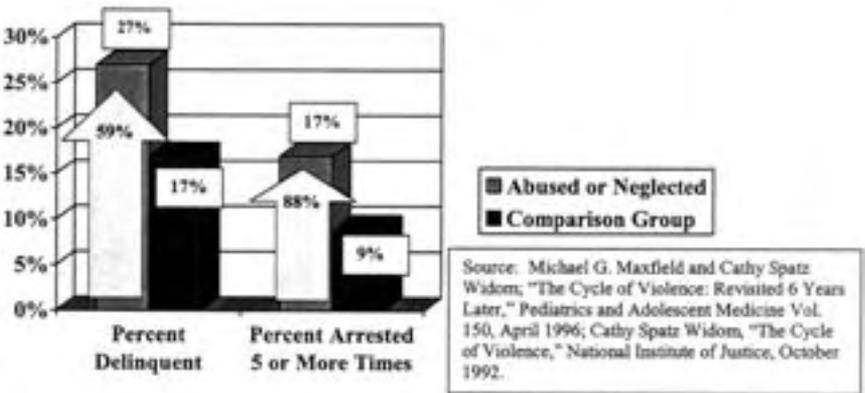
the police and prosecution disciplines need to be challenged to think “outside the box” of their currently separate worlds if they want to get along better with each other and succeed in their own endeavors. Furthermore, if we as law enforcement and justice professionals truly desire peace in our communities, we will find our collaboration and partnership to be an indispensable ingredient in the chemistry of daily and weekly routines. The true measure of our success is our capacity to engineer collaborative planning opportunities, to meet before the crises mandate hurried and flawed communications, and thus to help the partnership to succeed.

Fight Crime: Invest in Kids Illinois

The most “outside the box” partnership opportunity for police and prosecution executives in Illinois is “Fight Crime: Invest in Kids” (FCIK) effort. It is a national advocacy effort on behalf of helping children succeed from their earliest moments, from as early as their prenatal development and infancy. As a cochair of the Illinois Advisory Committee, I am proud to be partnering the chairmanship with Elmhurst Chief John Millner.

There are more than 100 Illinois chiefs, sheriffs, and elected state’s attorneys on FCIK’s Advisory Committee, among them another of the Associate Editors of this publication, Steve Allendorf, Jo Daviess County Sheriff. Together with survivors of violent crime, we recognize the essential powerlessness of police and courts to “solve” the crime problem. Crime victims, police, and prosecutors know from the appalling realities of their daily experience that it is too late if we wait until after the crime has been committed for us to care enough to do something. Holding criminals accountable and punishing them is important business. That is what we do: we fight criminals. We do not meaningfully fight crime.

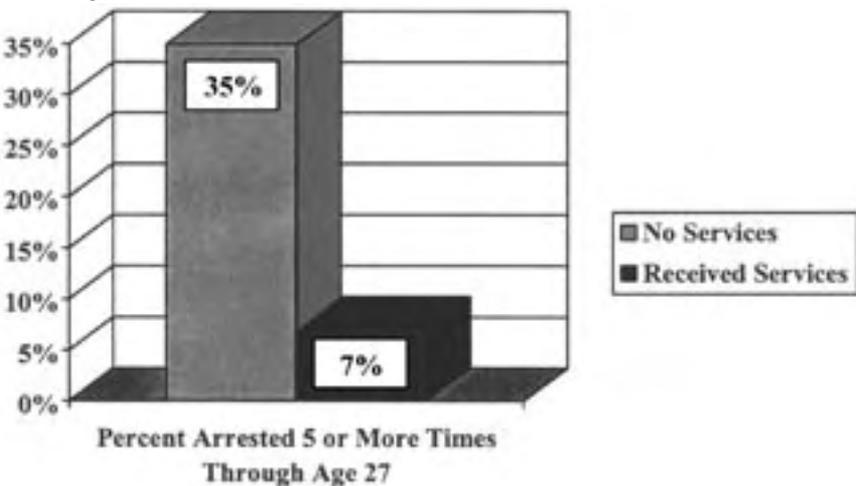
If we truly seek to fight crime, we will recognize and advocate for certain kinds of programs that have been scientifically proven to reduce crime. Consider some of the evidence. Most law enforcement professionals believe that child abuse and neglect increase the risk of subsequent criminal behavior. That phenomenon of risk has actually been credibly measured. In one of the most detailed studies of the issue to date, the National Institute of Justice concluded that being abused



or neglected as a child increased the likelihood of arrest as a juvenile by 59%, as an adult by 27%. Those who had been abused and neglected were nearly twice as likely as a demographically matched comparison group to have been arrested more than five times.

Alarming, approximately two million children a year experience physical abuse or neglect.¹ While most children who have been abused and neglected do not turn to crime, there is a high predictability of criminal activity following in the historical shadow of abuse and neglect. It does not require a rocket scientist to recognize that action is needed now rather than waiting for crime to bruise and batter our communities.

A program sponsored by the University of Rochester Medical School in which nurses visited high-risk mothers at home during pregnancy and for two years after birth, cut the rates of abuse and neglect among participants from nearly one child in five among the control group to one in 25, a 75% decline.² A similar program currently operating in Illinois, Healthy Families Illinois, furnishes families with the option to enroll in a comprehensive services program (about 95% accept) which provides preventive health care and home visits by trained professionals to teach parenting skills and to offer family counseling. If the foregoing research connection between preventing child abuse and thereby reducing crime is considered too attenuated, then consider a more direct research study. In the High/Scope Preschool study, three- and four-year-olds were randomly divided into a control group and a group participating in a quality preschool program with a weekly home visit aimed at teaching parents child-rearing skills. Years later, when these toddlers were 27-years-old, a comparison of arrest records for the two groups found that the preschool and parent training program had cut arrest rates in half and cut "chronic offender rates" (number arrested more than four times) from one in three to one in 14, and among males from nearly one in two to less than one in eight—an 80% reduction.³



There is considerably more research supporting the crime-fighting efficacy of early investments in the lives of children, and yet law enforcement leaders in Illinois

already know this principle to be true. When a random sample of law enforcement leaders from across Illinois was asked what effect expanding after-school programs and educational child care would have on youth crime and violence, 86% of them said such programs would greatly reduce youth crime and violence, while only 14% said they would have little impact on the problem. When asked to rank the effectiveness of different strategies to reduce juvenile crime, law enforcement leaders responded as follows:

- 13% believed that trying juveniles as adults would be most effective.
- 12% believed that hiring more police officers would be most effective.
- 3% believed that installing metal detectors and cameras in school would be most effective.
- 72% believed that after-school and child-care programs would be most effective.⁴

The nature and extent of FCIK's unique perspective (remember, the membership is exclusively police, prosecutors, and crime victims) is that law enforcement and courts are best able to recognize the limitations of their role in addressing the crime problem. Indeed, it is the recognition that we are profoundly incapable of "solving" the crime problem precisely because our professional roles are directed at apprehending and incapacitating criminals after they have committed crimes. George Sweat, former police chief of Winston-Salem, North Carolina said it quite well: "We need to start fighting crime in the high chair, not the electric chair. By then it is too late." If we climb "outside the box" and decline to mislead our constituents with false promises and expectations, we will do more for our communities than all of our traditional efforts combined.

Other Strategies

There are numerous other "outside the box" strategies in which we as law enforcement and prosecution experts should be collaboratively engaging as means for improvement of even our traditional functional expectations. They start with the commitment to decline the "blaming" alternatives police and prosecutors reserve for their commentary on each other's performances and the corresponding commitment to take responsibility for ensuring each other's successes. Consider, in varying degrees of the obvious, the following strategies:

- Monthly meetings between all of the chief police executives (chiefs, sheriff, district commander of Illinois State Police, FBI agent) in your county along with the elected state's attorney, in which communication standards are maintained, while the roundtabling of news and issues employs a planning approach instead of a reactive approach to shared challenges. The regular contact then encourages ongoing communications between adjoining and overlapping jurisdictions to take place.
- Multidisciplinary domestic violence team meetings, in which police, prosecutors, probation officers, victim advocates, perpetrator service providers, family violence council coordinators, legal aid lawyers, and related volunteers meet

on a biweekly basis to adopt, maintain, and trouble-shoot team protocol issues and concerns. In McLean County, supervisory staff officers attend, in addition to investigators. This multidisciplinary group also decides upon and directs ongoing roll call trainings for patrol officers, at which domestic violence prosecutors present information.

- Multidisciplinary children's advocacy team program, in which child advocates, police, prosecutors, DCFS, private child care representatives, and treatment providers meet weekly to staff cases under investigation or in prosecution in order to collaboratively serve the best interests of children who have been sexually or physically assaulted or otherwise abused and neglected. In our county, the sheriff and the state's attorney are on the board as well.
- A community program combining the efforts of police, prosecutors, probation officers, local schools, and social service providers (in McLean County, it is called Youth Impact) in order to address the community's gang problem by way of three coordinated strategies: (1) intelligence and suppression, (2) outreach and intervention in families at risk for gang involvement, and (3) prevention and public education. The McLean County Sheriff, Dave Owens, has been a long-time member of this board, which is also attended by the assistant chiefs of Normal and Bloomington police departments.
- Related to the foregoing community program, a virtual private network communications system on a web-based platform, by which schools (including alternative schools), police, prosecutors, and probation officers share vital information concerning students, probationers, local gang members, and other at-risk-for-violence issues, all under the auspices of a coordinated communications protocol compliant with state and federal law governing various confidentiality obligations of the constituent agencies.

These are sufficiently generic strategies that they ought to be adaptable to any community, though I confess my pride that all of these efforts and more are thriving in McLean County. At the core of these programs is the commitment of a community policing and community prosecution philosophy that started, first, with the state's attorney, chiefs of police, and sheriff being entirely committed to each other and, then, to the various other constituents of our community. It contemplates a virtual stripping away of all vestiges of "turf consciousness" to be replaced by a landscape of shared agendas. We either succeed together, or we do not succeed.

Another success we have observed as a consequence of discarding the traditionally jealous boundaries of police and prosecution disciplines is the development of a truly integrated criminal justice information system. Police incident reporting captures the crime incident at its earliest opportunity, and the data is entered into the system immediately. Supplemental reports and images of recovered evidence (e.g., crime scene photos, written witness statements, etc.) are also entered online. Booking of suspects, bonding, and jail management are all electronically captured as well. Prosecutors review the information provided and file charges online with the circuit clerk and the court. Feedback is immediately sent to the assigned officer, along with requests for follow-up investigation. The clerk's and the court's case management, including scheduling then adds to the seamless accessibility

of information, subject to rigorous security defined by the varying roles of the participants. The application McLean County refers to as the Electronic Justice System will complete additional components within the next year, adding case management for probation officers as well as the public defender's office. Ultimately, automated disposition reporting to the Illinois State Police and Department of Corrections will also be achieved. It all started, in my judgment, with police-prosecution teamwork as a foundation for success.

If such successes can be extended to a statewide scope, we will observe more collaborative training of police and prosecutors. While statewide training for police is vastly more advanced than curricula for prosecutors, it is my hope that a new program known as the Unified Illinois Prosecutor Training Program (UIPTP) will forge partnerships with ILETSB to build a collaborative future for prosecutors and police. UIPTP initially seeks to combine the resources of the principal current providers of continuing legal education for prosecutors, specifically, the state's attorney's appellate prosecutor, the attorney general's office, the Cook County State's Attorney's Office, and the Illinois State's Attorney's Association. Assuming these players coalesce successfully into a team provider of education and training for prosecutors, that team should strive to identify shared training opportunities with police training providers to extend and complete the transformation of our separate cultures into a more coordinated statewide community effort.

Whether our success as a team is measured by more clearances; by arrest; by more convictions following trial; and/or by the long-term, enduring safety of our citizens and peace in our neighborhoods, the secret of our success, once again, is not rocket science: Police and prosecutors either succeed together, or we do not succeed.

Endnotes

¹ Maxfield, M. G., & Spatz Widom, C. (1996, April). The cycle of violence: Revisited six years later. *Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine*, 150; Spatz Widom, C. (1992, October). The cycle of violence. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.

² Olds, D. L., Henderson, C. R., Jr., Chamberlin, R., & Tatelbaum, R. (1986). Preventing child abuse and neglect: A randomized trial of nurse home visitation. *Pediatrics*, 78(1).

³ Schweinhart, L. J., Barnes, H. B., & Weikart, D. P. (1993). *Significant benefits: The high scope Perry Preschool study through age 27*. High/Scope Educational Research Foundation, High/Scope Press Michigan, pp. 84-87.

⁴ Fight Crime: Invest in Kids website: <www.fightcrime.org>.

Charles Reynard has served as McLean County State's Attorney since 1987. He previously served as assistant state's attorney, later as assistant public defender, and was in private practice for nine years. He coauthored two editions of *Voir Dire in Child Victim Sex Abuse Trials: A Strategic Guide for Illinois Prosecutors* (1995 and 1996). He also authored *The Violence Stops Here Prosecuting Domestic Violence* (1999). Reynard has served as Chairman of the Continuing Legal Education for Illinois Prosecutors Committee (CLEIP) since its inception in 1995. He was appointed by Attorney General Jim Ryan to serve on the founding board and continues to serve as the prosecution representative of the Illinois Violence Prevention Authority. In 1996, he received a United Way recognition as Volunteer of the Year for the McLean County Child Protection Network. In 1998, he received the Human Dignity Award from the Illinois Coalition Against Domestic Violence and recognition for his office's Domestic Violence Legal Advocacy Program from the National Association of County Officials. His office was recognized as having 1999's outstanding prosecutor-based victim assistance program by Illinois Attorney General Jim Ryan. He is cochair of "Fight Crime: Invest in Kids Illinois" and ex officio member of the governing board of the Unified Illinois Prosecutor Training Program. Reynard is a graduate of Loyola University School of Law.

Police Training in England and Wales – An Overview

Nick Barnard
Chief Inspector
Norfolk Police, England

There are many sources of training available to all staff within the Police Service of England and Wales. In order to put the delivery of training into perspective, it is relevant to briefly outline the national boundaries and structure of the United Kingdom in Police jurisdiction and functional terms.

England, Wales, and Northern Ireland are made up of 43 police forces. Some are called *constabularies*; others have amalgamated and formed combined forces. Of course, the Metropolitan Police caters to London. The government and local authorities jointly fund the Police Service. The Home Office of the government is specifically responsible for ensuring an efficient and effective service. Part of the Home Office function is the delivery of core police activities; naturally, this includes national training. Scotland has its own Police Service and makes its own arrangements for national training.

Police training is delivered on several levels, nationally for core and common activities such as recruit training or locally for activity which is area specific. Local training is also locally procured, where appropriate, from commercial sources. This article focuses on national police training which is delivered by an organization surprisingly called National Police Training (NPT). NPT has a national remit to disseminate best practice and common standards across a whole range of policing activities, which is why it has grown into Europe's largest police training organization. Spread over the nation, NPT employs over 400 professional trainers, seconded police officers or specialist civilians, to develop and deliver high quality, innovative training programs. This training service is designed and provided in partnership with individual police forces, universities, colleges, and professional bodies.

These training programs are designed to support officers and civilian staff from the moment they are recruited, through the specialist areas they may serve to supervisory training to providing higher police management training.

The choice of courses is vast, and because NPT is integral to the Police Service, they are designed to reflect policing priorities; current thinking within police; research as well as local, national, and international initiatives. The majority of NPT courses are provided free of charge to members of the 43 forces, forming part of the funding arrangements for NPT by central government.

NPT is a truly national organization with ten establishments in England and Wales, all offering modern residential facilities. There are six Police Training Centres (PTC) which deliver the national foundation curriculum to all police recruits in England and Wales. These are strategically situated in Kent; Northumbria; Cheshire; West Midlands; Hampshire; and Cwmbran, Wales. Northern Ireland makes its

own arrangements for this level of training. Two other sites in Leicestershire offer training in surveillance skills for operatives, managers, and trainers. This includes training in use of the Police National Computer (PNC) and other national IT-related techniques.

At Harrogate in Yorkshire, NPT trains its own training staff as well as local "in force" trainers. This ensures a commonality and standardization of training delivery skills and techniques.

The headquarters of NPT is at Bramshill House in the Hampshire countryside. The history of this estate is traced back to 1066 with the first house being built there in 1340; the current house dates from 1605. An important Jacobean mansion house, Bramshill has had many experiences in its long existence. It was identified, in 1935, by Goering, Adolf Hitler's aide, as where he would live "when Germany won the war." Many kings and queens of England stayed here until 1953, when it was purchased for £50,000, by the Home Office to become the Police Staff College, now NPT headquarters. Originally 5000 acres, the estate now occupies some 264 acres and is said to be one of the most haunted houses in England, reputed to have 13 ghosts in total!

Bramshill has developed into the nationwide centre for the supply of specialist training as well as providing real-time operational support to forces with particular problems such as serious public disorder or complex crimes. In terms of higher or management training, the Leadership and Management Faculty at Bramshill is responsible for the training of senior officers and senior civilian staff, helping to equip them with the knowledge and understanding needed to develop the key national policing objectives of the future. This high level, strategic role has traditionally been supplied at Bramshill; now, this command training is also delivered to overseas police organizations.

NPT has the ability to guide and inform individual staff members from its large base of expertise and knowledge. This facilitates career management and planning from the recruitment or foundation stage through to the chief officer level. NPT also offers organizational training and courses in the management of change, projects, finance, resources, and staff.

Bramshill also provides NPT's consultancy service. This aspires to a centre of excellence for advice and assistance in many areas of police activity. Consultancy is available to local officers which can help them produce and design their own training or local courses. If necessary, local training can be commissioned in its entirety. The cavernous 15th century ballroom at Bramshill House also contains what can be argued to be the largest and most comprehensive crime- and police-related library in Europe. The library staff offers an unrivalled information, search, and dissemination service to its members. Huge collections of research by academics as well as officers, serve to provide references to the complete spectrum of police-associated topics, both historical and contemporary in nature. The staff undertakes research, free of charge, on behalf of library members from all over the world. This facility also houses a comprehensive global collection of journals and associated periodicals.

NPT consultancy also offers constabularies and police organizations a service by which specific efficiency and productivity in relation to national performance expectations set by the Home Office within the government are examined.

Perhaps the most significant operational consultancy services that NPT offers are the National Crime Faculty (NCF) and the National Operations Faculty (NOF). Both faculties are available to all police forces and are located at Bramshill.

The NCF seeks to offer forces an integrated approach to crime management, linking consultancy to training. Crime solving techniques and best practice are delivered via its training courses, and advice to individual investigators regarding specific crimes is offered on a one-to-one basis, if required. Training is offered for serious crime investigators and covers serious and linked crimes, kidnapping, analysis, computer crime, intelligence management, covert surveillance techniques, and other serious crimes. The NCF is also engaged in national projects such as the examination of links between unsolved murders across the country.

The NOF is in effect a partnership between NPT and the Association of Chief Police Officers of England and Wales (ACPO). It serves to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of operational management, day-to-day policing issues, and police-public interface. NOF also offers standard guidelines, best practice, commonality in approach, and training. Like the NCF, its philosophy is an integrated one, linking consultancy and training. A network of personal contacts of those who have experience of difficult policing operations is available nationally. The NOF is keen to promote policing strategies to reduce crime and disorder and focuses on three fronts: (1) crime and disorder reduction through partnership policing, (2) public order, and (3) critical or "one off" incident management. The National Operations Faculty delivers services through its information service which seeks to provide quality information on operational issues, training opportunities, community approaches to crime reduction, national policies, potential solutions, advisors, and good practice. The Information Service Team is supported on a daily basis by dedicated field officers operating across the country.

The programs offered by NPT cater to police officers and civilian staff from recruitment to retirement at all levels. Courses span skills training, management, and leadership development, and the courses are some of the most comprehensive available from one source. NPT facilitates a commonality of standards and practice that the community at large expects by means of quality research, continuous scanning of the policing field globally, and collaboration with other agencies.

The British Police Service is justly proud of NPT and sees it as pivotal in maintaining what is seen as a model of policing to which others aspire.

Nick Barnard joined the Police Service in 1976. He currently works in Norfolk, some 100 miles north of London. He has worked in the patrol branch, criminal investigation, community affairs, and specialist firearms. In 1997, Nick was awarded a master's degree at Leicester University, studying the use of information systems in the commercial security sector. Since 1998, he has been seconded to the Home Office in London, assisting in the development of standard Police IT applications.

Police Training: Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada

Sergeant Lorne Constantinoff

Sergeant Susan Grant

Karen Smith

Saskatoon Police Service, Canada

Saskatoon, a city of 208,700 people, rests comfortably along the banks of the South Saskatchewan River. Our city, situated 216 miles north of the United States Border and 140 miles east of the Alberta border is the largest within our province. The Saskatoon Police Service, made up of 328 officers, 42 special constables, and 83 civilians provides policing service to a community that is diverse in cultures and ethnic backgrounds. The English, Aboriginal, German, Ukrainian, French, and the Chinese, among others, enjoy cultural freedom within our city.

Our Police Service's greatest resource is our human resource. The training, education, and development of our members is valued. Maximizing the potential of all members of our service improves their ability to perform their job and to deal with the stress often attached to policing. It also positively affects the quality of service provided to the community.

Saskatoon Police Service Training

Training courses are offered at three levels in Canada. First is the local level, at which inhouse training courses are provided (e.g., Problem Solving in Policing). The second is provincial. The Saskatchewan Police College provides training courses for all officers in Saskatchewan (e.g., Child Abuse Investigators Course). Finally, courses are available nationally at the Canadian Police College in Ottawa (e.g., Polygraph Operators Course).

Training Priorities

Dictated by provincial law, there are four different courses that a Saskatchewan officer must successfully complete in his or her career.

Recruit Training Course: Applicant Level

The 17-week Recruit Training Course incorporates physical, academic, and skills-based training. It emphasizes investigative procedures, laws and their application, defensive tactics, and human behavior. This course is designed to facilitate the personal and professional development of police officers, rather than merely create a specialist in law enforcement. As a result, self-discipline, fitness as a lifestyle, and teamwork are stressed throughout the program. As officers frequently work on their own, the recruits are encouraged to develop the capacity for sound reasoning and good judgment in addition to a strong sense of morality and social awareness.

Operational Investigations Course: 3-5 Years Service

The Operational Investigations Course enhances the knowledge and investigative skills of junior police officers with three to five years of policing experience. Special emphasis is placed on human relations and developmental skills in the art of interviewing, collision analysis, family crisis intervention, child abuse investigation, and sexual abuse investigation. This ten-day course also includes sessions on forensic science, cultural relations and Metis issues, post-traumatic stress reactions, ethics, and recent case law.

Senior Constable Development Course: 6-10 Years Service

The Senior Constables Development Course, designed for operational personnel with six to ten years of service, focuses on an understanding of laws, crime trends, and investigation techniques. It also enhances the image of the participants as professionals. The intent of the program is to further the training of members responsible for the investigation of criminal activities to a level of competency just short of specialization and to give them the basis for leadership and developmental roles. This ten-day course also covers problem-oriented policing, Asian crime, coaching techniques, and aboriginal issues.

Introduction to Management: 15 or More Years Service

Introduction to Management is designed to develop officers' leadership and supervisory skills. The six-day program addresses supervisory roles and responsibilities, group dynamics, problem solving, employee involvement techniques, practical leadership applications, and communication skills. Officers take part in role playing situations and are formally evaluated on their appearance, interest and attitude, judgment, conduct, and cooperation during the course.

Law also requires annual qualifications with issued firearms and the Asp (collapsible baton).

Reflecting Community Needs

Problem-solving and crosscultural training were developed to ensure our policing involves and reflects the community and provides understanding for the cultures and beliefs of its members.

The Problem Solving Course provides officers with the ability to involve the community in problem solving initiatives that utilize efforts from community groups, businesses and other organizations in partnership with the police to combat crime in their area.

The Cultural Relations Course is designed to help officers develop greater interpersonal skills and an understanding of the diverse racial and ethnic groups with whom they interact. Rather than provide culturally specific facts about isolated racial and ethnic groups, the course explores the diverse issues that underlie race and ethnic relations and cross-cultural encounters between police and individuals of different ethnicities. The complex relationship between police and Saskatchewan's aboriginal population is explored in some detail. During

the four-day course, officers have the opportunity to attend a sweat lodge and a pipe ceremony.

Reflecting Policing Needs

In the ever-changing world of crime and law, the investigation of certain types of crimes often requires specialized training. Officers assigned to areas such as Morality, Major Crimes, Arson, Stolen Autos, and Commercial Crime require up-to-date techniques to solve cases.

The Child Abuse Investigator's Course examines the investigation of cases involving child abuse, both physical and sexual. The ten-day course focuses on the specific skills that are unique and critical to child abuse investigations. Five major areas are addressed in the program:

1. Legal Studies includes an extensive review of the legal basis of child abuse cases and the evidentiary issues which impact the court process.
2. Joint Investigations covers the necessity of the coordinated approach between police and child protection workers. The session examines the principles, processes, and provincial protocol that minimize trauma to the victim.
3. Child Development and Memory delineates the stages of normal and abnormal child development and children's susceptibility to memory defects and suggestibility.
4. Interviewing Techniques examines the critical elements of age-appropriate interviews.
5. Investigative Techniques examines the investigative tools available to overcome the difficulties of injury reconstruction and the child's family dynamics.

The Undercover Online Investigator's Course, is our most recent inhouse training, which involves hands-on practical exercises geared towards Internet, undercover, and sting investigations. The five-day course covers all aspects of target identification, evidence gathering, and case preparation. It identifies pitfalls; provides tricks and tips to isolate hackers, pedophiles, and criminal extremists; and outlines undercover security considerations.

All training courses are evaluated to ensure the techniques and theories taught are up to date and useful in policing.

Personal Growth Through Training

Training is an extremely important part of policing. Officers must be given the "tools" they need to do the job. Providing training and education allows members to improve themselves personally and professionally. The Ethics Training course assists officers when making judgment decisions. It demonstrates that morals and values are essential when making honorable choices. Training opportunities allow them to set future goals within their own sections and to follow "career paths" into other sections of the service. It also gives officers the ability to work efficiently

and effectively with the community. Any education an officer undertakes on his or her own time is financially supported by the Police Service. When successfully completed, officers will be reimbursed 50% of the cost of their course. The Saskatoon Police Service believes that "Knowledge is the cornerstone of growth." Learning is encouraged and welcomed.

Sergeant Lorne Constantinoff is the officer in charge of training for the Saskatoon Police Service. He has been a member of the service for 21 years and has been involved in training throughout his career. His responsibilities include the coordination, planning, and implementation of all training within the Saskatoon Police Service.

Sergeant Susan Grant is a 14-year member who currently works in the planning and research section. She is responsible for writing policy and procedure, researching police issues, and preparing proposals.

Karen Smith is the training development coordinator for the Saskatoon Police Training Unit. With a master's degree in adult education and a background in television production, her responsibilities include inservice course development, evaluation, training video production, public education through the media, and special event coordination. She has been employed with the police training unit for 11 years.

Russian Police University

Diana A. Zadorskaya, PhD

Saint-Petersburg University of the Ministry of Internal Affairs (MVD)

Saint-Petersburg University, Ministry of Internal Affairs, Russia–Mission

The Russian Saint-Petersburg University Ministry of Internal Affairs (MVD) (Russian National Police) was created in June 1998 by the Russian Federation Government by the decree and cooperative efforts of Saint-Petersburg Academy of MVD, Saint-Petersburg Military Institute of Internal Affairs, and Saint-Petersburg Institute of Fire Safety. The Saint-Petersburg University is designed to address, through training, education, research, and technical assistance, the myriad of public policy and management challenges that law enforcement personnel currently face.

The Ministry of Interior of Russia Saint-Petersburg University – Projects

The University provides a range of services and programs for the Russian Ministry of Interior. These services include the following:

- **Educational Programs.** Educational programs consist of an intensive four-year course for a bachelor's degree in jurisprudence and a three-year course for a master's degree. These courses were designed by Saint-Petersburg University to meet the needs and challenges of mid- and top-level law enforcement personnel, including police chiefs, legal experts, detectives and operatives, police psychologists and economists, and police technicians.
- The program requires a substantial commitment by cadets. Instructional hours are from 8AM until 3PM. Cadets are expected to spend the first year in residence (barracks).
- Persons attending these classes are expected to come prepared for an intensive learning experience. Extensive reading and research is required of all participants.
- *Class Size.* Class size is limited to 25-30 law enforcement cadets with or without police experience. Police personnel will receive first consideration. Minimum age is 18-years-old.
- *Cost.* There is no cost for cadets or police departments. MVD is sponsoring the program. The Ministry of Interior will provide the full paycheck for police officers in training and a modest stipend for recruited civilians.
- *University Size.* Police officers with practical experience and newly hired cadets are trained by 45 departments and 12 colleges. In the year 2000, there were 20,000 students and faculty.
- **Research.** More than 600 PhD professors work for the University today. Three dissertation councils for maintaining a thesis for a doctoral and candidate

degree on 12 scientific specialties are functioning at the University. Several joint research projects have been developed with the Russian Government, Ministry of Internal Affairs, Saint-Petersburg Administration of Internal Affairs and a wide variety of universities and training centers (police academies).

Diana A. Zadorskaya is Senior Administrator of International Department. She earned Master of Education in Human Resource Development at University of Illinois and Doctor of Philosophy in Legal Sciences Saint-Petersburg University of the Ministry of Internal Affairs (MVD). Dr. Zadorskaya is an author of eight articles.

Normal Police Department Citizen Police Academy

Gary G. Speers
Normal Police Department

During the past six years, the Normal Police Department has expanded the involvement of private citizens in community-based crime prevention efforts by offering its Citizen Police Academy (CPA). Basically, the CPA provides a mechanism for educating the public about the criminal justice system and the ways to resist crime. The overall goals are to gain support for police work, explain the operations of the police department, and encourage private citizens to undertake appropriate security measures. Typically, police personnel conduct the classes, which are coordinated by Assistant Chief of Police Gary Speers.

Academy participants gain an understanding of police procedures that are more reflective of everyday police work than what is portrayed by the media. They also learn how they can help to make their community free of crime. They become sources for new ideas or provide ways to better educate the public.

Our CPA also provides an avenue for Normal Police to learn about the concerns of community members. It encourages police interaction with the public, which can augment police job satisfaction and provide a measure of accountability to the community.

The curriculum of the CPA includes discussion on topics such as Self Defense Tactics, Explosives, School Safety, Firearms, Criminal Investigations, K-9 Units, Juveniles, as well as hands-on demonstrations and role-playing on such topics as Crime Scene and Evidence, and Understanding Traffic Stops. The CPA participants also tour the McLean County Jail and the Juvenile Detention Center.

In order to attend the Normal Police Department CPA, the applicant must . . .

- Live, work, or attend school in McLean County.
- Be 15 years of age or older.
- Have no prior felony convictions.

We have graduated 254 citizens to date, of which 50 are actively involved with the CPA Alumni Association. The Alumni Association meets once a month for continuing education on law enforcement issues as well as volunteering at community events such as Sugar Creek Arts Festival, National Night Out, Normal Cornfest, and McLean County Fair. Graduates of the CPA also staff a department shopping mall substation and work as "Goodwill Parking Ambassadors" for community events.

The Normal Police Department is currently conducting the 15th session of the CPA which began on January 18, 2001. Classes are being held every Thursday evening from 7:00PM to 9:30PM for 11 weeks.

The 16th CPA is scheduled for September 6, 2001. For information and/or an application, call Captain Gary Speers at (309) 454-9524.

Gary G. Speers is an assistant chief of the Normal Police Department in Normal, Illinois and a 34-year law enforcement practitioner.

He has been a police officer in Normal, Illinois, since September 11, 1967. He served as police school liaison officer for the Unit 5 Public School System and University High School (Private). He initiated and supervised a police community services unit, supervised a traffic safety unit, and supervised patrol shifts as sergeant and lieutenant. Currently, he is the chief of detectives/assistant chief of police, Normal Police Department. He is also the coordinator of the Normal Police Department Citizen Police Academy and has conducted specialized training in a wide variety of areas, particularly police community relations; media relations; and community policing concepts in the U.K., Germany, and Russia.

Recent awards include the Illinois State University Department of Criminal Justice Sciences–Alumni Achievement Award and the WJBC “Spirit of McLean County” community service award.

Police Training Institute: Citizen Police Academy

Lois Welling

Police Training Institute, Champaign-Urbana

What do the police really do? People have always had an interest in this subject. As a free nation, we hire these men and women to “protect and serve” us as individuals and our communities as a whole. The other side of that coin is that we bestow them with power, power to stop our vehicles, to invade our homes and our privacy. All of this is done under the authority of the laws that our elected officials have passed.

But what do the police really do? How few of us know the answer to that question that can affect us so profoundly. If we are truly interested, where can we go for answers? Does local and national news coverage give us an exact picture, or do we just see the highlights? The “if it bleeds, it leads” mentality of sensationalism seems to prevail.

And once we learn what the police really do, can they do it by themselves? Can any community afford a large enough police department to patrol to the extent the citizenry would like? And if they could and would, would we citizens be happy with that sort of police state? Perhaps the answer lies in the fact that we need cooperation between citizens and police to make our communities a safer place to live.

To gain cooperation between any two groups, you need knowledge and understanding. With this concept in mind, the Citizen Police Academy was born. It had its beginnings in Devon, England, and was called Police Night School. The objective was to open the lines of communication between the community and the law enforcement agencies that serve them. Upon learning of this concept, Sheriff Dave Madigan and then Director of the Police Training Institute, Michael Charles, discussed the idea of having such a Citizen Police Academy in Champaign County.

The Champaign County Citizen Police Academy began in the fall of 1994 with 21 participants. Since that time, we have held two classes per year—one in the spring and one in the fall. The program meets for three hours for 12 successive weeks, and over 400 people have graduated from the class. Positive feedback from graduates who spread the good word makes recruiting almost unnecessary.

Whereas most CPAs are sponsored by one law enforcement agency, the Champaign County Citizen Police Academy is unique in that it is sponsored by nine agencies that serve the geographical area. Each agency is allowed to sponsor five participants, and the academy is restricted to people who either live and/or work in the community.

Does a CPA work? From my perspective as coordinator after having just completed my 14th class, my answer would have to be an unqualified “yes.” I see these people

each week as they show up for a three-hour session and watch their faces as they listen to the officers tell them how they are trained and how the law and departmental policy dictated how they do their job. They finally get the answers to their many “what if” questions. During class breaks, they have the opportunity for a one-on-one discussion with the officers who patrol their city. They come to realize that these officers also live in their cities, raise their families, and send their children to school here. It soon becomes clear that we are all on the same side. They learn that it takes the work of all the citizens to make a city a safe and prosperous place to live and work, and the Citizen Police Academy is the vehicle for that learning.

Lois Welling is the administrative assistant to the director at the Police Training Institute, University of Illinois. She has been at the institute since 1980, beginning as a receptionist and quickly working her way up through several positions including course secretary, registrar, secretary to the director, specialized training manager, and basic training manager. Because of her experience in these various positions, her knowledge of the institute is extensive.

Lois has an associate degree from Parkland College and a BA in social science from the University of Illinois.

Lois is coordinator for the Champaign County Citizen Police Academy, which began in the fall of 1994. In association with Officer Mike Koster of the Aurora Police Department, she has helped coordinate the Annual Illinois CPA Symposium. She has also served on the Board of Directors of the National Citizen Police Academy Association since 1996.

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Illinois Law Enforcement Executive Forum Journal, inaugural issue, June 2000.

Methamphetamine Labs: A New Danger for Illinois, 30-minute videotape, produced in cooperation with the U.S. Drug Enforcement Administration, Illinois State Police, through funds from the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board.

Small Town Policing in the New Millennium: Strategies, Options, and Alternate Methods, Robin Johnson, author and researcher; published in cooperation with the Illinois Institute for Rural Affairs, March 2000.

Managing a Clandestine Laboratory Enforcement Program, Inspector Thomas McNamara, through a grant from the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board, March 1999.

Model Domestic Violence Protocol for Law Enforcement, 1999, through a grant from the Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority.

Making Empathy Statements to Defuse Conflict and Generate Rapport, Joseph Kulis et al., 1998.

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Zero Tolerance, 1994 Illinois Secretary of State police. (Videotape produced as well as a satellite interactive television program through Educational Broadcasting at Western Illinois University.)

Sexual Assault Investigation Series (three tapes) in cooperation with the Illinois Coalition Against Domestic Violence through a grant from the Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority, 1996.

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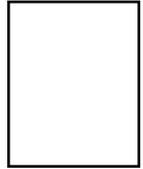
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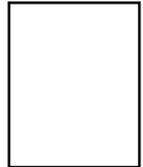
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