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Editorial

Law enforcement trainers lay the foundation for effective police performance. From the recruit basic academy to inservice, advanced, specialized, and roll call programs, it is the task of the trainer to ensure that those who protect the public are properly prepared with knowledge and skill to carry out a myriad of public safety duties as assigned.

In its most basic form the aim of a training program is to maximize the frequency of achieving a match between "professional skills needed" and "professional skills available" under conditions of uncertainty, constrained by availability of time and resources. In recent years, law enforcement trainers have done an exceptional job of employing innovative educational methods, techniques, and resources to ensure that law enforcement stays current with the changing demands of the profession.

The collection of articles contained in this publication provide impressive documentation of the innovative work of police trainers.

As Saunders (1970) stated so eloquently decades ago,

> ". . . training must be a continuous process to maintain effective performance in law enforcement. Changes in the laws, in technology, and in the needs of the community, make periodic retraining of all personnel essential. Old skills need sharpening with new techniques; specialized knowledge and skills must be taught for certain assignments or for promotion to higher responsibilities."

On all accounts, police trainers have met this challenge in the past and continue to do so today.

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Andragogy and Technology: Tools in the Contemporary Police Training Process

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Introduction

The concept of adult education methodologies combined with technological learning methodologies is an emerging field of study. As society ages and the need for life-long learning concepts pervade technical and professional disciplines, the combination of these two fields will be analogous to the exponential growth experienced in the technological field alone. This article examines the aforementioned areas of study and their applications in the law enforcement environment with an emphasis on investigative training. The synthesis is in both depth and breadth of theories, concepts, and practices of the components of contemporary police training program development.

Adult Education Methodology

Historical Perspective

This examination of the historical perspective centers on the problems facing the American educational system. The ineffective practices of the educational system have ill-prepared current employees for the impending challenges of the workplace of the future. Across the nation, there are insurmountable examples of students who fail to meet fundamental standardized requirements and ultimately fail in preparation for what life and the working environment hold in store. Losyk (1997) supports this as he states, "Almost half of all Americans between the ages of 21 and 25 lack basic literacy skills and are unable to balance a checkbook or read a map" (p. 41). In addition, Elias and Merriam (1995) cited the results of the Adult Performance Level (APL) Study conducted by the University of Texas that indicated that "20% of adults were found to be functionally incompetent" based on the identified competencies (p. 98). The problem continues to grow as few adequate life-long learning models exist to develop and augment professional and technical employee knowledge and skill development. This is a significant problem for law enforcement as this is the age range of the majority of newly hired police officers.

The task of higher education, public, and private organizations is tantamount to develop educational models that allow technical and professional employees the opportunity to grow and develop within their fields. Judy and D'Amico (1999) support this concept:

> Our task in the years ahead is to improve our educational system and the functioning of our labor markets. We will need to do more to prepare new workers for an economy in which most jobs will require better skills and higher levels of knowledge than most entering workers possess today (p. 75).

Cetron and Davies (2001) state with respect to the implications of technological advancements that, "New technologies often require a higher level of education and training to use them effectively" (p. 28). Although an outwardly rudimentary concept, many institutions of higher education as well as public and private organizations fail to grasp the magnitude of the concept itself. The testimonial to this statement is the continued failure of the system that has long since recognized the problems, but has failed to offer consistent and viable solutions.

Compounding the problem is the issue that this population is growing rapidly. According to Green (1997), the . . .

> U.S. Department of Education projections suggest that by 1998, five of every eleven college students attending U.S. colleges and universities will be age 25+; by next year, the number of students age 35+ will exceed those age 18 and 19 (p. 3).

As of the date of this report, the population of the age cohort of students over 22 exceeded that of those under 22.

Educational institutions have also failed to apply contemporary answers to age-old problems. Daniel (1997) contends . . .

> In most of the world, higher education is mired in a crisis that mixes three issues: access, cost, and flexibility. Unless we resolve this crisis, billions of people in the coming generations will be denied the intellectual liberation of the academic mode of thinking. The United States has the world's strongest university system but seems ill-equipped to guide us out of the crisis. This is because the U.S. system is peculiarly wedded to the technologies of real-time teaching and to the outmoded idea that quality in education is necessarily linked to exclusivity of access and extravagance of resource (p. 11).

The demand for alternative and effective systems of education and technological infusion then becomes readily apparent to the present and future of American educational institutions as well as public and private organizations. History tells us that the future will demonstrate the need for advanced approaches to contemporary educational problems.

Pedagogy and Andragogy

Webster's Encyclopedia of Dictionaries defines pedagogy as "the science of teaching" (Allee, 1983, p. 272). Pedagogical science is attuned to developmental and adult education. Pedagogical methods, however, are those that use universal approaches to teaching no matter the age cohort of the student. What history and research have proven though is that modeling educational systems for adults after those used in childhood development are grossly ineffective. Knowles (1980) affirmed this as he stated that . . .

> For many years it was assumed that the principles and techniques used in the education of children would be equally effective in helping adults learn . . . But as knowledge accumulated both from experience and from research in adult education and related social sciences, it became increasingly apparent

that adults were more than just grown-up children, that they possessed certain unique characteristics as learners that required different principles and techniques from those employed with children (p. 37).

With respect to adult learning methodologies, a study by Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers (as cited in Galbo, 1998) cited that 90% of students would transfer a new skill into use if theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and ongoing coaching were provided as elements of the professional development program (p. 13). Galbo (1998) extolls Malcolm S. Knowles' theory of andragogy as the "art and science of helping adults learn" (p. 13). Elias and Merriam (1995) further describe Knowles' theories in context to the adult education movement as . . .

> Humanistic Adult Education is related in its development to existential philosophy and humanistic psychology. The key concepts that are emphasized in this approach are freedom and autonomy, trust, active cooperation and participation, and self-directed learning . . . Malcolm Knowles is prominent in espousing this orientation in his needs-meeting and student-centered andragogical approach to adult learning. (p. 10)

Galbo (1998) delineates Knowles' seven elements of the adult learning process as follows:

1. Climate setting
2. Involving learners in mutual planning
3. Involving participants in diagnosing their own needs for learning
4. Involving learners in formulating their learning objectives
5. Involving learners in designing learning plans
6. Helping learners carry out their learning plans
7. Involving learners in evaluating their learning (p. 13)

Eduard Lindeman (as cited in Henschke, 1998) also said that andragogy is the true method by which adults keep themselves intelligent about the modern world and that its use would make a qualitative difference in the life of our time (p. 12).

Elias and Merriam (1995) reported Lindeman's progressive view of the teacher's new role in his theory of adult education as follows:

> The teacher finds a new function, he is no longer the oracle who speaks from the platform of authority, but rather the guide, the pointer-out, who also participates in learning in proportion to the vitality and relevancy of his facts and experiences. (p. 64)

Elias and Merriam (1995) then built on this concept by presenting Kenneth Benne's philosophy of the progressive relationship between teacher and learner:

> Benne (1957) has presented a view of the teacher-learner relationship that is clearly in the progressive spirit. He prefers to view the teacher as a helper in the learning process. The teacher as helper must not only possess knowledge, but must also evaluate the knowledge that the learner acquires. The teacher-helper is a resource person who knows more about what is being studied.

It is also the task of this helper to aid the learner in removing some of the emotional blocks to learning. Finally, the role of the teacher-learner is to establish the appropriate methodology for the learning, which for Benne is the experimental method (p. 65).

Training and Lifelong Learning

Griffin (1996) defines training as, "teaching operational or technical employees how to do the job for which they were hired" (p. 394). In the public and private sectors though, training is evolving not only into the development of abilities in specific job functions, but also the development of rudimentary literacy skills that employees have failed to assimilate in previous educational pursuits. Impeding this process is the clear inability of the education system to properly prepare the impending workforce for the challenges of the workplace of the future. According to Rothwell, Hohne, and King (2000), . . .

> According to Goals 2000, a federal project in the U.S. dedicated to preparing school children for the 21st century, 60% of new jobs in the United States will require advanced technological skills by the year 2000, but only 20% of the U.S. workforce possesses these skills today. Corporate America must be prepared to bridge these skills gaps with corporate sponsorship of higher education and/or internal training. (p. 183)

Knoke (1996) also predicted of the future workforce that "individuals will no longer undergo early-life education and then work, but will need life-long education mingled with work" (p. 72). Larsen and Istance (2001) also stated with respect to lifelong learning, "The major problem remains that lifelong learners tend to be those who have already done well in initial education, although those who did not stand to gain the most" (p. 21).

The dynamic nature of changing working requirements and conditions also have to be considered in the entire context of the training realm. Exploring hiring practices in an organization must transcend the need for employee screening that identifies prospective employees who have the ability to become life-long learners. According to Rothwell et al. (2000), . . .

> Recruiting efforts need to place an increased value on an applicant's ability to learn in proportion to his or her work experience. The hiring decision should not be based solely on "what can you do for me now," but also on "what you can learn to do for me in the future." (p. 177)

Gadbow and Hannah (1998) supported this concept with respect to skills, knowledge, and abilities in educational trends in the information age:

> The critical skill that is desired in workers in the knowledge economy is the ability to think—to synthesize, make generalizations, divide into categories, draw inferences, distinguish between fact and opinion, and organize facts to analyze a problem. Education must continue beyond early formal schooling because knowledge of any given subject that is not continually updated will become obsolete. The most important skill that an employee has, therefore, is the ability to learn. (p. 3)

Technological Methodologies in Adult Education

Technological Advancements

Knowles (1980) stated that, "The task of modern education, therefore, becomes one of finding new ways to link learners with learning resources" (p. 20). The Behavioral Adult Education movement as described by Elias and Merriam (1995) added breadth to the process of adult education methodology:

> Behaviorism's impact on education has resulted in the development of several specific instructional methodologies. Competency-based education can be viewed as an instructional method as well as a concept. So too can criterion-referenced instruction. Other methods associated with behaviorism are programmed instruction, computer based or computer assisted instruction, mastery learning, teaching machines, contract learning, Personalized System of Instruction (PSI), Individually Guided Education (IGE), and Individually Prescribed Instruction (IPI). Whatever the method, the responsibility for learning lies primarily with the learner. (p. 103)

The progress of the past score of years has provided the crucial link to enhance adult education as augmented with technological advancements. While the technological industry continues to experience rapid and unparalleled growth, the statistics that have been cited by Judy and D'Amico as well as Knoke are significant. Judy and D'Amico (1999) state the following:

> Approximately 40% of American households owned computers in early 1996; by the year 2000 the figure is likely to exceed 60%. By 2010, when American consumers' computer, television, wireless, and other telecommunications network services will be increasingly integrated and supplied by a large number of avidly competing providers, 90% of households will own computers. (p. 19)

Knoke (1996) also predicted that . . .

> What corresponds to today's home desktop computer will, in thirty years, be a million times more powerful, as now, processing power has doubled while computer size has halved every eighteen months, a progression so consistent it is referred to as Moore's Law (named for one of the founders of Intel). (p. 32)

A rapid and continued response to the technological tidal wave is clearly apparent if an organization's intent is to maintain its employees' abilities to keep pace with the required changes of each and every field and discipline.

Technology has successfully fashioned its way into everyday life. In both the personal and professional environments, the integration of technology has in many instances developed into a dependency. Despite the advances to date, the computer industry continues to grow exponentially garnering significant advancements on a daily basis. And yet, Knoke (1996) predicts that, "Quite simply, the true computer revolution has yet to begin" (p. 33).

Technology in Education, Training, and Distance Learning

The use of technology is fast permeating the education and training field. Both real and virtual universities offer a litany of online courses and programs. Esteemed institutions such as Harvard University have begun to recognize the value of the cyber training technique to deliver their programs to their respective student populations. The State University of New York's (SUNY) Learning Network is one of the largest in the country and is continuing to grow. What is critical to understand is that not only is the educational media different, but the teaching/learning model needs to also be altered to meet the needs of this unique learning population. Driscoll (1998) delineates technologically based training as follows:

> Web-based training is not simply a new format for instructor-led or self-paced training. Merely changing the format creates passive programs called "electronic page turners" that frustrate learners. These programs resemble books, presenting information in a linear format one page at a time. Well-designed Web-based training takes new or existing content and uses the power of the Web to increase employee productivity. They are learner centered—designed to engage the learners, draw on their experiences, and meet their needs. (p. 9)

One of the most significant advantages of technologically based training formats is the uniqueness of time and place utility. Web-based or electronic programs can be either synchronous or asynchronous in delivery. Huang (2002) supports this by stating . . .

> One of the most salient features of online learning is that it allows learning to be place and time independent (Vrasidas and McIsaac, 2000). Adult learners can arrange their learning around their everyday lives without being constrained by time and place. Moreover, online learning allows learners to take courses not available on campus resulting in cost effective learning environments, and utilizes some appropriate delivery and instruction methods. So, it becomes quite clear that a lot of people can benefit from this second chance to educate themselves. (p. 27)

Advances in technology, however, come with a price. Green (1997) states that "developing technology enabled distance education is neither simple nor inexpensive. It is best viewed as a business, one that involves real . . . and recurring costs: money, time, personnel, content, and a significant technological infrastructure" (p. 3). The balance of cost is the benefit obtained from the increased productivity and customer service that the technology can offer in the long term.

The predominant factor in selecting a technologically based training format is the likelihood for success in transferring the needed knowledge, skill, or ability to improve individual and collective employee performance. Lee and Owens (2000) support this concept:

> Technology-based solutions must be viewed as helping to achieve corporate goals and objectives. John Noonan (1993) wrote that if the training function is ever to escape "corporate America's basement," it must transform into an organization that ties solutions to business needs. (p. xi)

Technology in the Law Enforcement Field

As identified in other sectors, technological advances in the law enforcement discipline have also steadily risen. Numerous examples can be offered of past and present technological advances such as police patrol vehicles that had only one or two channel two-way radios in the 1960s to today's high speed and mega capacity lap top computers that are tied into mainframes that not only allow report processing but instantaneous point of contact records checks to identify criminal and wanted persons at lightning fast speeds.

Automated photographic arrays of potential criminal suspects have steadily replaced the antiquated "mugbook" photographic lineups of the past. To offer a practitioner's insight, during the researcher's developmental stage in law enforcement in 1985, the Rochester Police Department had photographic mugbooks that were maintained in the individual patrol sections or districts. Each patrol section had 10 to 15 four-inch, three-ring binders sated with photographs of known offenders. Every crime victim and/or witness was required to view the books subsequent to every report of a crime in an attempt to identify the offender. Many legal and investigative problems occurred as mugbooks were not updated often, did not contain known offenders of other patrol sections/districts despite the transient nature of crime, and were subject to court challenge. With the advent of automated mugbooks that allow query searches by physical description, the field of potential suspects can be narrowed, and all offenders on a county-wide basis can be viewed in a more time- and cost-effective manner that currently withstands court scrutiny.

With respect to technological advancements in training, computer enhanced training simulations have been used to broaden and legitimize the police officer training experience through such areas as simulated firearms, tactical scenarios, and driving skills. Peak (2003) identified the use and validity of technologically/computer-based training as follows:

> Other methods of police training that are in use include computer-based training (CBT), electronic bulletin boards, satellite training and teleconferencing, online computer forums, and correspondence courses. With computer costs declining, CBT has been increasingly used and shown to be more effective. As CBT simulates real-life situations through the use of computer-modeled problems, it closely duplicates the way we think. One study found that police officers who learned about the exclusionary rule through CBT understood the material significantly better than the non-CBT control group. (p. 78)

The Foundation of COMPSTAT

One of the most contemporary examples of technological advances in law enforcement has to deal with the field of crime analysis. The following is a summary of the foundations of COMPSTAT, a geographically based information systems model that provides real-time crime analysis and promotes technologically based learning organizations.

Gottlieb, Arenberg, and Singh (1998) offered the following perspective on the origins of crime analysis:

> Analyzing crime to identify suspects and crime patterns can be traced to the feudal period of England. Populations of geographic areas were small, people knew each other well, and they often spent an entire lifetime in the same village or town. The local constable knew who the troublemakers were, where they lived, and had a good working knowledge of how they committed crimes. (p. 1)

The 1960s brought about the first organized effort in crime analysis in law enforcement organizations. According to Gottlieb et al. (1998), . . .

> Wilson (Orlando Winfield Wilson, the lead thinker in modern police practices) identified crime analysis as an essential police function and recommended that a crime analysis section be created within planning and research divisions of large police departments. The crime analysis section was clearly envisioned as being responsible for systematic examination of "daily reports of serious crimes in order to determine the location, time, special characteristics, similarities to other criminal events, and various significant facts that may help to identify either a criminal or the existence of a pattern of criminal activity. (p. 3)

Historically, crime analysis has been a precept of law enforcement practices for several decades. From the earliest inception of the pin map to rudimentarily track offenses such as robbery, burglary, and larceny, to the technologically sophisticated crime mapping programs featured in the television series *The District*, the message is clear that a system needs to exist in the policing arena that tracks, monitors, and has the potential to predict criminal offenses.

The genesis of contemporary crime analysis and proactive police strategy has its foundation in the New York Police Department. The COMPSTAT program was developed based upon five distinct principles as cited by Anemone and Kasanof (1999):

1. Understand that leadership and people make a difference.
2. Track crime statistics.
3. Empower local commanders.
4. Look for results, not efforts.
5. Use the four steps to crime reduction: (1) accurate and timely intelligence, (2) rapid deployment, (3) effective tactics, and (4) relentless follow-up and assessment. (p. 90)

The validation process that was used was the review of the ebb in the crime tide. Ward (2000) extolls how COMPSTAT worked by stating, "COMPSTAT provided New York's Finest with a sophisticated navigation system; it identified patterns of criminality and then commanders systematically moved resources to address these problems" (p. 136). As a result of the implementation of COMPSTAT, not only was crime reduced drastically, but also, the residents began to perceive higher personal safety levels.

What COMPSTAT evolved into was not only a strategy for crime reduction, but more importantly, a strategy for a learning organization. Anemone and Kasanof (1999) supported this concept by stating that, "Precinct commanders submit written plans to deal with crime conditions. These plans become part of a library of different, successful approaches for dealing with various crime situations. The plans are available to any Precinct Commander who needs them" (p. 94). Those plans are used as training tools in the COMPSTAT model.

Contemporary Law Enforcement Applications of Investigative Training

Investigator School Standards

Many states offer programs in investigative training for criminal investigators. The New York State Office of Public Safety's 60-hour curriculum for investigators is used throughout the state at regional training centers as a prerequisite for certification (New York State Office of Public Safety, 1991). Miskinis (1998) delineates the Utah investigator school as a 60-hour course encompassing the following:

> The Basic Criminal Investigators' Academy is targeted for all Utah law enforcement officers in investigative work or those wanting to enter it. It offers basic and advanced courses in areas that included crime scene techniques and follow-up, interviewing, interrogation, surveillance, undercover techniques, informants, sketching and photography, court testimony, report writing, identification, collection and preservation of evidence, specific investigations, advanced crime labs, psychological profiling and financial investigation. (p. 115)

Also of note is that a trend is emerging concerning the certification of instructors in criminal investigation. For instance, state requirements for investigative training often only mandate that a general topics instructor develop and instruct investigative programs to current and prospective investigators. The California POST requires a specific investigator instructor certification. Cope and Fraser (1999) state . . .

> In 1993, the Institute began functioning, and POST identified the need to have specially trained instructors to present the material to students. A group of specialists, POST Master Instructors and Consultants, were selected to develop an instructors Up-Date Workshop, which would be required for all instructors to complete before they would be allowed to teach any of the Institute's classes. (p. 18)

Case Studies in Law Enforcement Training

Case studies have long been recognized in the private sector as an effective training tool. Harvard University has developed case studies of actual organizations that are in use in universities throughout the free world. Griffin (1996) supports the use of case studies in the training environment as he states, "When the content is interpersonal relations or group decision making, however, firms must use a method that allows interpersonal contact such as role playing or case discussion groups" (p. 394).

The foundational concepts of case studies in problem solving methodologies have been cited in Eduard C. Lindeman's seminal work in the social education movement. Stubblefield and Keane (1994) contend . . .

> Social education, Lindeman (1933) wrote in his evaluation of the project, produces "socialized individuals" who can "function constructively in collective fashion" (p. 172). Education that rejects social methods becomes irrelevant in a society where collectives dominate. Though the Inquiry folded after a decade, its pioneering conference method demonstrated how education becomes socially important when it goes beyond the acquisition of knowledge to the application of knowledge to problem solving in real-life situations. (p. 212)

The use of case studies in the law enforcement training realm is evolving. The tactic has been recognized in the preliminary investigator testing processes and is being extended into training program development. Peak, Evans, Adams, and Ashby (1998) offer the following procedural example of the effective use of a case study/scenario investigator candidate testing:

> The homicide scenario involved a double murder, with two bodies found in various stages of decomposition in the desert. Clues were provided, and enough details given to allow applicants to piece together the facts, explain step-by-step how they would proceed through the investigation and prepare a case for prosecution. (p. 168)

Another cutting edge move in law enforcement training that lends itself to adult learning methodology is a concept entitled Problem-based Police Training (PPT). According to Weinblatt (1999), . . .

> Under the new wave, referred to by some as Problem-based Police Training (PPT), problems and scenarios become the conduit through which an understanding and ability to problem solve develops. Instructors serve as guides and facilitators, forcing students to find answers on their own much as they would have to on the street. (p. 84)

Law enforcement trainers have long recognized the need for contemporary concepts and methodologies in improving performance through a change in the current police training practices. While embraced by a core group of law enforcement trainers, law enforcement administrators along with state and federal certification bodies still choose to live in the past. Unfortunately, organizational cultures are able to live beyond new and innovative concepts, no matter how valid. The resilience of those cultures may ultimately prove to last beyond even the most valid of concepts.

As a training tool, case studies can be designed and tailored specifically to a particular organization's needs. The case study then can effectively and efficiently test cognitive ability such as job knowledge and behavioral skills such as decision-making for the particular position.

Legal Issues of Law Enforcement Training

Unlike other disciplines, the law enforcement field is constricted by insurmountable federal, state, and local regulations that control the method and duration of training. Those same legal issues when applied to a force-field analysis overcome the resistance of all other driving forces combined. Therefore, the impetus of the majority of training programs to improve performance in a police organization is borne from necessity rather than convention.

The lead court decision in the failure to train in the law enforcement venue is the case of the *City of Canton v. Harris* (1989). Spector (2001) states with respect to *Canton* that . . .

> The court held that the inadequacy of police training may serve as the basis for Section 1983 liability only where the failure to train amounts to deliberate indifference to the rights of persons with whom the police come in contact. The court went on to explain that "this will occur when the need for more or different training is so obvious, and the inadequacy so likely to result in the violation of constitutional rights, that the policymakers of the city can reasonably be said to have been indifferent to the need." (p. 74)

Failing to train law enforcement personnel in emerging legal issues many times leads to both civil and criminal liability on behalf of the officer and the department. Cases are heard and decided upon on a consistent basis. Risher (2001) states with respect to the United States Supreme Court findings in *Brown v. Bryan County*:

> The Fifth Circuit held that the county was liable because a reasonable jury could conclude . . . that it should have been obvious to the sheriff that not training the deputy would result in his applying force that would jeopardize citizens' Fourth Amendment rights and . . . that this failure was the "moving force" that caused the constitutional injury. The court concluded that the failure to train one officer adequately, and evidence of a causal connection between that lack of training and the injury, may create municipal liability under Section 1983. (p. 10)

Although many other federal court decisions relate to *Canton* and *Brown*, the premise of gross negligence is a common theme among state court decisions also. Application of the law transcends not only the lack of training, but also the inadequacy of training in accepted law enforcement policy and procedure in addressing operational tactics.

Training Delivery Systems

The first consideration in training program development is needs assessment. A full understanding of the nature and scope of the training issue must be explored before employing a specific training technique. According to Lee and Owens (2000), . . .

> During needs assessment it is critical to focus on gathering the information you need to be able to make informed decisions. The information from needs

assessment provides input into front-end analysis in that, once the need for an intervention is established in needs assessment, front-end analysis explores deeper levels of information needed for the design of the solution. (p. 4)

Needs assessment transcends not only program content, but also training delivery systems. Part and parcel to program development is the design of a delivery system that will ensure the most efficient and effective transfer of knowledge and the change management of behaviors. The quality of the training program then becomes tantamount to the delivery system. Thompson (2000) states with respect to selecting the appropriate teaching medium, "Four media formats are used widely in education: lecture, slide-tape, video, and computer. Each has advantages and disadvantages in terms of development time and cost, presentation time and cost, and product quality" (p. 35).

An additional consideration for law enforcement training programs deals with the nature of scheduling personnel in a 24-hour-7-day-per-week operation. Police organizations function around the clock and with minimum staffing. To implement any training program would require sensitivity to the environment as well as the ability to adapt to any training need identified. Smith (1998) succinctly addresses the problem of training law enforcement officers by stating, "Don't always follow training protocol requiring a precise location, specific training aids, or a mandated time frame" (p. 115).

Baker and Piland-Baker (2000) state the following with respect to cyber training concepts:

> Successful instructors encourage the critical thinking process and stimulate learning through a variety of instructional techniques. The combination of effective teaching strategy motivates officers, enhances retention, and helps maintain a creative learning environment. Empowering officers to become successful learners will enhance their ability to make effective decisions. (p. 121)

Finally, technology and web-based training though, no matter how attractive or cost-efficient may not prove to be the panacea of training methodologies. According to Driscoll (1998), . . .

> Web-based training is a potential solution to a performance problem if the learners lack of skills or knowledge . . . Like any training, it will not work if the performance problem is the result of factors other than lack of skill or knowledge. (p. 2)

The research has revealed several options that could be employed in this environment in order to positively influence education and training in the law enforcement environment. First is the use of the Internet to deliver web-based training programs at the district/section and unit/specialized squad levels. Developing programmed instructional modules that can be delivered via technology at times and places that line employees are assigned would ensure avant-garde training. Other mediums are the development of CD and video-based training methods to bring contemporary concepts to the rank and file.

Teleconferencing should also be considered as an option if funds could be secured to bring that technology to the classroom.

Conclusion

Past, Present, and Future of Educational Technology

With respect to the past and present, this article has revealed that based upon historical and empirical data, the future growth of technology in the field of education is imminent. In addition, the experts in the fields of education and technology support the application of andragogical methods to an aging student cohort. Several technological methodologies were revealed to enhance the learning environment for both synchronous and asynchronous teaching to adult learners. The application of adult learning methodology and technology were then applied to the law enforcement realm to provide the researcher with practical and viable options to address police organizational concerns. With respect to the future, Treadwell (1991) stated the following over a decade ago:

> We are at a critical moment of decision in planning our nation's future. Our population is aging. As people move toward retirement age, they are looking to turn over work and tax responsibilities to the next generation. These responsibilities will require more educational preparation for an increasingly "high-tech" world. Unfortunately, the "old" way of doing business in education does not appear to fit the emerging demographic patterns; declining rates of high school graduation and college participation bear witness to this trend. Unless radical approaches are tried and succeed, our chances for improving the quality of life in this country will fade as we enter the new millennium. (p. 9)

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A Case Study of Simulator Sickness During Law Enforcement Driver Training: Incidence and Training Impact

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Increasingly, simulators are being used to support law enforcement driver training. Although we would estimate that less than 10% of law enforcement agencies utilize simulators to support driver training, this number can be expected to increase as the cost of simulation decreases. In addition, other factors that can be expected to increase the use of simulation in law enforcement include opportunities to practice maneuvers that would be unsafe to perform in the actual vehicle, standardization of training exposures, more opportunities for training, and diagnostic performance assessment. Additional motivation in law enforcement includes the following: cost and economic impact of operating driving ranges; limited driver training courses such that, in most cases, the only driver training received by law enforcement personnel occurs during initial recruit training; and legal ramifications. Based on the *Canton v. Harris* Supreme Court decision, municipalities may be liable for failure to train officers in "usual and recurring situations with which they must deal" (*Canton v. Harris*, 1989). This would include pursuit and emergency response driving, both of which are high-risk, occur relatively infrequently, and require higher level driving skills.

While simulators have potential for supporting training in law enforcement, a potential byproduct of simulator training is simulator sickness. Simulator sickness is a form of motion sickness that afflicts individuals training in simulators. Its occurrence has been well documented in aviation in which the use of simulators has become a staple training medium. The focus of this article is to survey the incidence, training impact, and predictors of simulator sickness in one law enforcement agency.

Simulator Sickness

Simulator sickness was first documented by Havron & Butler (1957) and Miller and Goodson (1960) who reported motion sickness like symptoms in Navy instructors and pilots in connection with training in a helicopter simulator. Subsequent to these observations, Kennedy, Lilienthal, Berbaum, Baltzley, and McCauley (1989) conducted a large survey of simulator sickness by examining symptoms in over 1000 pilots across a sample of ten Navy flight simulators. They found that the percentage of individuals reporting symptoms ranged from 10% in the least provocative simulator to 60% in the most provocative simulator. Symptoms included nausea, stomach awareness, sweating, disorientation, eyestrain, headaches, and dizziness. Ataxia, or postural disequilibrium, was present after training in some of the simulators. Only one case of vomiting was reported.

Although simulator sickness symptoms tend to dissipate quickly, some individuals experience symptoms that outlast the exposure. In addition, in a small percentage

of cases, symptoms appear some time after the exposure and can be disturbing. These aftereffects include inversions of the visual field, sensations of turning or climbing while lying down, and disrupted coordination (Baltzley, Gower, Kennedy, & Lilienthal, 1988; Kellogg, Castore, & Coward, 1980; Ungs, 1987).

Negative consequences of simulator sickness include reduced well-being and safety hazards associated with aftereffects. Simulator sickness may also affect operational readiness. In some commercial and military aviation communities, pilots are restricted from flying for some hours after training in flight simulators. There are also training implications. For example, trainees may develop habits in the simulator to reduce sickness, such as minimizing head movements, which may not be appropriate in the actual vehicle. Also, simulator sickness may interfere with performance, be distracting, and negatively affect opinions of the training.

Causes

Factors implicated in simulator sickness include equipment variables, user characteristics, and the ways in which simulators are used. Equipment factors include the actual motion or vibration provided, either through motion bases or seat shakers. Motion appears to contribute to development of symptoms such as nausea, much the same way it does in seasickness. Eyestrain-related symptoms tend to be more prominent in simulator sickness compared to other forms of motion sickness. Flicker and optical distortions that arise from off-axis viewing and misaligned optics can produce eyestrain, headaches, and difficulty focusing as the oculomotor system tries to adapt to the unusual stimulation (Ebenholtz, 1992).

A number of user characteristics are correlated with the occurrence of simulator sickness. Individuals with more experience in the actual vehicle are more likely to experience symptoms. This finding had been documented in both flight and driving simulators (Casali, 1986). There are two implications of this for law enforcement drivers. On the one hand, because most law enforcement drivers have hundreds of hours of time on task, driver simulator sickness may be more prevalent than found in the aviation domain. On the other hand, it will be less useful as a predictor variable because there is little variability; that is, everyone will have many hours of time on task.

Some research finds that females are more susceptible than males (Casali, 1986; Money, 1970), although gender is not always significantly correlated with occurrence of symptoms (Frank, Casali, & Wierwille, 1988). Motion sickness susceptibility also decreases with age (Reason & Brand, 1975). Finally, individuals who are not in their usual state of fitness or who have a susceptibility to other forms of motion sickness are more likely to experience simulator sickness (Kennedy & Fowlkes, 1992).

The ways in which simulators are used will also affect the incidence and severity of symptoms. This includes the length of training sessions, with longer sessions being more provocative. The nature of scenario content can also impact the severity of symptoms. Scenarios with more maneuvering involving turns and changes in acceleration and altitude are more likely to cause illness (Kennedy, Berbaum, Lilienthal, Dunlap, Mulligan, & Funaro, 1987). One reason for this is high angular acceleration of visual edges, a factor that can enhance vection, or the sensation of apparent motion, which is associated with simulator sickness (Kennedy et al.,

1987). It can also reveal the imperfections in the simulation and enhance distortions or cue disparities (Kennedy et al., 1987). In addition, freezing or stopping the simulator during a turn or other maneuver can be disorienting to trainees.

The prevailing theory of simulator sickness is that simulators result in patterns of visual and vestibular stimulations that are different than those experienced when performing the actual task. At first, the body reacts to this conflict as if a toxic substance had been ingested (Treisman, 1977); however, with repeated exposures, symptoms decline. Thus, individuals adapt to simulators so that symptoms are reduced over repeated exposures, presumably through adaptation of the sensory systems (and as users learn behaviors that reduce symptoms). Kennedy, Lane, Berbaum, & Lilienthal (1993) reported a decrease in symptoms after four exposures to a provocative Navy flight simulator. Raisler and Lampton (n.d.) also reported a dramatic decrease in symptoms across three exposures in a tank simulator. By the third exposure, post-training symptoms were no different than pre-exposure symptoms. As Kennedy et al. (1987) noted, "Adaptation of the individual is one of the strongest and most potent fixes for simulator sickness" (p. 12).

Summary

In summary, simulator sickness is a potential concern as law enforcement communities incorporate simulation into driver training programs. This study sought to document the incidence in one law enforcement agency that had begun to incorporate simulation into its driver training program. The results document incidence for classes held from spring 2001 to spring 2002.

Method

Participants

Participants were 219 deputy sheriffs [177 males and 38 females (in four cases, gender was not reported), mean age = 39.8 years] reporting for a three-hour block of instruction that included a firearms simulator, driving simulator, and computer-based training. All participants reported that they were in their usual state of fitness prior to training in the simulator.

Driving Simulator

The training device simulates the cockpit and driving characteristics of a Ford Crown Victoria. It incorporates five CRT screens, producing a 225 degree field of view. The simulator also incorporates a three-degree-of-freedom motion seat, providing pitch, and/or yaw and heave stimulation.

Materials

Incidence of simulator sickness was assessed with the Simulator Sickness Questionnaire (SSQ) (Kennedy et al., 1993). The SSQ consists of 16 symptoms that are rated as either "none," "slight," "moderate," or "severe." The SSQ produces four scores, an overall Total Severity score and three subscale scores: Nausea, Disorientation, and Oculomotor. The Total Severity score is examined to determine the overall severity of simulator sickness. The subscale scores are examined to

further define the problem. Each of the dimensions is hypothesized to reflect a different target system of the body. Nausea subscale scores are based on gastrointestinal symptoms such as nausea, stomach awareness, salivation, and burping. Disorientation scores are related to vestibular symptoms such as dizziness and vertigo. High Nausea and Disorientation subscale scores may implicate motion or vibration as a causal factor. High Oculomotor scores, indicating a preponderance of visual symptoms, may indicate problems with calibration of the simulator visual system. Kennedy et al. (1993) suggest that researchers assess post-exposure symptoms to document incidence of sickness under the condition that participants who report that they are not in their usual state of fitness prior to exposure be excluded from the analysis. This was the case for the present effort.

In addition to the SSQ, all participants completed a training reactions questionnaire in which course characteristics such as overall course value, instructor knowledge, and presentation of materials were rated on a five-point Likert-type scale. Participants also indicated whether (yes or no) they would recommend the training to a colleague. Finally, the form included demographic information and collected information on relevant background experiences and conditions. These included estimates of videogame and computer experience.

Procedure

Each participant was exposed to two episodes of driving simulator training with a brief break in between. Each scenario was approximately two and one-half minutes in length with the first being an orientation scenario to familiarize the participant with the simulator. The second scenario was more demanding and involved the participant following a "virtual" police car to an emergency call while using lights and siren. The training received was the first exposure of deputies to the driving simulator, and they were instructed to inform the instructor if they felt dizzy or ill so the training could be stopped. Instructors monitored all participants, and each of the instructors had received training from the manufacturer of the simulator regarding the existence and nature of simulator sickness.

At the conclusion of the two scenarios, each participant completed the training reactions questionnaire as well as the SSQ. All participants were monitored for any ill effects subsequent to the simulator exposure.

Participants experienced the driving simulator either before or after the firearms simulator. The order in which the two types of training was received was not controlled or documented.

Results

Overall Course Ratings

Table 1 shows overall course ratings. It can be seen that the course received favorable ratings. In addition, 90% of the participants (175 out of 195 responding to the item) answered "yes" to the question, "Would you recommend this course to a colleague?"

Table 1
Participants' Ratings of Course Variables

Rating Variable	n	Range	Mean (SD)
Value of course to student needs	212	1 - 5	4.2 (1.02)
Instructor knowledge of material	212	1 - 5	4.63 (.62)
Flow of training	190	1 - 5	4.62 (.68)
Linkages among training elements	190	1 - 5	4.56 (.72)

Severity of Symptoms

At least one symptom of simulator sickness was reported by 73% of the participants, and four reported vomiting. To get an understanding of the types of symptoms that were reported, Figure 1 shows the percentage of the participants experiencing each of the symptoms included on the SSQ. It can be seen that general discomfort, sweating, nausea, dizziness, and stomach awareness were the most frequently reported symptoms.

Figure 1
Percentage of Participants Reporting Symptoms at Any Severity
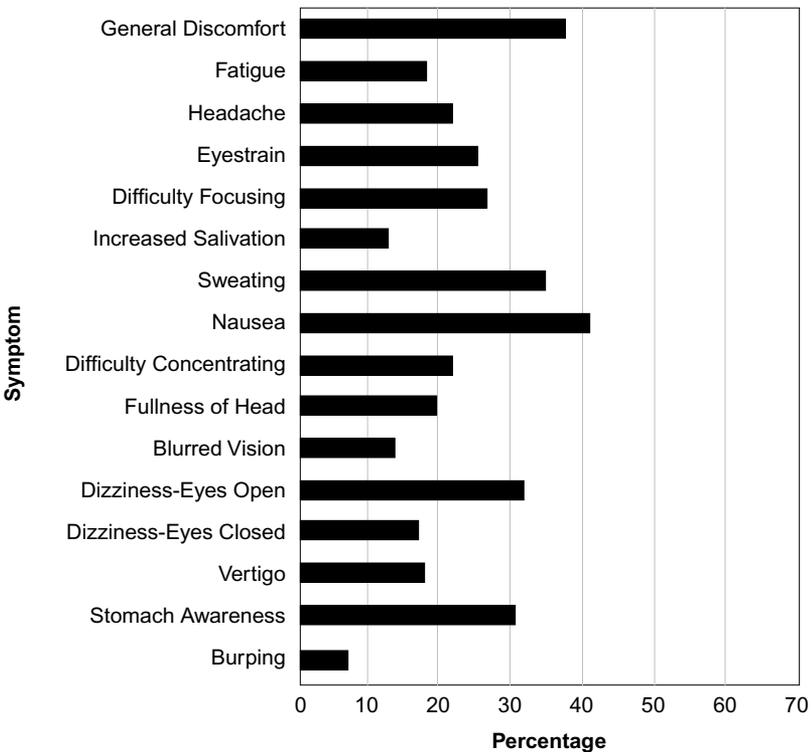
The profile of symptoms based on the SSQ subscale scores is shown in Figure 2. To provide some comparison, data from another driving simulator is shown—the U.S. Army's M1 Tank Driver Trainer (TDT) (Raisler & Lampton, n.d.) as well

as data from the Navy's 2F64C flight simulator simulating the SH-3 helicopter (Kennedy et al., 1993). The 2F64C is one of the more provocative flight simulators in the Navy inventory. Although statistical comparisons are not possible, a visual comparison indicates that total sickness severity is greater in the two driving simulators compared to the flight simulator. In addition, the profile of symptoms appears to be different. In the driving simulators, scores on the disorientation subscale are highest. In the flight simulator, the score on the oculomotor subscale is higher.

Figure 2
Mean Scores for SSQ Symptoms for the Data Reported Herein (Car) Compared to Other Samples from Raisler and Lampton (n.d.) for the M1 Tank Driver Trainer and from Kennedy et al. (1993) for the Navy 2F64C Helicopter Flight Simulator
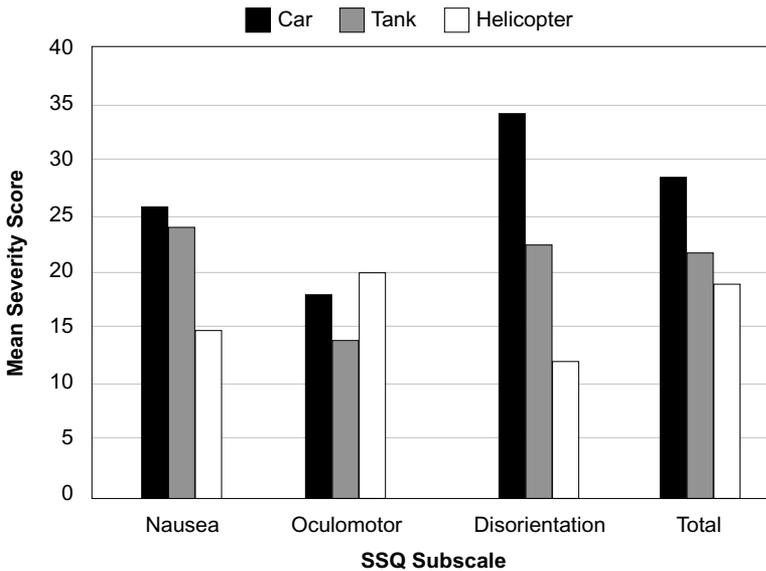
SSQ scores were also examined across time to assess whether there were trends towards increased sickness due to suggestibility, as has been documented in other research (O'Hanlon & McCauley, 1974). Means of SSQ Total Severity scores for the first six classes held (M=29.9 [SD=42.1], n= 128) were compared to the last six classes held (M=25.7 [SD=32.6], n=81), and a nonsignificant difference was obtained (t(207)=.77, p >.05). Thus, there is not evidence that over time severity is increasing, which might indicate that trainees believed they would become sick based on suggestion.

Correlations

Training Variables

Correlations of the SSQ subscale and total severity scores with selected survey variables are shown in Table 2. It can be seen that higher SSQ scores were associated with lower performance ratings when students rated their own performance in the simulator. In addition, higher SSQ scores were associated with poorer ratings of the overall course value, suggesting that those who experience symptoms have a more negative view of the training. Finally, higher sickness scores were associated with a greater tendency not to recommend the course. There was not a significant correlation between self reports of apparent motion and symptom severity.

Table 2
Correlations of Training and Predictor Variables to SSQ Scores

	SSQ Subscale			
Variable	**O**	**D**	**N**	**TS**
Performance rating (1 = poor, 10 = excellent)	-.57**	-.55**	-.54**	-.60**
Value of course (1 = poor, 5 = excellent)	-.35**	-.35**	-.39**	-.39**
Instructor knowledge (1 = poor, 5 = excellent)	-.25**	-.24**	-.21**	-.26**
Flow of training (1 = poor, 5 = excellent)	-.12	-.13	-.12	-.14
Linkages (1 = poor, 5 = excellent)	-.14	-.14	-.11	-.15*
Recommend course (1 = yes, 2 = no)	.42**	.41**	.42**	.45**
Age (years)	.17*	.21**	.22**	.21**
Gender (1 = male, 2 = female)	.12	.14*	.05	.11
Videogame experience (1 = low, 7 = high)	-.24**	-.26**	-.28**	-.28**
Computer experience (1 = low, 7 = high)	-.11	-.12	-.05	-.11
Self-motion (1 = no, 2 = somewhat, 3 = yes)	.07	.07	.04	.07

*$p<.05$, **$p<.01$

Note: O = Oculomotor Subscale, D = Disorientation Subscale, N = Nausea Subscale, TS = Total Severity Subscale

Predictor Variables

Rating of videogame usage was correlated with each of the SSQ subscale scores, showing that lower sickness scores are associated with greater videogame playing experience. Also, age achieved a minimal but statistically significant correlation with the SSQ scores, showing that older participants had higher SSQ disorientation subscale scores. Age was also correlated with videogame experience ($r=-.48$, $p<.01$), indicating that older participants were less likely to have videogame experience. Thus, videogame experience may have been responsible for the correlation between age and sickness scores.

Discussion

A goal of this effort was to document the incidence of simulator sickness in one law enforcement agency. Over 70% of the trainees experienced one or more symptoms of simulator sickness. Moreover, over 40% experienced Total Severity scores exceeding

20, the point at which Kennedy, Lane, Lilienthal, Berbaum, and Hettinger (1992) recommend retaining individuals on site until symptoms subside. Such restrictions could impair the readiness of participants to perform their operational duties.

Symptoms related to disorientation such as dizziness were more prevalent in this data than is typical for simulator sickness in which eyestrain has typically been most prevalent. In addition, incidence of sickness after training for five minutes was higher in this simulator than that typically reported for flight simulators, in which exposure times are generally at least 30 minutes. One reason for the higher incidence in our data could have been interactions with the firearms simulator. The order in which participants received the two types of training was not controlled nor documented, a limitation of our study; however, comparable levels of sickness have been reported in other driver simulator samples, although admittedly there is limited research (Lerman et al., 1992; Raisler & Lampton, n.d.). Watson (1998) noted that simulator sickness could have a greater impact in driving simulators than in any other type of simulation studies to date. There are a number of possible reasons that driving simulators may result in higher incidence than flight simulators. These include the high driving experience of most drivers, the provocative nature of driving scenarios, the lack of opportunity to obtain relief from symptoms within a session, and the lack of opportunities for adaptation. These reasons are briefly discussed below.

Experience

Pilots with many flight hours are more susceptible to simulator sickness, presumably because they are so well adapted to the sensory dynamics involved in actual flight that the disparate stimulation provided in simulators can be more disruptive to them. In driving simulators, it is also the case that highly experienced drivers are more susceptible (Watson, 1998). Moreover, practically all drivers have many driving hours and should be considered at risk for simulator sickness because of this reason.

Scenario Dynamics

When first exposing pilots to simulation, they are cautioned to avoid low-level flight because it is more provocative. Reasons for this include the number of visual scene edges streaming by, which can produce vection and the greater possibility of visual scene distortions that may cause eyestrain. Driving simulators provide a high degree of scene detail for realism and depth cues. These types of scenes are more provocative.

Within Session Relief

When pilots are feeling ill, they can "go on instruments" to minimize exposure to the visual scene and get some relief from symptoms. In contrast, drivers must always maintain their gaze out the window to maintain control of the vehicle, and thus, driving from "instruments only" is not possible.

Adaptation

Typically, pilots train in simulators on a regular schedule and thus have opportunities to adapt to the simulators. In contrast, exposure to simulators in

law enforcement appears to be less frequent and may occur only on an annual basis. If so, adaptation cannot be expected to occur, and incidences such as those found in our data may be typical.

In an effort to disseminate information on simulator sickness, in Table 3, we present guidelines adapted from the work of Kennedy et al. (1987), which can be used to alleviate or minimize symptoms. It is our intent to update these as more information is collected in the future.

Another goal of this study was to examine the impact of simulator sickness on training. The correlations with course rating variables suggested that the occurrence of sickness was associated with lower course ratings, negatively affecting opinions of the training. In addition, simulator sickness prevented some individuals from completing the training.

As discussed elsewhere (e.g., Kennedy et al., 1992), simulator sickness can impact performance in several ways; it may serve as a distraction or impair performance, and trainees may develop habits that interfere with the real-world performance of the task. In this study, impact on performance was not directly assessed; however, when trainees rated their own performance, there was a negative correlation—the sicker they felt, the worse they rated their performance. Other research has demonstrated that sickness can have a negative impact on performance. Lerman et al. (1992, 1993) found a decrement on a cognitive task for participants who were in a tank driver simulator for 30 minutes or more compared to participants who were in the simulator for less than 30 minutes.

There are also possible performance and safety implications of combining driver training with a firearms tactics trainer (FAT), a training approach used or being considered in some communities. A typical training scenario would entail pursuing a suspect in the driver trainer and then continuing the pursuit in the FAT. This approach can provide excellent, beginning-to-end training; however, there is also the potential that officers could be disoriented or unsteady when leaving the driving simulator and entering the FAT. Moreover, unsteadiness or disorientation could impair decisionmaking and psychomotor performance in the FAT. Research is needed that addresses the effects of combining these types of simulations for training.

In conclusion, simulators can serve as valuable training tools to law enforcement agencies, and in spite of simulator sickness, the majority of the trainees in our sample thought the training they received was valuable. Increasingly, law enforcement communities are incorporating simulators to support driver training or are considering their use. The situation is similar to the state of affairs in the aviation community years ago. Aviators were skeptical about simulators as effective training tools; however, simulation has been accepted in that domain as a cost-effective training tool. Similar doubts exist in the law enforcement community and tradeoffs are being considered. This article is aimed at providing information on one aspect of the problem—incidence of side effects from training in simulators—and at disseminating guidelines for reduction of the problem, such as those provided in Table 3.

Table 3
Guidelines for Minimizing Simulator Sickness

Guideline	Discussion
Start with brief exposures and gentle maneuvers separated by one-day intervals to facilitate adaptation.	Adaptation may be the best and most practical "cure" for simulator sickness. Scenarios during initial exposures should contain only gentle maneuvers. Our data indicate that initial exposures should be no longer than five minutes and possibly less.
Set the temperature so that it is comfortable or cool throughout the training session.	Feeling excessively warm can exacerbate simulator sickness.
Screen trainees to identify (a) those individuals not in their usual state of fitness so that they may be eliminated from training for that day or (b) those that may be more susceptible so that they may be cautioned and observed more closely.	Simulator sickness may summate with other conditions such as ear infections, colds, and hangovers. Thus, individuals training in simulators should be in their usual state of fitness. Sickness may also be greater during the first exposure to the simulator and in those with little videogame experience.
Learn to recognize symptoms.	Instructors and students should learn the symptoms associated with simulator sickness to increase awareness and so that developing symptoms can be recognized early.
Have students leave the simulator if they experience symptoms. They should not return until all symptoms have subsided.	Simulator sickness increases within a session.
Avoid freezing the simulator when turning.	Some instructional features, such as the freeze function in which the simulator is stopped, can cause disorientation. The freeze function should be used only when the vehicle is stopped or traveling straight at a constant speed.
Instruct students to keep head position on the proper axis (within the design eye) for viewing visual displays.	Off-axis viewing is associated with eyestrain-related symptoms.
Instruct susceptible students to minimize head movements.	Minimizing head movements may reduce symptoms in susceptible students when students are new to the simulator or when dynamic simulator motions are being used.
Monitor severity of sickness.	There are a variety of reasons to monitor incidence of sickness, and data collection and analysis can largely be automated. (a) Individuals with severe symptomatology can be identified. (b) Upward trends may indicate a problem with the simulator, and the symptom mix may provide a clue as to its cause and be used for troubleshooting. (c) The impact of new technologies introduced to the simulator can also be monitored, and the impact of exposure duration and adaptation can also be assessed.

(adapted from Kennedy et al., 1987)

Acknowledgements

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Delivering Instruction to Law Enforcement Personnel Through Online Strategies

Art Amann, Mercyhurst College Civic Institute, Erie, Pennsylvania

Introduction and Overview

The quality of inservice police training in the United States has been erratic, at best. From the early days of "modern" policing, which began in Boston, Massachusetts, in the 1800s, police officers frequently possessed the traits of devotion to duty, a stern but compassionate personality, and little else. According to Craig Uchida (as cited in Alpert & Dunham, 1993), . . .

> New officers were sent out on patrol with no training and few rules beyond their rulebook. Proper arrest procedures, rules of law, and so on were unknown to the officers. Left to themselves, they developed their own strategies for coping with life in the streets. (p. 23)

In the modern era of criminal activity, it is clear that law enforcement officers need to be thoroughly trained and well-equipped. The question of how to best deliver the training and education needed is one that continually confronts police administrators. Given that law enforcement agencies provide protection around the clock, it is difficult to remove an officer from his or her shift for training without interrupting services. Furthermore, overtime expenses are driven up when employees are scheduled to attend classes when they are off-duty.

Online Solutions

One possible solution to this issue is the use of online learning. In this context, online learning would include curriculum materials that could be provided via the Internet. Of course, there are other forms of nontraditional learning, such as real-time video-conferencing (Keegan as cited in Morrison, Ross, & Keys, 2001) or even bringing instructors to an organization instead of students traveling to an educational site.

One method of delivering education to police officers strapped to a 24/7 schedule is online asynchronous learning (Mackenzie & Staley, 2000). According to Mackenzie and Staley, asynchronous methods deliver learning any time and anywhere. The tools of this strategy include e-mailing teacher instruction and student responses, posting questions and responses on user lists, and downloading videos and PowerPoint presentations from computers. Morrison, Ross, and Keys (2001) add that a real strength to online learning is that students can attend a lecture without being present and that large audiences can be served in this manner.

The use of the Internet as an instructional delivery method is a growing trend in education. Roughly two-thirds of the accredited four-year colleges and graduate schools in the United States complement their campus class offerings with learning via the Internet (Clarke as cited in Perrin & Mayhew, 2000). Perrin and Mayhew also

state that the major advantage of Internet courses is that students can access the course materials at any time and location that is convenient for them. This type of delivery system would permit police administrators and trainers to provide instruction to their officers at times when it would not interfere with their duties or result in overtime expenses.

Concerns About Online Learning

Despite the obvious advantages to online learning, there are other issues to be considered. According to McKeachie (1999), "There is no point in using communications and information technology unless it clearly improves the quality of learning in some way" (p. 183). This notion is echoed by most online educational authors such as Mackenzie and Staley (2000) who add that technology should not be used to simply automate the existing processes, but rather should add value to the learning experience.

From the administrator's viewpoint, another consideration is the cost associated with starting an online program. Rumble (2001) advises that the expense of starting an online educational system is similar to a capitol expense budget item. That is, there are considerable initial costs that gradually diminish over time. He also highlights a study in Arizona where there was a wide variation in the associated costs of online learning, from a low of $6,000 to a high of $1,000,000 for a three-unit Internet course. This insight is shared by Hallam, Rivera, and McAlister (2001) who add that a web-based curriculum requires a significant commitment of institutional resources. Morrison, Ross, and Keys (2001) go even farther by saying that the hardware requirements for some distance education systems may prove too expensive for some organizations.

Another consideration is the "consumer" (i.e., the police officer). Perrin and Mayhew (2000) state that Internet learning can be frightening to those unaccustomed to technology. Hallam, Rivera, and McAlister (2001) found that not all potential students possess a high degree of technical skill. Conversely, less verbal students, or, those unsure of themselves in a classroom setting, tend to participate more online due to the "democratic" method of communication and a chance to reflect upon one's answer before responding to a question (McKeachie, 1999; Mackenzie & Staley, 2000). Furthermore, student motivation may prove to be a problem. After three years of experience at the University of Akron, student motivation to complete their online studies has been a significant problem (Hallam, Rivera, & McAlister , 2001). A possible remedy for this problem would be to assign a training administrator to oversee the progress being made by each officer and thus, act as a catalyst and motivator.

A final major consideration is the quality of the instructors selected, their time availability, and commensurate compensation. Perrin and Mayhew (2000) and Rumble (2001) all agree that there is considerably more time devoted in preparing an online course than a traditional one. Additionally, it requires more patience and understanding between the instructor and the student, not to mention the obvious technical expertise required. Additionally, according to Hallam, Rivera, and McAlister (2000), " A commitment must be made to fund the technical and human resources to develop and deliver the course content . . . the traditional model of compensating instructors for a set class load may no longer be appropriate" (p. 4).

Summary Comments

Obviously, there are many critical issues to consider when deciding whether to implement an online learning curriculum. For police departments already strapped with budgetary constraints, the cost of delivery weighs heavily. Other key factors are the students' readiness to receive education via technological means plus their own intrinsic motivation to learn.

Overall, there appears to be more driving forces than restraining factors to implement online learning. One of the most significant of these is the potential for conversion of knowledge into real-world application. According to John Williams (2000), discussing the use of online learning in the field of technology development, "There is no other curriculum area in which students have as significant an opportunity to think and reflect and develop ideas, and then to test their ideas in a practical context" (p. 2). Mackenzie and Staley (2000) support this premise by adding that technology should be used to add value to the learning process, and not simply automate existing processes. These authors could have just as easily been discussing the business of modern policing when making these statements.

In this author's opinion, the most important consideration in online learning is that education can reach police officers at any time and any place that is acceptable to them and their schedules. It allows an officer to be fully engaged in the practice of law enforcement, except for preplanned and concise periods of time when instruction is delivered. This training may in fact one day save their lives or the lives of those they are sworn to protect. Given the current state of our nation, there has never been a time when the delivery methods used to instruct and educate our police have been more scrutinized or necessary. Online learning may prove to be one significant tool that can arm our police officers with the knowledge required to fight crime in the 21st century.

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Distance Education at the Rio Hondo Regional Training Center: The Journey

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The Journey

Characteristics of the Journey

Distance education can be defined as a planned learning experience in which instructional delivery is not constrained to the student being physically present in the same location and classroom as the instructor. Initially, distance education meant correspondence study, the exchange of completed lesson materials between the instructor and student using the postal service. Today, the definition is more complex and includes distance learning, web-based training, Internet training, and online education. The technology includes the use of teleconferencing, audio, video, computers, and the Internet.

The process of distance education involves extending learning or delivering instructional resource-sharing opportunities to locations away from a classroom, building, or site to another classroom, building, or site by using video, audio, computer, multimedia communications often requires some combination of these with other traditional delivery methods. Many of these formats use the Internet to deliver educational materials (Distance Education Clearinghouse, 2002).

With the advances in computer and communication technology, distance education is now being practiced in new ways. Students are using computers to access and acquire vast amounts of information. It has been noted that for the first time, all of man's knowledge is available to everyone. This technology advance has the potential impact of the invention of the printing press.

Participation in adult education has grown steadily over the past three decades. The participants have engaged in some form of instruction or educational activity to acquire the knowledge, information, and skills necessary to succeed in the workforce, learn basic skills, earn credentials, or otherwise enrich their lives. This return of adults to educational settings has been necessitated by changes in technology, workforce size, and professional and personal priorities.

Where the Journey Began

Distance education has evolved through a number of stages or generations (The Evolution of Distance Learning, 2002).

First Generation 1880s – 1970s

Coursework is delivered through the postal service, then public radio in 1920. The characteristics were as follows: one-way communication; limited interaction between student and teacher; isolated but very motivated learner; structured, stand-alone, teacher-centered materials.

Second Generation 1970s – 1980s

Course materials delivery is through radio broadcast, fax, audiotapes, and later, the use of videotapes. The characteristics of the experience were as follows: primarily one-way communication or slow two-way; students were still somewhat isolated and had to be highly motivated; materials were prepackaged, highly structured, and still teacher-centered.

Third Generation 1980s – 1995

Delivery of the educational experience begins to involve computer application via the Internet/World Wide Web. This change marked the beginning use of electronic communication such as e-mail, chat, bulletin boards, computer networks, videoconferencing, and audio conferencing. Third Generation characteristics are as follows: two-way interaction both synchronously and asynchronously; students viewed as active learners, participants, and contributors (advent of collaborative learning and constructivism).

Fourth Generation 1995 – to the Present

Course work can now be delivered through high-bandwidth transmission and wireless capabilities for individualized, customized, and live video interactive learning experiences. This includes desktop videoconferencing, the Internet, and the use of intelligent systems. The characteristics are as follows: highly interactive—even more so than regular classrooms, learning communities; materials are highly structured but interactive; technologies provide for ad-hoc support of learners; the student is active learner, participant, contributor, and even creator.

Characteristics of the Distance Learner/Traveler

Students taking online courses should be thoroughly comfortable manipulating the Internet and not become discouraged by inevitable computer-centered technical problems. Computer skills are essential for success in a computer-based distance education program. Fortunately, the development of computer systems and software is such that the adult learner needs minimal effort to learn the basic procedures to manipulate the computer and the distance learning environment. Beyond learning about computers in general, a challenge for adult learners is navigating the Internet. Many of the nonverbal communication mechanisms that instructors use in a classroom in determining whether students are having problems (confusion, frustration, boredom, absence, etc.) are not possible in the online educational program.

After computer and Internet familiarity is established, adult learners should consider their learning style to determine if they can benefit from participating

in a distance education format. In a traditional classroom environment, students are accountable to the professor in person and face the embarrassment in front of their peers if their assignments are not completed on time. In a virtual classroom, only the professor knows if the work is not completed on time, which leads students to believe they can procrastinate. Successful distance learners must also be self-disciplined and able to keep on schedule. Academic skills of critical thinking, decisionmaking, persistence, efficiency of time management, and clear writing are also paramount for distance learners.

Characteristics of the Journey

Some of the same andragogical issues of emphasis on problem-solving, knowledge sharing, and application need to be considered in online coursework. Adults want to focus more on the process and less on the content being taught. A lack of interaction between student and teacher, active participation in course work, and motivation can also hamper today's models of distance learning. Today, more issues exist that both help and create their own set of challenges (Designing distance learning, 2002).

The Technology

The infrastructure that supports an online course must be in place. The student has to have appropriate technology for reception, communication, and production. Technical support must be available to both the instructor and the student.

The Learner/Traveler

Each student must have discipline and motivation to complete a distance education program. The loss of face-to-face peer and instructor involvement can affect motivation for students. Orientation/training, lab time, and regular feedback can be positive influences.

Institutional Support

Educational institutions offer their students opportunities for research on campus libraries and special collections. Online students need to have equal access to these resources in an online format. These should include online counseling, bookstore, library, transfer center, career center, financial aid, student handbook, and even clubs and organizations.

The Instructor/Guide

Effective online teachers have the same skills set as classroom instructors. Additional skills can include first-hand experience as an online learner and comfort with both synchronous and asynchronous modes of interaction. Online teachers should also provide timely and meaningful feedback, encourage learners to form teams or learning communities, and encourage a spirit of adventure.

Transferring a course from the classroom to the Web or distance learning without restructuring both the course and the expectations and assignments is ensuring that it will have problems. The traditional model of professor as giver of knowledge and student as recipient does not work well with distance education or online

learning. The more effective model is the instructor as facilitator or tutor, allowing the student control of his or her own learning.

Rio Hondo College, Regional Training Center's Journey

The Public Safety Department is one division of the college and includes a police and fire academy, as well as academic programs leading to the associate of arts/science degrees in administration of justice, fire technology, and correctional science. The development of a "Virtual Campus" began in 1997 with a growing awareness that a number of changes were rapidly approaching. These changes would dramatically affect the way we would deliver training and education to our students or customers in several areas.

Reduced Funding

The California community college system, with its 107 colleges and 1.4 million students, accounts for 10% of all U.S. college students and is the largest system of higher education in the world (Huggett, 1994). Funding for the Community College system comes from a formula based on Full Time Equivalent Students' (FTES) contact hours—approximately $6.00/hour for credit courses. In prior years, there were additional funds available for growth and some expansion. As the state developed fiscal problems after the Proposition 13 tax initiative, these funds became less available, and colleges began to look at more efficient uses for their budget. Classes under 20 students were canceled, since 20-25 is the "break even" point for funds. A "cap" was established for each college in 1982 based on current funding levels. Student contact hours generated above that "cap" were either not funded or funded at a reduced percentage.

Since the campus physical plant is a major budget item, options for maximizing the use of existing classrooms and finding other existing facilities for classrooms became a priority. Integrating the needs of the learner with facility availability and the need to maximize have created innovations that may not have occurred without the funding crunch.

It is clear that there is a need to develop more innovative ways to provide educational opportunities, alternate scheduling patterns and delivery systems, based on the needs of students. As both Alvin Toffler and former CEO of Apple Corporation, John Scully, have predicted, the real structure of colleges and universities of the 21st century will not be bricks and mortar . . . they will be information systems (1981).

Increased Need for Inservice Training

The strategic mission of the Public Safety Department involves serving the needs of the community and students through the law enforcement, corrections, security, and fire services. In each service area, there are requirements for entry-level and continuing professional training. With any incident involving these service organizations, it seems the solution is legislation, usually involving a training mandate.

In 1970, the California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training was established by legislation and given the authority to establish selection and training requirements for law enforcement agencies that participate in the program. The Commission created the police basic course that was mandated at 200 hours (California Penal Code, 1970). The list of mandates has grown to the point that the police academy now averages over 900 hours of instruction of which 664 hours and 18 separate subject areas are required by legislation.

Historically, these public safety organizations have looked to the Community College system to meet their training needs for several reasons:

- *Response to Training Needs* – Existing classes can be easily modified, or new ones can be created.

- *Cost Effectiveness* – A typical one-day class may cost only $2-3 per student compared to $100-300 for a private presenter.

- *Convenience* – Many counties have several community colleges minimizing travel for the students. This can be a significant cost savings for larger departments.

- *Changing Student Demographics* – Many students enter the college disenfranchised from more traditional educational opportunities. These students include adults returning to college because of career changes (some forced by layoffs), looking for more meaningful work, or just for the love of learning. A recent study at Rio Hondo College in Whittier, California, reported that almost 50% of the students indicated that they had not taken a needed class or had to drop a class because of child-care or work conflicts with the class schedule.

The concept of the adult learner is not new. Some have described the adult learner as one who chooses to be in a given learning situation (Draves, 1984). Reportedly the term was used in Germany in the early 1800s (Cross, 1981); however, it was some 100 years later that these adult expectancies led to an inquiry by Malcolm Knowles (1973) and others. These studies produced the term *andragogy* (adult learning theory) to describe the adult learner as compared to *pedagogy* (child learning theory), which described the child. The differences were summed up as problem-centered rather than content-centered; active participation in learning rather than passive; integration of past experiences with new data and new problems; collaborative as opposed to authority-oriented; mutual planning between the learner and the instructor; and mutual evaluation that leads to reappraisal of needs and interests, redesign, and new learning activities (Knowles, 1978).

Increased Computer Technology

As an information distribution system, the Internet has been available since its inception in the 1970s as an outgrowth of a project by the U.S. Department of Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA). The system was designed to be a nonreliable network service for computer communications over a wide area involving research and educational efforts (Lynch, 1993); however, the use of the system was limited from a "user" perspective until the development of the graphics oriented World Wide Web.

Distance Learning as a New Application

Learning at a distance (or away from the walled, "second wave" factory of education) is not anything new. There have been study-at-home programs since Abraham Lincoln studied law in a cabin by candlelight, or so legend reports. What makes current applications in distance learning exciting is the ability to combine several components. These include new roles for the learner and teacher or facilitator, different paradigms of learning, and new technology.

Technology can be used to increase accessibility for the learner, give more control of the process to both the learner and teacher, and encourage heightened performance in activity that uses both synchronous and asynchronous interaction, allowing for more thought, access to more resources by using the Internet and Web, and the discovery of new knowledge through a process of self-direction in the study process.

Each of these components, with the exception of technology, has existed for a long time. As Frazer (2002) stated, . . .

> In the middle ages and colonial North America, the classroom technology of choice was the scholar's board, a paddle-shaped piece of wood upon which a student would inscribe a lesson being dictated. Like a modern computer, the scholar's board was interactive and would display text and images . . . it could be transported from place to place. But it was slow—infinitely slow by modern standards (pp. 18-20).

Technology has added the major dimension of speed. With the advent of computers and a delivery system, the Web, the "virtual" classroom became a reality and a usable resource.

Change, Resistance, and Successes Involved in the Development

As the discussion of the possibilities began at Rio Hondo Community College, the resistance to change occurred immediately. Not everyone felt comfortable with changing the "tried and true" methods. The milestones were many and laborious to overcome, as with any journey worthy of undertaking.

Administration

Several key administrators were supportive from different perspectives. Deans were involved in distance learning programs for advanced degrees and were able to enlighten their peers. The new college president was oriented toward technology and reaching out to students. The dean of the public safety department, Frank Patino, had completed his advanced degree in a nontraditional program and had the vision for the program. The then Governor of California, Pete Wilson, supported the use of distance learning by directing the state university and college systems to develop distance learning projects and evaluate their outcomes by 2001. This evaluation date has been moved to 2004.

Faculty, Academic Senate, and Curriculum Committee

As the curriculum was presented to the committees, the only concern expressed was that the distance learners receive the same instructional support and quality as the on-campus learners. A number of reports were obtained to address the issue of quality. At every staff meeting, the quality issue was raised. An article in *Syllabus* (January/February 1997) led us to a report that documented over 248 studies from 1928-1996, which found no significant difference between traditional and distance learning (Russell, 1997). The discovery of Thomas Russell's publication, *The No Significant Difference Phenomenon* (1997), provided the data we needed to convince staff that there was evidence in favor of the quality of distance education.

Successful Implementation

Several studies of successful online programs have found a number of items in common, which include the following: online syllabus; allows for rapid changes and can include hypertext links to resources, personal home pages; creating a sense of community for the students, interactivity; connections with other learners and faculty with a variety of communications methods including e-mail, forums, and online chat rooms (Polyson, Saltzberg, & Godwin-Jones, 1996).

Colleagues

Members of the department had been involved in both on- and off-campus classes on the Internet and Web. Several members had personal computers and were currently online with AOL and other Internet services. Three new faculty members had recently been appointed to fill positions vacated by retired members. They all expressed interest in teaching online, and two were teaching online for other institutions. One faculty member was given the project as a full-time assignment with the assistance of another member part-time.

Students

Several needs assessments were conducted with the training officer associations that represented peace officers in the geographic area of Rio Hondo Community College (North East Training Officers Association and South East Police Training Association), the Training Association that represented the State Peace Officers (California Association of Police Training Officers), and a variety of specialized associations. The California Commission on Peace Officers Standards and Training (POST) supported presentations at the annual training needs assessment and invited us to present the online program to their staff. The support was overwhelming from the represented agencies. The presentations were critical since the department would seek certification by POST to approve the online course as meeting inservice training requirements. POST agreed to certify each course as meeting eight hours of training of the 24-hour biannual mandate.

Technology

As the department began this effort, technology changed in ways to support the project. The years have seen the development of faster Web browsers, Internet

connections, and computers. Connections to the Internet have become faster with ISDN, cable, and satellite dishes.

Time

As with any new venture, the time needed to accomplish the task of creating distance learning was underestimated. Meeting with the curriculum committee was one of the major tasks necessary to offer the classes for credit and obtain funding from the state. The initial meetings started in early 1996 with the first "no problem" commitment; however, approval did not occur until October 1997. Meeting with POST in December 1996 resulted in a similar "no problem" commitment to certify the courses but was not official until June 1997. Initial Web page development began in June 1996 but was not complete enough to begin advertisement until February 1997.

Strategic Mission

The main public safety page represents the strategic mission of the department: Administration of Justice, Police, Fire, Corrections, Hazardous Materials, Private Security, and the link to our online courses LEO (Learning Experiences Online, 2002). The LEO page presents the online courses that are currently available and those suitable for future development. Each online course page is designed to look and feel the same to facilitate the "learning curve" for use by learners: course title, description, learning goals, activities, and assignments. Each page has its own unique links to resources and shared links to common resources.

Prognosis for the Future

The cost effectiveness of the distance learning program design and the constant increasing levels of enrollment will continue to produce a very successful future. As the state mandated demands for increasing levels of continuing education for safety personnel, the distance learning environment continued to be the only solution. Here at Rio Hondo Community College, the timing of the increased demand for training of safety personnel, the advent of the dynamics of the Internet and e-mail, the cost effectiveness of distance learning, and the validation of the distance learning educational process produced a "win-win" environment for all involved.

As Rio Hondo Community College enters the new millennium, the online program is now under way with 12 certified courses using videotapes and 25 courses using only Internet/Web resources. These courses for professional update credit also receive 3 units. Rio Hondo is the only college certified to offer online courses.

All of the core courses for the degree in Administration of Justice and the Corrections degree are available online as well as the general education requirements, with the exception of physical education. In addition to POST, the State Commission for Standards in Training for Corrections (STC) has recognized the Rio Hondo Community courses. The State of California Fire Marshal has recognized the Fire Technology program, professional updates, and the associate of science and arts degree programs.

The first summer session of courses showed enrollments of 38 students. Five years later, we have over 1200 students enrolled in the public safety courses and

some 1500 in the remainder of the college courses. Student services have been expanded to provide the same support that campus students receive—library, counseling, etc.—all online.

Making the Journey Meaningful

One area of online instruction deserving attention is the meaningful utilization of the numerous websites available. One author reported on the effort to integrate a site evaluation instrument into course structure in order to assist students in their assessment of websites (Fabianic, 2002). Each of the Rio Hondo classes is rich with links to online resources such as the following: Criminal Justice Flowchart (Greek, 2002), Schmallenger's Cybary (Schmallenger, 2002), U.S. Supreme Court opinions (2002), National Crime Victimization Survey (2002), and the Law Enforcement Bulletin (2002).

To provide opportunities for feedback from students and to make testing as convenient as possible, a site evaluation instrument was integrated into the course structure, SurveyGold software (2002). SurveyGold is a complete software system for building and then administering surveys and analyzing their results. It allows the user to quickly create and conduct surveys over the Web, over the phone, or with a printed questionnaire form. It provides point-and-click features that make collecting and reviewing results quick and easy. Online exams can be developed using SurveyGold, which assigns point values to each question and automatically scores the responses provided by each respondent.

The Value of the Journey

The first question most people ask about online learning is, "Is it as good as the approach I'm currently using?" Educators, as well as learners, approach this new paradigm with varying degrees of enthusiasm and concern: How can courses online improve your teaching and offer learning opportunities for students? One source is the "No Significant Difference" website that provides selected entries from the book *The No Significant Difference Phenomenon*. The report lists 355 research reports, summaries, and papers—a comprehensive research bibliography on technology for distance education. The title comes from the fact that these studies showed no significant difference between distance learning classes and the onsite courses (Russell, 2002). More recently, the researcher has added a second site entitled "The Significant Difference Phenomenon" where he has collected 35 studies in which the distance-learning course produced better results than the more traditional.

A major benefit of online programs is asynchronous online learning, which allows students to participate when issues of distance and scheduling make on-ground learning unrealistic. Physically challenged students have more flexibility to fully participate in class since the course is delivered to their homes through their computers. Online learning also allows for access 24 hours a day, seven days a week so that busy students can fully participate at the time that is most convenient to them. The learner is able to carefully reflect on each comment from others before responding or moving on to the next item. Students can take control of their own learning experience and tailor the class discussions to meet their own specific needs. Learners retain a considerable level of anonymity so that discriminating factors such as age, dress, physical appearance, disabilities, race, and gender are largely absent.

The instructor can compile a resource section online with links to scholarly articles, institutions, and other materials relevant to the course topic for students to access for research, extension, or in-depth analysis of course content material.

The nature of the semi-autonomous and self-directed world of the virtual classroom makes for a dynamic learning experience through innovation and creativity.

Disadvantages can include accessibility because of economic or logistics reasons, which will exclude otherwise eligible students. It may be an inappropriate learning environment for more dependent learners lacking organizational skills, motivation, and time management skills. Successful classroom instruction does not always translate to successful online instruction since it requires different skill sets.

An institution that is not aware of the importance of proper facilitator training, essential facilitator characteristics, and limitations of class size would not understand the impact that these elements can have on the success of an online program.

Curriculum and teaching methodology that are successful in traditional instruction will not always translate to a successful online program in which learning and instructional paradigms are quite different.

The Journey Was Worthwhile

As we enter the new millennium, the online program is now underway with 12 courses using videotapes and 25 courses using only Internet/Web resources by the State Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) and the State Commission for Standards in Training for Corrections (STC). These courses for professional update credit also receive three units.

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The first summer session showed enrollments of 38 students. Seven years later, we have over 1200 students enrolled in the public safety courses and some 1500 in the remainder of the college. Student services have been expanded to provide the same support that campus students receive—library, counseling, etc.—all online.

A recent major effort has been meeting the requirements of the Workforce Investment Act of 1998, Public Law 105-220. Title IV of the Act is the Rehabilitation Act Amendments of 1998. Subsection 408(b) amended section 508 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (29 U.S.C. 794d). Subsection 508(a)(1) requires that when federal departments and agencies develop, procure, maintain, or use electronic and information technology (EIT), employers and those doing business with the federal government must ensure that the EIT allows federal employees with disabilities to have access to and use of information and data that is comparable to the access to and use of information and data by other federal employees.

Section 508 also requires that individuals with disabilities, who are members of the public seeking information or services from a federal department or agency, have access to and use of information and data that is comparable to that provided

to the public without disabilities. The California Chancellor's office has required that online courses meet this requirement.

The web pages have been successfully converted to meet the requirements and are in the process of validating and evaluating these changes with the college's disabled students staff.

This journey is not one of simply re-inventing the classroom but creating a new learning environment. It requires visionaries—from educators, to administrators, to designers, and, most importantly, learners or travelers—who are creative and can appreciate the combination of media and instructional strategies as an adventure.

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Nationwide Consistency in Entry-Level Law Enforcement Training

Tom Dempsey, Director, Police Training Institute

This article summarizes research conducted in support of the textbook *Law Enforcement for the Twenty-First Century; An Entry-Level Guide*, by Tom Dempsey and David Coffey (Gould Publishing, 2001). The authors hypothesized that a level of consistency of subject matter and relative frequency of presentation existed among basic law enforcement academy classes nationwide. Both Mr. Coffey and I had directed a reserve (auxiliary) officer academy and taught at academies in Virginia and California, and I had served on the staff of the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department Academy. At the time we conducted the research and wrote the book, I was the director of criminal justice programs at Christopher Newport University, Newport News, Virginia.

Through personal contact, personal knowledge, and mailings, we were able to identify common content areas and several general typologies and locales at which entry-level training occurred. The American Society of Law Enforcement Trainers (ASLET) and the International Association of Directors of Law Enforcement Standards and Training (IADLEST) both proved to be valuable resources in initiating our contacts. We also reviewed available literature addressing entry-level training and the relationship of higher education and law enforcement generally. After reviewing state training guidelines for every state in which we could identify state-mandated training, we conducted a detailed examination of the curricula of 17 states' requirements and one or more training academies in each of those states. We felt the selected states and academies fairly reflected regions and demographics throughout the United States. Among those states we examined were states from the northeastern, mid-Atlantic, southeastern, southern, southwestern, mid-western, north central, western, and Pacific regions of the country. We obtained detailed descriptions of state requirements, syllabi, and lesson plans from state oversight agencies and from individual academies.

We recognized that these syllabi and course plans didn't always reflect how the training was conducted, and there was no effort to assess the quality of the instruction offered. Where the information was provided directly by academy directors, we felt more confident that they actually represented what was being trained and the actual amount of time invested in topics.

Where Entry-Level Training Occurs

The most common academy structure was multi-jurisdictional, serving many different agencies. Generally, it appeared that for departments of less than 500 officers, this is the only available option. These academies are often conducted by academic institutions, most typically community colleges. Some allow "self-sponsored," preservice students as well as entry-level officers already employed by the agencies they support. Interestingly, many of these academies located on college campuses also provided specialized, inservice courses. Typically, these academies also offered their programs for academic credit and sometimes gave the students the *option* of enrolling for academic credit. Because there is normally a tuition cost associated with "for credit courses," those officers who already had

significant educational achievement might opt out of the credit offering. Another factor in determining whether the course was taken for credit was the policy of the agency in reimbursing the tuition or paying an educational premium.

Throughout the United States, there are various "stand alone," multi-jurisdictional academies, not directly associated with academic institutions. The regional academy system in Virginia is illustrative. These academies are established by the state oversight agency, the Virginia Department of Criminal Justice Services, to serve regions of the state and are governed by a board of directors comprised of chief executives of the agencies served. These academies exist for the sole purpose of providing entry-level and specialized training for law enforcement, corrections, and other criminal justice occupations. Member agencies fund these academies, normally with some level of support from the state oversight agencies. Nonmember agencies may send employees for either entry-level or specialized training but are frequently assessed a higher tuition. Around the nation, many of these multi-jurisdictional academies accept self-sponsored students who meet entry-level requirements, but these students comprise only a small percentage of all entry-level students.

The Police Training Institute at the University of Illinois in Urbana-Champaign, stood out as rather unique. It is specifically established by statute and is an academic unit of a prestigious graduate institution. The program, however, is not offered for academic credit, and very few self-sponsored students (interns of the State Training Board) have been enrolled in the past.

While multi-jurisdictional academies not specifically operated by a single, large department are emerging as the most common, many large agencies operate academies and accept students from other agencies. The academies of the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department, Chicago Police Department (Chicago PD and Cook County also), and those of many state police agencies are examples of this model. The resources required to support a full-time academy are substantial and make operation of these "independent' academies unrealistic for the vast majority of the 17,000 law enforcement agencies in the United States.

Within the context of training, it is important to note that the United States has the most decentralized criminal justice structure in the world and has been identified by academic researchers as "fragmented and uncoordinated" (Reichel, 2002, p. 151; Bayley, 1992) That characterization is not without merit and is consistent with our historical development. We found in our research, however, that training is less "uncoordinated" than it might appear.

An interesting variation of this single-agency-operated, multi-jurisdictional concept is found in very limited partnerships among medium sized agencies to jointly offer full academy classes once or twice a year. Such a partnership exists between the cities of Suffolk (approximately 175 officers) and Chesapeake, Virginia (approximately 400 officers).

Finally, several single agency academies that exclusively serve the very large departments around the country continue to exist. The training provided by the Chicago Police Department and the Los Angeles Police Department are illustrative of this model. Even these academies on occasion may train entry-level officers from other departments and often provide specialized training for other agencies.

We found that all of the training facilities we examined could be classified generally into one of these models, though variations did exist. While this fragmented structure might indicate considerable variation in content as well, such was not the case. The extent of the consistency is addressed later in this article. The reason for the consistency is found in two factors. First, the nature of law enforcement itself is similar throughout the country. While there are regional differences in emphasis, centered primarily around urban/rural identification, all law enforcement operations are influenced and constrained by the Constitution and appellate court decisions. The second reason is the existence of POST commissions or similar state agencies responsible for training oversight. While the scope of oversight agencies' responsibilities varies, ensuring some level of consistency in statewide training is common.

In sum, with regard to how entry-level training was structured, we found that academies were either independent-agency, multi-jurisdictional, or self-sponsored. With regard to where training takes place, we found academies either on-site at a large department; at separate, multi-jurisdictional sites; or at academic institutions.

While we were not collecting data to determine whether training was typically residential or commuter, we coincidentally learned that most academy training was conducted for students who commuted each day.

Duration of Training

Here, too, there was considerable and predictable variation. Many of us who entered the field 25 or more years ago can recall that entry-level training consisted of the chief giving an officer a badge and gun and telling him (at that time females were even less likely to be employed in the field than today) to try to stay out of trouble. I personally did not experience that, having attended an 18-week commuter academy. Today, the vast majority of officers receive a state-mandated period of entry-level training before assuming duties as law enforcement officers. While many states, like Virginia and Illinois, have provisions allowing officers to work for some period of time (typically one year) before receiving mandated training, most attend the academy first. Where officers do work "the field" prior to attending an academy, it is under close supervision, normally with a small and rural department, and reflects the resources of the agency. The reasons chiefs and sheriffs may shy away from this practice, even where legal, likely include their awareness of the importance of training and concern for quality of service and potential liability.

Minimum length of academy training is occasionally set by state oversight. We found no examples of a maximum length. The shortest length of academy training we included in our review of content was 240 hours; the most lengthy was 1040. The average period of required attendance was 510 hours. The amount of time students attended the academies did not correlate strongly with content. The "core content" of training was similar regardless of duration of academy training. While not a focus of our research, it seems reasonable to speculate that one of the major factors guiding duration of training is the relative size of the agencies being served. Smaller departments may "feel the pinch" of extended training more strongly than large ones.

Curriculum Content

The primary thrust of my review of curricula was to determine the most frequently addressed topics of entry-level academy training and the relative amount of time

devoted to those topics. I anticipated a significant degree of consistency but found far more than I expected. Many of the state mandates for training content did have occasional unique components. Florida, for example, required a block of instruction in antiquities law. Likewise, many academies exercised some discretion in curriculum content and incorporated training not specifically required. Physical training often fell into this grouping. As demands for additional training have emerged, anything not specifically mandated was, understandably, less likely to be included.

The most frequently occurring topics, and those receiving the greatest percentage of time, became the topics upon which we concentrated in the book. It is noteworthy that the consistency we found was not only in subject matter, but also in relative percentage of the curriculum.

Because of regional differences in how topics were labeled, we exercised some discretion in grouping topics under headings. It was often necessary to interpret course schedules to find where topics were covered. The presentation format of the Police Training Institute, in which topics are integrated into scenarios throughout the curriculum, presents a considerable challenge in describing the relative time devoted to each topic. While it is easy to see that the state performance objectives are met, it is difficult to identify the amount of attention each receives relative to others. In most of the curricula we reviewed, it was much easier to calculate the time devoted to each topic.

The following table illustrates the most common topics covered in the academies reviewed. Each was identifiable as a subject of instruction in nearly every curriculum examined. The most commonly used terms to identify the nature of training are shown below. The average number of hours devoted to each topic is shown.

Subject	Average Hours of Training
Firearms	47.7
Defensive Tactics	29.6
Criminal Law	27.8
Patrol Procedures (Including patrol operations and handling calls for service)	27.6
Emergency Vehicle Operations (Including legal requirements and driving skills development)	26.6
Physical Training/Wellness	24.6
Criminal Investigation Techniques	23.8
Pullover and Approach	22.3
Communications Skills	16.1
Officer Safety (Distinct from other topics)	14.3
Search and Seizure (4th, 5th, and 6th amendment issues, Miranda, *Terry v. Ohio*, etc.)	13.8
General Skills Areas (Including report writing and problem solving)	13.8
Domestic Violence (Separate from other law and investigations instruction)	13.8
Juvenile Law	7.7
Ethics	3.1

In many cases, it was difficult to discriminate topics within periods of instruction due to the integration of subject matter. This was especially true of designated role-playing sessions.

Other topics appeared less frequently, but they were often accorded large blocks of training time when present. Such topics included the following: gangs, community relations/community policing, civil disorder training, hazardous material handling, court testimony, and liability.

Observations

It was often difficult to determine which blocks of instruction were devoted to community policing. This resulted from several factors. While there is general agreement among law enforcement executives, academics, and researchers about the fundamental components of the community-based policing philosophy, there is no consistent definition allowing blocks of training to be clearly classified as such. Even where the instructional unit was titled "community policing," it was often directed at activities like community relations programs or police ethics.

When we first identified this problem, we felt it was a fairly consistent shortcoming in training. Upon closer consideration, it is perhaps more a reflection of an academy focus on applied skills and abilities. Another issue complicating the incorporation of community-policing blocks into multi-jurisdictional academies is the fact that participating agencies often describe their department's adoption and commitment differently and may rely on very different programs to implement that philosophy.

Even though the nature of training inherently addresses skills and ability development, it does seem very important for basic law enforcement training, even training conducted in multi-jurisdictional academies, to reinforce at least the widely recognized community policing concepts. The concepts which likely should be incorporated into basic law enforcement training include the importance of proactive problem-solving, the need for partnerships among agencies and with the community, and community leadership by officers. Other components of community policing like decentralization of delivery and decisionmaking or generalist rather than specialist policing are best left to individual department philosophies and may be instilled through the FTO programs or other department policy and practice.

We were also surprised by the relatively little amount of time generally devoted to ethics within law enforcement. Our review did not specifically identify the nature of this training, beyond the occasional reference to the *Code of Ethics*; however, we included as ethics training any blocks of instruction so designated or in which issues of subculture, gratuities, or professional courtesy were addressed. Because this is an area of concern for the public and for chiefs and sheriffs, it is reasonable to expect that significantly greater time will be devoted to providing academy students with an awareness of specific and predictable areas of ethical concerns for officers. Minimally, academy students should be invited to engage in guided discussion of topics like racial profiling, acceptance of gratuities, and professional courtesy.

Without the ability to simply add time to training, the difficulty faced by trainers is the obvious one of prioritizing topics. Some solutions may lie in reducing or eliminating training in areas the new officer will not likely be exposed to during the early years of his or her career. Among the topics that may warrant close scrutiny are substantive criminal law in narrow areas like computer crimes, complex sex crime investigations, or the level of detail in the presentation of crime scene investigation. Likewise, it may be possible to "discover" some time for areas like ethics or community-policing discussions by looking for downtime during practical application scenarios.

During the last decade, academic institutions across the country and around the world have pursued student-centered learning tools as a means to promote learning among students, especially adult learners. The key to student-centered learning is requiring students to assume responsibility for their own learning and seek out an understanding of content material. Traditional "classroom-bound" teachers must shift to a role as facilitator or guide. Web-based, online education is a tool widely embraced in higher education to make learning inclusive of populations who might otherwise be excluded from the process because of geography or time.

While we found no examples of academy instruction that was web-based in our research, we learned of some inservice, specialized training that is web-based or that uses the Web in support of traditional classroom presentation. These web-supported courses offer the added benefit of reducing the length of time an employee needs to spend away for training, thereby becoming cost-effective.

Carefully structured scenario training is another student-centered tool. This approach affords the opportunity to integrate several topic areas and expand the number of topics trained to include community policing or ethics. This technique differs from traditional "role-playing" by allowing a group of students to critique performance of peers and seek appropriate resolution based on cumulative training. Rather than instructing students in how they should have handled a scenario, the staff facilitates the discussion of the group until the "correct" result is achieved. Scenarios focus not on a single component of training, but on several areas for which students are required to demonstrate and build on knowledge. For example, students responding to a domestic violence scenario would minimally need to demonstrate understanding of criminal law, communications skills, officer safety, search and seizure, and more. It seems possible to include content areas like community policing (proactive problem-solving, referral to family service, child protective services, etc.) or ethics (professional courtesy issues).

Conclusion

Clearly the most remarkable aspect of the research that went into identifying appropriate content matter for the book was the similarity of topics addressed in academies across the country. This de facto standardization has occurred as a result of the common needs of agencies nationwide without any nationwide effort to impose standardization in training content. It is also obvious that most training is focused on applied skills and abilities. That is not surprising given the role of training versus education. Agency executives go to great lengths to hire entry-level employees with the fundamental characteristics they identify as important:

integrity, ethics, maturity, decision-making skills. Training may be used to build on those characteristics and to particularize them to the career field. Most training, however, remains focused on building new skills and knowledge for entry-level officers, putting tools on their belts that will allow them to perform unique law enforcement tasks.

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Overcoming Police-Community Value Conflicts: The Usefulness of Public Opinion Research in Developing Effective Community Policing Training Programs

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Introduction

The values of a community and the values of the policing agency serving the community are equally important to understanding the level of policing that is most appropriate for that community. When the core values of each of these partners in law enforcement conflict, critical, damaging results to the police-community relationship ensue (Thacher, 2001). The present research seeks to explore and present the basis and empirical documentation of this value conflict.

The Police Services Study is one of the most detailed studies of police calls of service, and as Scott (1981) found, the calls for information and assistance are the most frequent requests from the public and form the primary function of the police, rather than strictly requests for the enforcement of law and order. The study, which analyzed 26,000 calls for service from 60 neighborhoods in three metropolitan areas, found that 33% of the calls were for information or assistance—the most frequent service request (pp. 28-30).

Individual neighborhoods and cities require policing that is consistent with its needs and concerns, and in order to meet that requirement, police departments must sufficient supervision and training of officers in order to provide protection and service that is acceptable to a community. A police department may use several methods to determine if the police services are within the expectations of the community. Some important considerations must be understood before the police can attempt to determine the efficacy of services provided to the community: the consumers of police service must be identified, and the performance of the police must be measured by those consumers (e.g., town meetings or public opinion research) (Alpert & Dunham, 1997).

Different consumers have different perceptions of police performance. A small business owner or upper-class resident living in a well-protected subdivision may be more concerned about the appearance or idea of crime rather than actual crime rates, while a middle-class family may be more concerned about the protection of their home. A lower-class person may be more concerned about the level of

involvement and demeanor of the police rather than the actual crime rate. By these perspectives, consumers of police protection determine the results that they expect from the police according to their needs and individual perceptions of service (Alpert & Dunham, 1997).

In order for police-community relations to be successful, a nexus must exist between the ability of the community to voice its opinion regarding service and the ability of the police to demonstrate interest in the priorities of the public. Police analysts have noted the crucial role of feedback that the public provides as to police services, and the first step to initiating a feedback program is the establishment of a standard method to evaluate the police for which both the citizens and the police understand the indicators of performance. Different communities have differing needs when police service is discussed, so divergent methods of evaluation must also be made available to suit the particular needs of the community (Alpert & Dunham, 1988; Taub, Taylor, & Dunham, 1986).

In order to further the relationship between the police and the community, police analysts have devised empirical means to test the effectiveness of police service to the community. A study by Alpert and Dunham (1988) examined community preferences and responses to different styles of policing and the perceptions of police officers that patrolled various neighborhoods. The results suggest that communities should evaluate their own service preferences and those of the police and give feedback to the department regarding service delivery and performance, thus further integrating the police into the fabric of the community.

The emphasis on the integration of the police into the community has evolved into what many analysts have termed a paradigm shift from the traditional, professional style of policing to community-based policing (Alpert & Moore, 1993; Kennedy & Moore, 1995). Cordner (1995) has identified three major dimensions of community policing. The first is the Philosophical Dimension, which states that policing is more than the traditional focus on crime fighting and law enforcement, with community policing broadening the focus to include order maintenance, social service, and general assistance functions. The second is the Strategic Dimension, which includes "key operational concepts that translate philosophy into action" (Cordner, 1995, p. 2). Two of the key concepts of community policing strategies involved in this dimension are (1) prevention, whereby police are encouraged to be proactive in crime prevention, community problem-solving, and citizen interaction and (2) protection of life, property, and rights and order maintenance, whereby police focus on both traditional and nontraditional police-community functions. The third dimension is the Programmatic Dimension, which is most evident in the community taking a role in its own protection through such programs as neighborhood watch; it is defined as what "ultimately translates ideas, philosophies, and strategies into concrete programs, tactics, and behaviors" (Cordner, 1995, p. 4).

Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1996) give both a definition of community policing and list the ten principles of this policing initiative. Community policing is "based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighborhood decay" (p. 353). The ten principles of community policing are as follows:

1. It is a philosophy and organizational strategy.

2. The police must work on transforming philosophy into practice.

3. Community police officers (CPOs) have face-to-face contact with citizens.

4. CPOs involve the community and work as links to the police department.

5. The community must solve some of its own problems.

6. CPOs serve a proactive element.

7. CPOs protect the vulnerable (juveniles, elderly) and serve an outreach function.

8. CPOs create new approaches to problems.

9. CPOs serve an important function within the department.

10. It is a decentralized and personalized service that can be suited to the needs of the community (p. 354-356).

Fink and Sealy (1974) observe . . .

> Any attempt to provide police services to the community must be predicated on an understanding of the community's need for such services, the ability of the organization to provide such services, and the community's acceptance of the nature, quality, and intention of the services offered." (p. xii)

According to Fink and Sealy (1974), community policing in its simplest form, only requires a commitment from the police and community to mutual involvement and intelligent, persistent police management efforts.

Alpert and Moore (1993) suggest several major themes of community policing that need evaluation. The first theme is building a strong relationship with the community, which is seen as a mechanism to make policing more effective and prevent crime by giving the community a stake in its own protection. A second theme addresses the need to combat broader dangers to the community other than traditional policing, such as public disorder and fear of victimization. A third theme that requires evaluation is the focus of this article, customer satisfaction, or the factors that contribute to public satisfaction with police service delivery.

Data and Methodology

While the improvement of public safety remains one of the most important aims of community policing programs, few studies examine their effectiveness from the public's point of view (Harcourt, 2000; Thacher, 2001). A variety of research strategies focus on various law-enforcement-oriented indicators, such as increased rates of arrest and lower incidents of violent crime, yet questions remain as to whether the community truly feels secure. In this regard, the present inquiry attempts to identify noteworthy influences on public perceptions of police protection.

The data presented here come from telephone interviews, conducted by an independent research firm in the fall of 1998, of Tallahassee, FL residents over the age of 18. This capital city, encompassing an area of approximately 70 square miles, contains a demographically diverse population well over the 230,000 mark, providing an ideal environment for value conflict analysis. Using a two-stage sampling procedure of the Mitofsky-Waksberg design, 1079 respondents, randomly selected from adults having the most recent birthday in the household accessed by random digit dialing, participated in the study (Kish, 1965).[1] At the 95% confidence level, the achieved sample size has an error rate for generalized responses of approximately 3%.

Given the core ideal of community policing mentioned previously, the dependent variable for the current study is general contentment with police protection. Using a Likert-like scale of one to five,[2] respondents indicated the extent to which they agreed with the following statement: "*I am satisfied with the level of police protection in Tallahassee.*" For the purposes of analysis, responses were collapsed into two categories, "Yes" and "No," with all neutral values (53) being excluded.[3]

Two main independent variables were employed in the present analysis: (1) crime concern and (2) police treatment. Acknowledging the sensitivity of these issues and thus the increased possibility of bias due to nonresponse, the researchers constructed indices by combining multiple indicators of the same item. Correlation matrixes revealed significant correlations between each of the selected questions, providing strong support for the decision to create indexes.

In the current investigation, concern with crime is operationally defined as . . .

> On a scale of one to ten, with ten representing the most concern and one representing the least concern, how concerned are you with . . . crime overall, violent crime, the sale/use of crack cocaine, the sale/use of powdered cocaine, crime by white male teenagers, hate-motivated crime, domestic violence, crime by African-American teenagers?

The final variable consists of the average response to each of these eight questions. To aid in data analysis, the authors collapsed the newly created index into two categories reflecting both high (1) and low (0) concern.[4] Likewise, the treatment index consists of various opinions as to whether police officers handle members of the community in a similar manner. These measures involve a different scale. With yes or no responses, participants indicated whether local law enforcement officials treat the poor same as the wealthy, young same as old, men same as women, non-English speakers same as English speakers, and African Americans same as Caucasians. Once again, the index is comprised of an average of these answers collapsed into two categories (Yes – 1, No – 2).[5]

To provide a better understanding of the computed indices, the researchers also examined four demographic variables. By identifying the specific characteristics of individuals falling into a certain crime concern or treatment category, insight is gained as to who believes what in the community, a task of vital importance for the development of successful training programs. For the purposes of the present study, ethnicity, income, gender, and age were included.[6] The authors also wished

to explore the effects of education but were unable to do so due to low response rates (i.e., a high number of refusals) for that particular variable.

Findings

Crime Concern

Table 1 displays levels of crime concern among varying categories of respondent characteristics. According to this table, ethnicity, income, and age exert little influence on one's unease regarding criminal behavior. It is worth noting that minorities and older individuals were slightly more likely to display high concerns (6% and 5% respectively). Furthermore, closer examination of individual concern indicators revealed much stronger differences on such issues as the sale and use of drugs. Income level remained unrelated.

Gender exercises the largest influence on feelings of angst. Women, on average, are more likely than men to possess high concerns with crime (9%). Though countless explanations exist as to why females would express greater levels of anxiety, one cannot ignore the strong differences between opinions on individual crimes. For example, women were much more likely to be concerned with domestic violence and other violent behavior. In other words, increased control of violence while appeasing to female community members may have little if any effect on males. These results highlight the importance of understanding individual needs of the populace when attempting to develop meaningful police-community relations.

Table 1
Levels of Crime Concern Among Varying Demographic Characteristics

		Ethnic Background		Yearly Income		Gender		Age	
		Non-White	White	$49,000 and Below	$50,000 and Above	Female	Male	35 and Below	36 and Above
Level of	Low	12%	18%	15%	17%	12%	21%	19%	14%
Crime Concern	High	88	82	85	83	88	79%	81	86
Total		100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N		328	645	597	292	536	419	443	522

The overall effects of crime concern on satisfaction with police protection are shown in Table 2. Individuals with a low concern for crime are much more likely to be satisfied with the level of protection in their community (16%). These findings support what law enforcement officials have believed for years. Reducing or controlling crime, thereby decreasing the level of concern, results in increased approval of departmental performance. Combined with the results of Table 1, new goals for effective policing programs begin to take shape. Since the entire community is not in agreement regarding the seriousness of various criminal activities, as indicated above, it is necessary to identify specific subgroups of the populace that are most likely to have high concerns for crime (i.e., older minority females) and target their particular concerns.

Table 2
Satisfaction with Police Protection as Explained by Concern for Crime

		Level of Crime Concern	
		Low	High
Satisfied with Level of Police Protection	Yes	86%	70%
	No	14	30
Total		100%	100%
N		155	802

Police Treatment

Table 3 outlines the differences in treatment opinions among varying demographic groups. Once again, income level is seen to exert little influence, as is gender. Both only possess a minor 3% difference between categories. Closer examination of each specific treatment question revealed the same tenuous relationship. A moderate difference between whites and nonwhites is observed. Along the lines of conventional wisdom, minority respondents were more likely to indicate a general disagreement regarding equal treatment by police (10%). When combined with the results from Table 1, one can truly begin to see the importance of understanding community values for developing effective policing strategies. Nonwhites, while seemingly unhappy with police performance in treating suspects, possess rather high levels of concern for crime thus calling for more law enforcement. The task for successful training programs then is to teach efficient control methods in line with what the community views as acceptable.

A clearly relevant statistic presented in Table 3 is the difference in treatment opinions among age groups. Younger individuals are much more likely to feel that the police exercise differential treatment in their day-to-day activities (16%). Even more noteworthy is the reversal in direction from what was observed in Table 1. Whereas older respondents possessed higher concerns with crime, they are less likely to feel that police treat people differently. This reflects one of the many contradictions program designers must face. By identifying such a phenomenon, steps can be actively taken to overcome the dilemma.

Table 3
Opinions of Equal Police Treatment Among Varying Demographic Characteristics

		Ethnic Background		Yearly Income		Gender		Age	
		Non-White	White	$49,000 and Below	$50,000 and Above	Female	Male	35 and Below	36 and Above
Police Treat Citizens Equally	Yes	21%	31%	26%	29%	25%	28%	19%	36%
	No	79	69	74	71	75	72	81	64
Total		100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N		338	611	589	282	517	409	449	496

Comparison of the police treatment index to satisfaction with protection reveals a rather strong relationship (see Table 4). Individuals who believe law enforcement officers deal with everyone in the same manner, regardless of demographic characteristics, are much more likely to be satisfied with the level of protection in their local community (19%). This aspect of public contentment has received little attention in the literature. Although one's overall concern with crime was shown to significantly influence feelings of security, as has been argued vigorously for years, opinions of treatment proved just as important. In this regard, attempts at crime control must be mindful of community sentiment, especially differential treatment issues, if effective relationships are to be established.

Table 4
Satisfaction with Police Protection as Explained by Opinions on Police Treatment

		Police Treat Citizens Equally	
		Yes	No
Satisfied with Level of Police Protection	**Yes**	85%	66%
	No	15	34
Total		100%	100%
N		261	671

Discussion

As Thacher (2001) argues, police and community members rarely value the same things. While the public harbors concerns for quality of life, law enforcement officials tend to stress the need for successful crime control. These conflicting goals have been said to negatively affect the development of effective police-community relationships, in complete contradiction to the core ideals of community policing. Regardless, it is believed that such conflicts can be overcome provided officers of the law allow themselves to understand the needs of the community they are sworn to protect. The present study provided one possible method for accomplishing such a goal, the conducting of public opinion research as a training aid.

Contrary to popular belief, respondents showed interests in effective crime control practices by way of concern for crime. Those individuals possessing low levels of anxiety were much more likely to be satisfied with police protection in their community; however, opinions regarding the equal treatment of citizens by police officers proved to be even more influential accounting for a greater divergence from feelings of security. In short, police officers must possess dual value systems, obtained through specialized training procedures, allowing for both emphasis on effective crime control practices while at the same time remaining mindful of community sentiment.

Notes

[1] Eliminating business, fax, and disconnected numbers, the survey attained an acceptable response rate for those individuals beginning the survey based on the national average of 60% (Weisberg, Krosnick, & Bowen, 1989).

[2]   Where 1 = Strongly Agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Neutral/No opinion, 4 = Disagree, and 5 = Strongly Disagree

[3]   Strongly Agree/Agree = Yes, Strongly Disagree/Disagree = No

[4]   Respondents with averages of 5.0 or lower were classified as having a low concern for crime. Those with values of 5.1 and higher were coded as possessing high concern.

[5]   Respondents with values of 1.5 or lower were classified as believing that the police treat people similarly. Those with values of 1.6 or higher were coded as disbelieving such a statement.

[6]   Ethnicity: White (1), Nonwhite (0)
Income: $50,000 and above (1), $49,000 and below (0)
Gender: Male (1), Female (0)
Age: 36 years or older (1), 35 years or younger (0)

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The Extent of Community Policing Education Offered in Illinois Colleges and Universities

Dennis W. Bowman, PhD, Western Illinois University

The advent of community policing in the 1980s has done more to revolutionize policing in America than any other single philosophy. As a major reform movement of the last two decades, community policing embraces a number of ambitious goals: reducing crime and disorder, calming fears about threats to public safety, and rebuilding the public's confidence in police goals and actions (Mastrofski, 1999). Statistics support the assertion that traditional crime-fighting tactics alone have had a limited impact on controlling crime. Reactionary police methods and strategies based on incident-driven policing have been recognized for their shortcomings in seriously addressing crime issues in cities and communities throughout the nation. This viable new strategy of community policing enabled police to rediscover "policing" during the 1980s as they experienced a major paradigmatic shift (Kelling, 2000).

The forerunners to community policing, such as team policing and foot patrols, were partially effective but did not go far enough in bringing about the organizational change that is critical to the success of policing efforts on the street. The concept of community policing evolved from examining ways for the police to become more proactive in their communities and manage their resources for more optimal community outcomes, including reduced crime rates, safer communities, and increased citizen satisfaction.

Despite its long tenure and successes, community policing is a concept that is not fully understood (Schafer, 2001). The late Robert Trojanowicz from Michigan State University, perhaps the most prominent supporter of community policing in America, conducted a multitude of studies advocating its implementation. Along with Bucqueroux, he defined community policing as follows:

> Community policing is a new philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighborhood decay. The philosophy is predicated on the belief that achieving these goals requires that police departments develop a new relationship with the law-abiding people in the community allowing them a greater voice in setting local priorities and involving them in efforts to improve the overall quality of life in their neighborhoods. It shifts the focus of police work from handling random calls to solving problems. (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990, p. 5)

Traditionally, organizational change in law enforcement has been accomplished through evolution, rather than significant attempts to alter the police culture. Like earlier initiatives, the community policing concept has not been fully embraced by

the law enforcement profession since it requires significant organizational changes in order to be effective. Rigid hierarchical structures and traditional paradigms, coupled with the culture of many police departments, do not allow officers to experience the true empowerment that is critical for street-level decisionmaking and building trust between the police and citizens. Political, social, and economic forces can also be barriers to implementing new strategies that focus on quality-of-life issues rather than crime data as a measure of police performance.

The shift from a traditional, hierarchical organizational structure to one that is more flattened and decentralized requires major internal changes and shifts in attitudes toward proactive management and co-active relationships with the community. Community policing emphasizes applying nontraditional methods and strategies through organizational development processes and educational initiatives.

An abundance of federal funding to implement community policing was available throughout the profession during the 1990s. According to the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS), over $7.5 billion in grants was awarded to the states for community-policing initiatives between 1995 and 2002. The state of Illinois ranks fifth ($386,159,021) out of 50 states and the District of Columbia in the total amount of funding. California ($1,077,031,191) leads, followed by New York ($801,769,567), Florida ($458,944,400), and Texas ($388,717,306). More than 5,700 police officers have been deployed in Illinois as a result of that funding, compared with more than 110, 000 nationwide (U.S. Department of Justice, 2002). This reflects a major commitment made by Illinois law enforcement agencies to the community-policing philosophy.

Advocates for federal assistance, such as the International Association of Chiefs of Police, continue to support the role of the federal government in ensuring that law enforcement agencies have ongoing support in their community-policing efforts. The future of federal grants has not been fully defined, as the George W. Bush administration continues to evaluate its priorities in relation to the funding and support of local and state law enforcement programs.

The Role of Academia

The role of academia is critically important in advancing new theories such as community policing and enhancing the profession through dialogue about these changes. The proliferation of criminal justice and law enforcement academic programs in colleges and universities during the 1970s came as a result of national studies about riots, social unrest, and police actions. According to Donald H. Riddle, former chancellor for the University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, the number of institutions of higher education offering some kind of education in criminal justice increased approximately tenfold from 1965 through 1978 (Riddle, 1980). Within criminal justice programs, specific courses began to be developed relating to functions such as criminal investigation, police and the courts, police-community relations, and police administration (McKenzie, 1980).

As the number of students increased in police-related courses, new paradigms began to evolve about how to conduct policing more effectively and how to

manage police resources and organizations more efficiently. More police officers enrolled in criminal justice programs and greatly contributed to a national discourse about ways to improve policing and how to shift its traditional paradigm of incident-driven policing to a more contemporary model of serving citizens with diverse backgrounds. As improved methods for policing began to emerge and research became more real to practitioners, the relationship between criminal justice and law enforcement education and practitioners became more interrelated.

As the need for community awareness and involvement became part of our social consciousness during the last two decades, criminal justice academic programs began to integrate elements of community policing within specific courses. Academic courses dealing with contemporary issues served as an appropriate forum for discussion and debate about community-oriented policing and community accountability.

Methodology

A written survey was prepared to determine the extent to which community policing is currently emphasized in criminal justice and law enforcement curricula at colleges and universities in the state of Illinois. Twenty-six statements pertained to the philosophy of community policing and the experiences of individual respondents at their institutions. Respondents were given five choices (strongly disagree [1], disagree [2], neutral [3], agree [4], and strongly agree [5]) and asked to fill in the appropriate bracket. An additional 11 questions pertained to demographic information about respondents and their departments. These questions asked about the respondent's tenure, educational background, and training in community policing.

A total of 48 academic institutions were identified in Illinois as offering criminal justice and/or law enforcement curricula. Thirty of these offer a criminal justice or law enforcement major and therefore were determined to be the sample for this study. Eighteen surveys out of the sample of 30 were returned, resulting in a 60% response rate. It was suggested that each respondent make additional copies of the survey as needed since more than one faculty person could be teaching community policing. One institution returned a total of four surveys. A copy of the complete survey is included at the end of this article.

Findings: Statements with Most Consistent Responses

Each statement was analyzed to determine the standard deviation and mean for each response. The five statements with the lowest and highest standard deviations were analyzed and annotated.

Statement #18 – Community issues (abandoned buildings, thefts, drugs, and so forth) mentioned in this statement as receiving strong emphasis in the community policing curriculum, had the lowest standard deviation (0.62). These responses were the most consistent over the entire range of the sample and had minimal variation. The mean of 4.44, between agree and strongly agree, indicated that the respondents as a group highly favored the emphasis of those types of community

issues in the community-policing curriculum. This finding would further support the premise that elements of community policing such as community-specific issues are inherent in the philosophy and vital in understanding the application of community policing. Current literature also fully supports community-specific issues as integral components in understanding the philosophy of community policing and its relationship with citizens. It can also be interpreted that the respondents overwhelmingly feel that practitioners must explore ways to convert the philosophy of community policing into operational practices in order for this approach to be successful and effective.

Statement #1 – "My department encourages me to teach community policing" had a standard deviation of 0.71 and a mean of 3.72, between neutral and agree. This is a desired response since academic departments should be encouraging their faculty to teach the community policing philosophy in a contemporary society. These responses further support the premise that research and literature have most likely influenced academia in accepting community policing as an important philosophy for practitioners.

Findings: Statements with Least Consistent Responses

Statement #6 – "Community policing is offered in my department in upper level classes" had a relatively high standard deviation of 1.53 and a mean of 3.29, between neutral and agree. The widely varied responses for this statement indicate that several institutions are unclear as to the appropriate level at which community policing should be taught. There was a slight majority of responses at the "agree" end of the scale; there were enough responses on the undesired end of the scale, however, to suggest that there is little consensus on this statement.

Statement #7 – Interestingly, the follow-up statement that community policing is offered in lower level classes resulted in a standard deviation of 1.37 and a mean of 3.33, between neutral and agree. These responses showed a lack of uniformity that community policing curriculum is offered in lower level classes.

Statement #3 – "Community policing is offered in my department as an individual course" resulted in a standard deviation of 1.50 and a mean of 2.00, disagree. The vast majority of respondents disagreed with this statement, which seems to mirror the general importance placed on community policing in the academic community. This is also a significant response when compared with a previous statement that community policing makes up less than half of those courses in which it is taught.

Statement #11 – The majority of respondents disagreed with the statement that "community policing is taught as a specialty within police departments." The standard deviation was 1.31 and the mean was 2.71, between disagree and neutral. This is a desired response since both literature and practice support community policing, a philosophy that should be fully integrated and implemented within police departments rather than treated as a specialty function.

Statement #10 – The findings of Statement #10 are also consistent with Statement #11, "community policing must have a full implementation within police operations." These responses resulted in a standard deviation of 1.27 and a mean of 3.28, between neutral and agree. They can be interpreted to indicate that academia has only a basic understanding of how fully implementing community policing increases its effectiveness in police departments and communities.

Additional Analysis

Respondents indicate little agreement among faculty on what constitutes community policing. Although more agreement was expected on this statement, almost half of the respondents felt that faculty members in their departments do not fully understand what constitutes community policing. Significantly, a majority of the respondents felt that community policing is being emphasized in their departments as a philosophy of policing. Statement #8 had a standard deviation of 1.22 and a mean of 3.78, between neutral and agree, which is desirable since community policing should be taught as a philosophy of policing rather than as a specific police program.

The majority of respondents reported strong support in community-policing curricula for the essential elements of forming partnerships: empowerment of officers and citizens, decentralization, restructuring police hierarchies, organizational change, and risk taking and innovation. These elements are important in understanding the essence of community policing in its proper application and implementation for citizens and their communities. Literature and research studies have overwhelmingly identified these elements as important in transitioning the police profession from a traditional paradigm to a more proactive, community-based philosophy of policing.

According to the respondents, the most common method of teaching community policing in the classroom is the use of lectures. Few nontraditional teaching methods, such as group exercises, role playing, or distance learning, are used extensively in the classroom. Moreover, community policing practitioners are seldom involved as classroom instructors or guest speakers. These general findings do not support the growing educational tenet that community policing should be taught more through contemporary methods rather than through traditional lectures.

Demographic Information

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations (See Appendix for Survey)

Statement #	Mean	Standard Deviation	D/N/A Consensus+ of Respondents
1	3.72	0.71 LO	A
2	3.39	0.98	N
3	2.00 **	1.50 HI	D
4	4.28 *	0.75	A
5	1.78 **	0.65 LO	D
6	3.29	1.53 HI	N
7	3.33	1.37 HI	N
8	3.78	1.22	A
9	2.83	1.25	N
10	3.28	1.27 HI	N
11	2.71	1.31 HI	N
12	4	0.84	A
13	4.28 *	0.67 LO	A
14	4.11	0.9	A
15	3.89	1.08	A
16	4.28 *	0.83	A
17	4	0.91	A
18	4.44 *	0.62 LO	A
19	4.17	0.71 LO	A
20	3.89	0.96	A
21	1.89 **	0.76	D
22	4.06	0.73	A
23	2.50 **	1.1	D/N
24	2.44 **	1.1	D
25	4.35 *	0.70 LO	A
26	3.11	0.96	N

* Highest means = most desirable
** Lowest means = least desirable
+ Disagree, Neutral, or Agree

Table 2
Position or Job Title
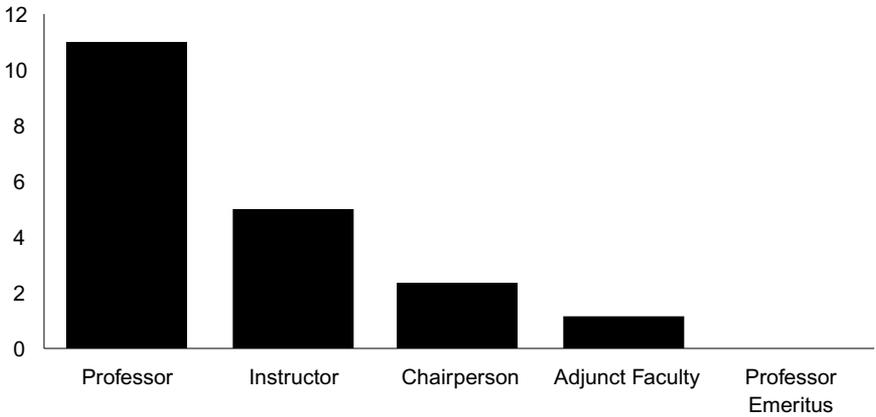
The large numbers of respondents with the title of professor or instructor represent the fact that the surveys were completed primarily by full-time faculty.

Table 3
Years of Academic Experience
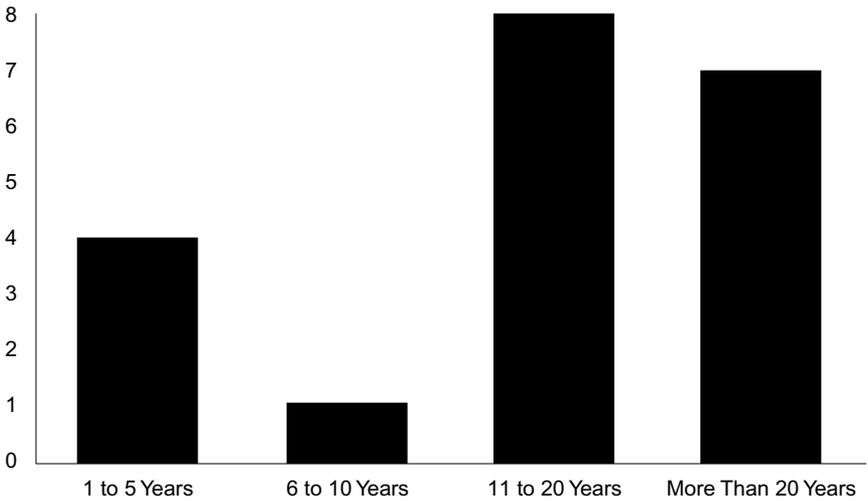
These responses show a great deal of academic experience among the respondents.

Table 4
Years in Department
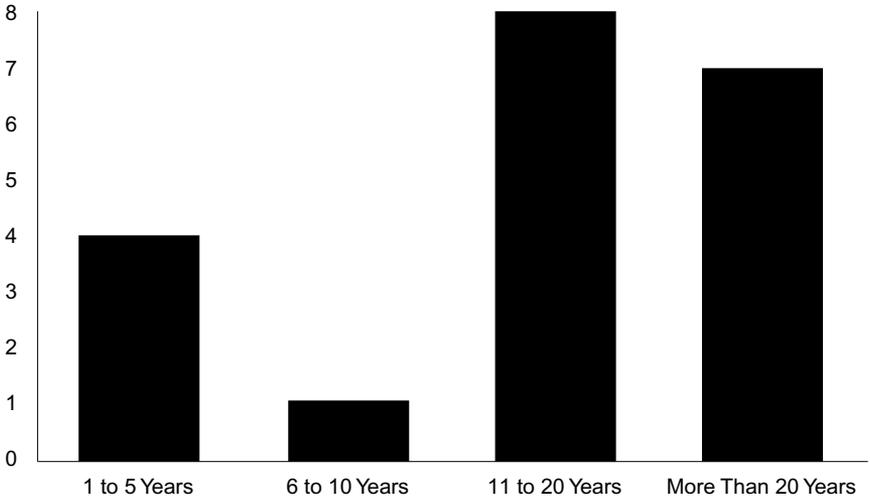
A wide-ranging representation of the number of years of respondents in their academic departments is depicted in this table.

Table 5
Years as a Police Officer
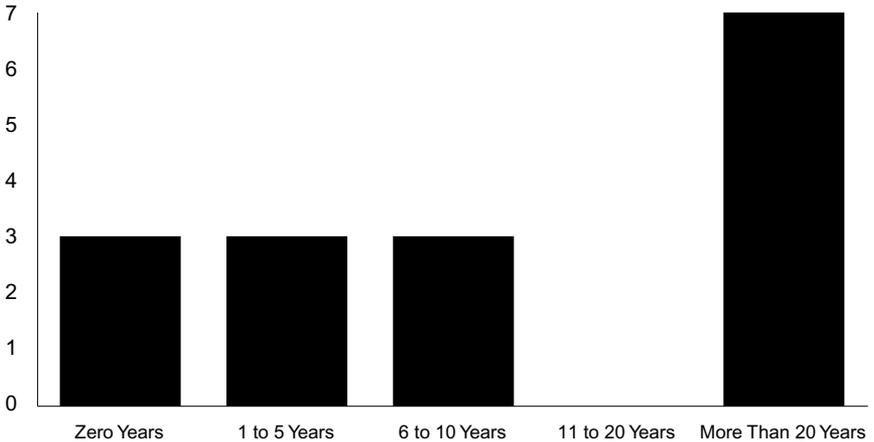
A substantial number of respondents (31%) have more than 20 years of experience as police officers. Over 33% of respondents have 1-10 year's experience as police officers.

Table 6
Years as a Community Policing Officer
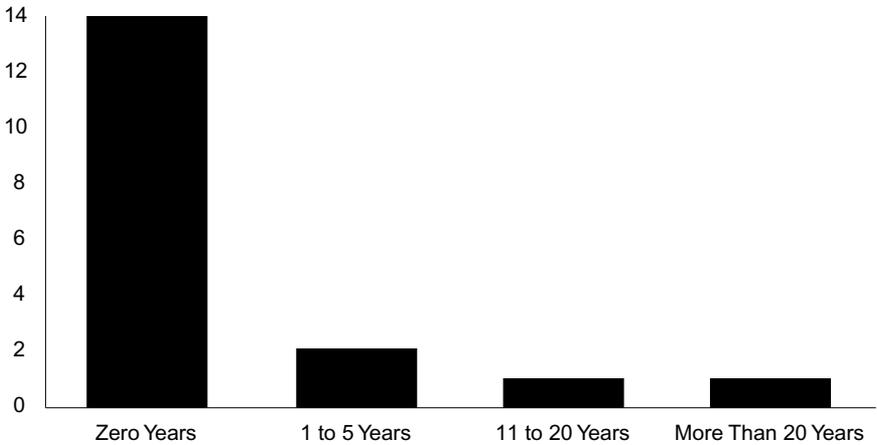
Less than 22% of the respondents have had any experience at all as community policing officers. The fact that almost 78% of them do not have any community policing experience suggests that perhaps research studies and literature have strongly contributed to their understanding of the importance of community policing.

Table 7
Level of Education
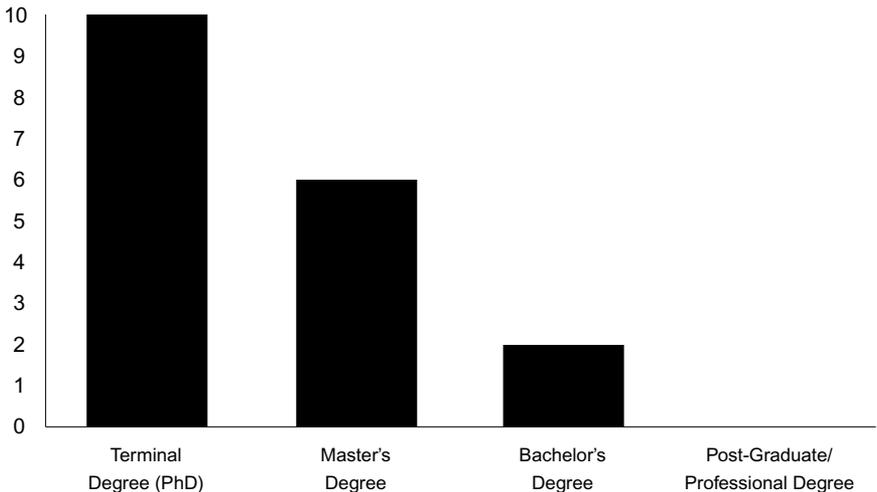
The overwhelming number of respondents have advanced degrees (e.g., terminal or master's degrees). The number with terminal and advanced degrees supports the hypothesis that research studies and literature have most likely contributed to their understanding of the importance of community policing.

Table 8
Major Field of Study
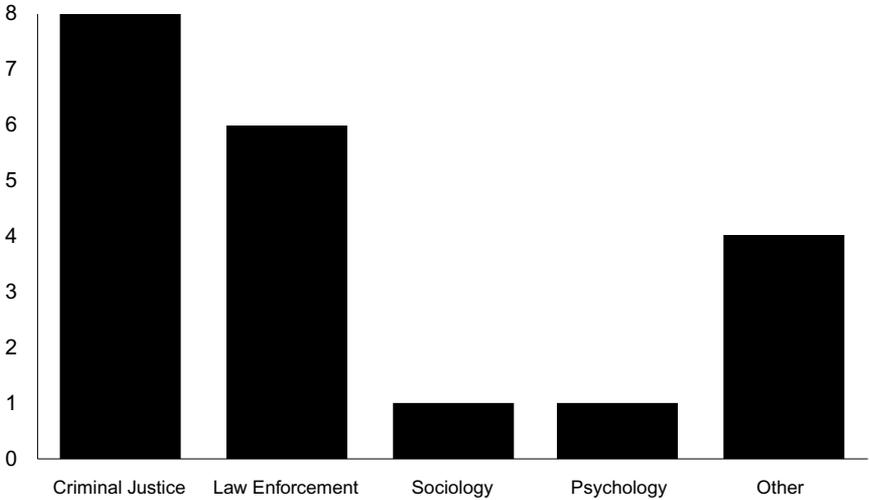
The "other" category represents business, applied science, anthropology, and social science departments.

Table 9
Have You Received Community-Policing Training as Part of Your Formal Education?
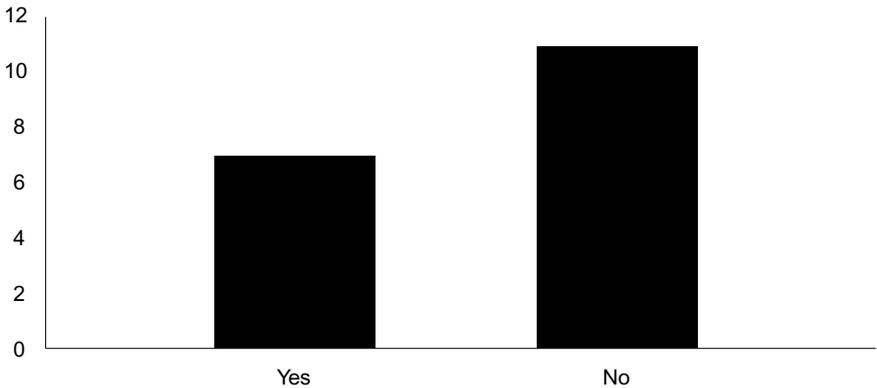
These responses suggest that less than half of the respondents have received any type of training in community policing during their formal education.

Conclusions and Discussion

Generally speaking, the responses somewhat support the assumption that community-policing education in Illinois colleges and universities is offered at levels appropriate to best practices. For the community policing philosophy to have a significant impact on the future of policing in communities in Illinois, however, department heads and instructors alike must become more diligent in developing specific courses and topics related to community-policing principles and concepts, such as problem-solving, citizen police academies, safe streets programs, and neighborhood watch programs. Furthermore, academic programs should begin studying ways to include community policing as a separate course in their core curricula for undergraduate and graduate students.

Traditional lecture was found to be the most common method of instruction; however, incorporating other instructional methods and styles, such as specifying relevance to real-world issues and soliciting student input when developing community-policing curricula and objectives, would better reflect adult-learner values and beliefs. Multiple instructional strategies, such as student participation, case studies, and experienced speakers and practitioners, add new dimensions to the student learning experience. The very nature of community policing as it relates to community expectations and outcomes requires in-depth analysis and evaluation of specific projects and activities that can best be understood by student involvement and participation.

A multilateral approach to curriculum development that involves academics and experienced practitioners would help ensure that the curriculum represents contemporary principles espoused by those who conduct research and those who implement strategies in the workforce. The use of professional advisory groups or boards is important to ensure that a more holistic view is included for student learning. This is not to suggest that academia is incapable of developing contemporary curriculum by itself. Rather, including applied strategies and practices helps to bolster the applicability and relevancy for student understanding and implementation.

Research is a critical component in the advancement of community policing in academia; therefore, researchers must play a more important role in conducting viable research in Illinois to understand more fully the scope and nature of policing programs and initiatives. The analysis of data and observations can help shape curricula for both the academic and law enforcement professions. More attention to research needs in the academic environment will help ensure that inquiries are being conducted for the advancement of student learning and application of knowledge.

This study also clarified the importance of academic standards in the criminal justice environment. It demonstrated a definite lack of uniformity and standardization among criminal justice programs in Illinois. The voluntary adoption by all college and university criminal justice programs of a curriculum standards model that includes a requirement for community-policing education would go beyond the traditional paradigm found in current law enforcement education to one that is more aligned with professional and community needs and expectations.

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Appendix
"Community-Oriented Policing"

A Survey to Determine the Extent to Which COP
Is Emphasized in Criminal Justice and Law Enforcement Curriculum
in Colleges and Universities in the State of Illinois

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the completion of this survey. It is designed to obtain information about the extent to which Community-Oriented Policing is taught/emphasized in the curriculum of criminal justice and law enforcement programs in colleges and universities in the state of Illinois. The statements/questions are to be completed only by faculty who are either teaching or in a position to teach the topic. Please feel free to make as many copies of this survey as needed. Your responses will be kept confidential. **Please return the surveys in the enclosed envelope by April 1, 2002.**

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact Professor Dennis Bowman, Law Enforcement and Justice Administration, Western Illinois University, (309) 298-1002, or e-mail at <Dennis_Bowman@ccmail.wiu.edu>.

Please answer the extent to which you agree (or disagree) with each of the statements listed below using the following scale:

> [1] Strongly Disagree   SD
> [2] Disagree   D
> [3] Neutral   N
> [4] Agree   A
> [5] Strongly Agree   SA

To complete the survey, simply darken the appropriate bracket by each question. If an item does not apply to you, please leave it blank.

1. My department encourages me to teach COP.

   SD D N A SA
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

2. There is agreement among faculty in my department on what constitutes COP.

   SD D N A SA
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

3. COP is offered in my department as an individual course.

   SD D N A SA
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

4. COP is offered in my department as part of another course.

   SD D N A SA
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

5. If taught as part of another course, more than half of the course is comprised of COP.

   SD D N A SA
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

6. COP is offered in my department in upper-level classes.

   SD D N A SA
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

7. COP is offered in my department in lower-level classes.

   SD D N A SA
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

8. COP is taught in my department as a philosophy
   of policing.

   SD D N A SA
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

9. COP is taught in my department as a police program.

   SD D N A SA
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

10. The full implementation and integration of COP
    with all police operations within a department is
    emphasized in my curriculum.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

11. COP is taught as a specialty unit within police
    departments.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

12. Forming partnerships with non-police agencies (social
    services, housing, etc.) is emphasized in the curriculum.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

13. Problem-solving is strongly emphasized as an integral
    part in the COP curriculum.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

14. Empowerment of officers and citizens through the
    process of decentralization is strongly emphasized
    in the COP curriculum.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

15. The need to restructure and re-engineer police
    organizational hierarchies is taught as an essential
    part of COP implementation.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

16. Organizational and cultural changes are emphasized
    as important parts in the implementation of COP
    in departments and communities.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

17. Risk-tasking and innovation by officers are stressed
    in the COP curriculum.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

18. Community issues (abandoned buildings, thefts, drugs,
    etc.) are strongly emphasized in the COP curriculum.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

19. COP is taught as an organizational strategy that
    requires all police personnel (sworn and civilian)
    to explore ways to turn the philosophy into practice.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

20. COP is portrayed as an attempt to provide
    personalized police service on a decentralized basis.

    SD D N A SA
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

21. COP is portrayed as having the same characteristics
    as "public relations."   SD D   N   A SA
                                                              [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

22. Lectures are the most common method of teaching
    COP in the classroom.   SD D   N   A SA
                                                              [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

23. Nontraditional methods (group exercises, role-playing,
    distance learning, etc.) are used extensively in the
    classroom.   SD D   N   A SA
                                                              [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

24. COP practitioners are used extensively in the
    classroom.   SD D   N   A SA
                                                              [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

25. Stressing "quality of life" issues is an important part
    of the COP curriculum.   SD D   N   A SA
                                                              [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

26. Faculty evaluations and feedback (from students)
    support COP as a contemporary strategy in policing
    in the United States.   SD D   N   A SA
                                                              [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

Demographic Information

27. Position or job title:
    [1] professor
    [2] instructor
    [3] adjunct faculty
    [4] chairperson
    [5] professor emeritus

28. Years of academic experience:
    [1] 0 years
    [2] 1-5 years
    [3] 6-10 years
    [4] 11-20 years
    [5] More than 20 years

29. Years in department:
    [1] 0 years
    [2] 1-5 years
    [3] 6-10 years
    [4] 11-20 years
    [5] More than 20 years

30. Years as a police officer:
    [1] 0 years
    [2] 1-5 years
    [3] 6-10 years
    [4] 11-20 years
    [5] More than 20 years

31. Years as a COP officer:
    [1] 0 years
    [2] 1-5 years
    [3] 6-10 years
    [4] 11-20 years
    [5] More than 20 years

32. What is your level of education?
    [1] Terminal Degree (PhD, EdD, etc.)
    [2] Master's Degree
    [3] Bachelor's Degree
    [4] Post-Graduate or Professional Degree

33. What is your major field of study?
    [1] Criminal Justice
    [2] Law Enforcement
    [3] Sociology
    [4] Psychology
    [5] Other

34. As part of your formal education, have you received training in community-oriented policing?
    [1] Yes
    [2] No

35. What is the total number of students enrolled in your department? _____

36. What is the total number of students concentrating in law enforcement in your department? _____

37. What is the name of your department? _____

Additional Comments

_____

_____

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Managing with Integrity and Effectiveness: Tools for Community Policing (A Unique Approach to Designing Curriculum)

Ann Marie Doherty, Superintendent, JD – Boston Police Department
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Denise Owens, MBA and PO (ret.)
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The role of the mid-manager is a crucial one in any police department. Whether it is implementing community policing or assuring that officers are acting with the highest standards of ethics and integrity, it is the mid-managers who are closest to the action. As such, they are often the keys to providing effective policing, as well as setting and maintaining expectations regarding professional conduct. In spite of the critical nature of this role, "training" for police mid-managers is often technical in nature and takes the form of mandated updates in the law and in agency rules and regulations. In addition, the job requires the ability to teach new "technical" skills, such as ways to deal with changes in equipment, police practices, or tactics; however, some of the recent, most publicized lapses in integrity in police organizations have been in large measure attributed to the failure of effective supervision. Such incidents provide both police executives and police educators with much to consider about what type of curriculum and training can help to lessen the likelihood of such incidents. In the words of Boston Police Commissioner, Paul Evans, . . .

> Police mid-managers play a critical role in making the changes needed for full implementation of community policing possible, as well as for agencies to operate with the highest standards of ethics and integrity. To make these changes, mid-managers need to be equipped with new ways of thinking, new skills, and new tools appropriate to the challenges they face. (personal communication, August 2002)

The purpose of this article is to describe a unique approach to designing a highly successful professional development program to assist police mid-mangers in developing these new ways of thinking, skills, and tools. The program was found to be useful and effective by participants who have praised the program on feedback forms, in follow-up focus groups, and interviews. Participants reported that the program helped them . . .

- focus on themselves and be more effective in identifying and dealing with the stress of their jobs.
- better understand the links between operating with integrity and being effective.
- develop strategies to effectively manage change and influence others.
- think about partnerships differently.
- facilitate the efforts of their officers and coach them.

*Authors are listed in alphabetical order.

This article will describe the various elements of the process used to create this program. These include the following:

- Design and development team
- Design and development process
- Multiple shaping sources
- Program content and materials
- Pilot testing and program revision
- Final program materials
- Discussion and lessons learned

Design and Development Team

The 12-week mid-management program was designed and developed under the auspices of the Regional Community Policing Institute for New England (RCPI/NE) by the Strategic Change Consortium, Inc. (formerly the Boston Management Consortium). The RCPI/NE is funded by the United States Department of Justice Community-Oriented Policing Office under a cooperative agreement through the Boston Police Department. The consortium is a nonprofit, public-private partnership specializing in public sector and public safety consulting and training. It works in partnership with private sector consultants to customize and adapt effective private sector practices for the public sector and law enforcement environments.

For the development of the mid-management program, the consortium worked with the RCPI/NE to assemble a multidisciplinary team. The team was intentionally composed of a blend of police educators, police executives, and police managers with experience in the challenges of contemporary police agencies and private sector consultants with expertise in organizational culture, change management, management and leadership development, coaching, and instructional design.

Design and Development Process

The design team met to draft initial program goals and design a process that would utilize the best practices in both police and private sector program development. The process that was agreed to consisted of the following:

Design

- Agree on program scope and general content areas.
- Scan police and private sector management development programs to identify "best practices" and learn from the experiences of others.
- Identify and investigate "multiple-shaping sources" (This will be discussed in more detail in the next section.).
- Create a design based on a cofacilitation approach to instruction.
- Use adult learning approaches to shape program content and learning activities (e.g., role plays, case studies, as well as project-based application of learning).

Development

- Draft initial learner objectives.
- Identify program content.
- Identify instructional approaches and learner activities.
- Produce pilot materials.
- Identify pilot program instructor team.

Pilot Test (Three Pilot Cycles Involving Following Steps)

- Implement initial pilot program.
- Gather participant feedback throughout program.
- Use feedback to inform program strengthening efforts.

Final Phases of Program Development

- Draft materials reviewed by original developers and instructor team.
- Implement suggestions to strengthen program.
- Develop final program materials.

Multiple Shaping Sources

The design team wanted to assure that it was as comprehensive as possible in gathering information and ideas that would help create a mid-management program that was both responsive to the challenges facing police managers and required them to "stretch" and develop professionally. The team carried out a wide variety of activities to gather ideas and information to help inform their design and development efforts. These activities included the following:

- A day-long working session with police chiefs, community leaders, and local elected officials from communities in a number of states in New England to discuss the roles, responsibilities, and needs of police managers working in community-policing environments

- Focus groups with police mid-managers and police officers to discuss what mid-managers need to know to operate effectively and with the highest standards of ethics and integrity

- A "scan" of the research and discussion with national experts on "best practices" of mid-management training in private sector organizations

- Benchmarking of a variety of police departments nationally to see what their current practices were for training mid-managers

Program Content

Using the input gathered from the activities identified above, the design team developed the program outline and content using adult learning approaches as its underlying philosophy and approach to instructional design. The central themes of the 12-week program were identified. They are full implementation of community policing throughout an agency, managing effectively, and managing

with the highest standards of ethics and integrity. The design team also wanted to provide a professional development experience for police mid-managers that would focus on and help them develop additional skills related to the choices and challenges of managing themselves, managing and coaching their direct reports, influencing others, managing change, and building and managing partnerships.

In addition, the design team had a goal of providing participants with an experience that would "stretch" them beyond their comfort zones. The intent was to facilitate managers' learning from each other. They team also wanted to create an experience through which participants would have an opportunity to apply the knowledge and skills taught to help deal with the real challenges in their jobs.

To accomplish these goals, the team decided to make the program a 12-week professional development experience, as opposed to a more conventional police academy or post-training session. The 12 weeks of the program are divided into three phases: (1) "Assessment and Orientation," (2) "The Seminar," and (3) "Project Development."

Assessment and Orientation – Weeks 1-2

In this introductory phase of the program, participants complete two inventories while working at their agencies. One is called the "Learning Tactics Inventory." This self-assessment questionnaire was developed by the Center for Creative Leadership in Greensboro, NC. The center conducted extensive research developing the items for the inventory using many of the groups of participants who attend the center's well known and highly regarded programs. While most of the groups trained at the center came from the private sector (IBM Corporation, Dell Computer Company, CIBA, AT&T, Pepsi Company, General Motors and many others), the population of program attendees also included public sector/public safety organizations, such as the United States Army and U.S. Marshalls.

The Strategic Change Consortium adapted the "Learning Tactics Inventory" for use during this program and tailored it specifically for use with police mid-managers. The feedback from this inventory is used in one of the first program modules to help participants gain insight into the ways in which they characteristically approach new tasks and challenges.

The other assessment inventory that participants complete during weeks 1-2 of the program is a "Community-Policing Questionnaire." It is used by the instructor team to learn about the participants, their communities, and agencies. The instrument was adapted for use for this program from a questionnaire originally developed by Professor Jack McDevitt of Northeastern University and Professor Al Cardarelli of the University of Massachusetts at Boston.

The other activity that occurs during this first phase of the 12-week program is a briefing for chiefs or heads of agencies that are sending participants. The purpose of this briefing is to give chiefs a high level overview of the content of the program, activities, and experiences that take place during the week-long seminar and participating mid-managers' responsibilities for a project to apply what they have

learned. The other and equally critical purpose of the chiefs' briefing is to have the police executives who are sending teams from their agencies understand the importance of active support for their mid-managers' application of the new skills and knowledge, particularly during the project phase of the program.

Week-Long Seminar – Week 3

The seminar week is organized into a series of sequenced modules. The content of the modules is linked and builds on the material presented on previous days. The introductory module, "Overview and Setting the Context," provides a roadmap of the program. In it, instructors discuss the changes in policing and challenges for mid-managers in agencies working to fully implement community policing as a philosophy, not just as a program. It addresses the fact that in doing so, both the nature of the policing services delivered and how an agency does business are changed. Also on Day 1, program participants utilize the feedback from their assessment activities and spend time considering their learning approaches and the ways in which they take on new projects and challenges in the "Learning Tactics" module.

The next two modules presented on the latter part of Day 1 and the morning of Day 2 are called "Managing Yourself: Choices and Challenges, Parts I & II." In the first of these modules, participants learn about and discuss "The Continuum of Compromise" and address what can happen when officers begin to make choices that compromise their ethics and integrity. They examine choices that range from "acts of omission" (moving from not performing their job fully) to "acts of commission" (engaging in criminal acts).

These two modules also teach approaches to help police professionals think about better managing their time and the stresses of the job, as well as strategies to develop a balance between their identities as police officers and their other life roles.

On the afternoon of Day 2, participants are expanding their focus from their own personal and professional choices and challenges to how they work with the officers they supervise. This next module is called "Managing and Coaching Your Direct Reports." In it, participants learn to incorporate coaching skills into the toolkit they use as supervisors. They focus on the skills involved in becoming a supervisor who works to improve officers' effectiveness, helps them to develop professionally, and has the "courage to confront."

On Day 3, program participants consider the issues and importance of learning to influence effectively in the "Managing to Influence" module. In a series of interactive exercises, role-plays, and small group clinics, participants learn a model for influence and tools to use to be an effective influencer. Emphasis is placed on considering the needs and concerns of multiple stakeholders.

Day 4 focuses on the issues of organizational culture and change in "Managing Change in Police Organizational Cultures." Participants develop a composite view of the changes that they think have occurred over the last five years and are likely to occur over the next five years in policing nationally, in their own agencies, in their communities, and in themselves as police professionals. During that day,

participants also learn about planning for change and discuss characteristics of organizational cultures, particularly those found in police departments.

On Day 5, the focus is on partnerships. In the module called "Building and Managing Effective Partnerships," participants discuss examples of effective partnerships with which they and their agencies have been involved. They also focus on characteristics of effective partnerships and consider a continuum of various kinds of partnerships that may be appropriate for different circumstances.

Also on Day 5, participants begin to consider the specific projects they will develop and implement. Participants receive information about types of projects that prior participants have completed, as well as advice regarding "success factors," which may be of assistance with the next phase of the program, "Project Development."

Project Development – Weeks 4-12

The project development process is divided into two parts. First, participants identify an issue or problem that they want to take on as their project, one that will contribute to advancing their agency's community policing efforts and for which they can get the sign-off of their commander or chief. The project should build on their learning experience thus far. The project proposal is presented to a panel of instructors and the entire group of participants during a day-long session in Week 6 for ideas and feedback.

Then, they go back to their departments and begin to implement the proposed project. At the end of the 12 weeks, participants come together to present highlights of their project implementation experience including success and challenges thus far and next steps. This day-long final session provides another opportunity for feedback from instructors and other participants.

Program Materials

Program materials developed to support the delivery of this innovative professional development program consist of an *Instructor Manual*, a *Participant Guide*, and a *Program Manager's Guide*, which are available on CD-ROM as well as a set of resource articles.

Instructor Manual

The *Instructor Manual* is comprehensive and provides the instructor team for each module with a complete set of materials with which to implement the program. There is an overview that describes the program content, referenced to the time it takes to present each module and the materials needed. The *Instructor Manual* provides complete "how to" instructions and talking points. Also included, are templates for all handouts, flipcharts, and PowerPoint slides.

Participant Guide

The *Participant Guide* serves as a guide during the program, a record of participants' work during the program, and a valuable reference for use following the

program. A copy of this *Guide* is also provided to chiefs during the chiefs' briefing to familiarize them with the program in which their mid-managers will be participating.

Program Manager's Guide

Effectively dealing with the tasks involved in organizing and coordinating the 12-week professional development program is a complex and vitally important aspect of assuring that the program runs smoothly. The program manager coordinates seeing that participants receive and return assessment materials during the first phase of the program, arranges for the chiefs' briefing, and prepares and then provides instructors with all of the materials and equipment needed to implement the program. Program managers also serve as the communication coordinator for all aspects of the program and work closely with the instructor team to provide any support and assistance needed.

The *Program Manager's Guide* contains a detailed set of instructions and related materials, a detailed calendar of tasks and activities, and suggestions and ideas (accumulated lessons) gained from implementing the program.

CD-ROM

The CD-ROM is designed for use by program instructors and program managers. It provides an overview of the 12-week program. On it are the three guides used to deliver the training and video highlights of actual training sessions with links to the guides.

Resource Articles

The resource articles are provided in hard copy and accompany the CD-ROM. They provide important source materials and more in-depth treatment of the subjects covered in the 12-week program. They are intended for use by instructors in their preparation to deliver the program, as well as for inclusion in the copies of the *Participant Guide* provided to mid-managers attending the program.

Pilot Testing and Program Revision

During the pilot phase of the design and development process, we gathered extensive data that informed successive iterations of the program. At the end of each day during the seminar, the design team conducted a focused, brief review of the day. Participants were asked to comment on what worked for them regarding the content, instructional approach, instructors, etc., as well as regarding what could be strengthened or improved.

The designers also conducted "team back" sessions with the instructors to discuss the feedback and to find ways to incorporate the suggestions on how to strengthen and/or modify each module of the program. Additionally, participants completed feedback forms at the end of the program, and that information was synthesized and incorporated into how successive program cycles were delivered.

Finally, a team of consultants uninvolved in the design and development process conducted a focus group with participants who had successfully completed the program. The purpose of the focus group was to assess participants' views of the long-term impact of the program and to see what suggestions they had for ways to improve and strengthen the curriculum and overall program.

Final Program Materials

The design team worked to incorporate the ideas, suggestions, and experiences from the multiple sources discussed above into the final set of materials for national distribution. The final materials reflect the combined observations, ideas, and experiences "on the ground" of the design team, the instructor team, and multiple cycles of participants. The final product is a rich blend of many different perspectives and backgrounds.

Discussion and "Lessons Learned"

Interdisciplinary Design and Development Effort – Learning from Each Other

Developing and designing a complex and integrated curriculum is a challenging undertaking. When the effort involves collaboration across professions, disciplines, and perspectives, the challenge is multiplied by a significant factor. When the design team began to develop the curriculum, the assembled group of police executives, police educators, police managers, and private sector subject matter experts found that they each had a different set of professional experiences, vocabulary, and expectations. While this provided a variety of perspectives, it also required openness to understanding and respecting each other's perspectives. A large part of the success of the final product came from all groups listening to and learning from each other.

The police executives, educators, and managers had to learn to understand the value of a different way of teaching and learning. In addition, they learned how private-sector-based models could be adapted for public sector and law enforcement use. The private sector subject matter experts had to expand their understanding of contemporary policing and the ways in which police organizations actually work, as well as understand the context and form of traditional police instruction. They also had to grapple with some of the challenges facing police mid-managers working in civil service and unionized public sector environments. Both groups struggled with ways to develop a curriculum that would both "stretch" the mid-managers attending and make the program real and relevant to their world, while using a vocabulary that sounded authentic.

Being Comprehensive Takes Time and Resources

The design team made several agreements at the outset. First, the team wanted the program to provide a unique learning experience for the participants, as well as a different teaching opportunity for the paired sworn and civilian members of the instructor team. The group also agreed not to try to fit the program into a predetermined time frame but rather to "listen" to the multiple shaping sources previously discussed and let that information influence how to shape the program.

Reviewing the information gathered from the various shaping sources and using adult learning approaches helped the design team to form the curriculum as they worked with considerations such as the following:

- Discussions between police and community members showed that fully implementing community policing is still a work in progress. While it is a concept that most agree with in philosophy and principle, truly operationalizing it throughout an agency, and having active community partnerships is still a challenge for many departments.

- Talking to those in police organizations, the program designers found that the officers said they benefit most from training that is practical, grounded in their world, and helpful in the development of new skills needed to face the challenges of community policing.

- The benchmarking of other police departments showed that there are few if any programs designed specifically for mid-managers that integrate ethics and integrity issues and community policing into curriculum that focuses on helping them become more effective managers.

- The review of the current state of management training confirmed the belief that the most effective programs are based on adult learning models. These build on and take advantage of the real-life experience of the learners.

- Adult learning theory holds that adults learn best when there is a real and practical application to their job.

- Adults need a context in order to be effectively engaged in learning. By having this program extend over a period of 12 weeks, the designers and developers help those attending to move from thinking about managing themselves to managing others, learning to influence, learning about managing change, and seeing ways to build upon and enhance partnerships.

- Research into adult learning approaches has found that effective programs give people a chance to try out the new skills in order to make them their own. In the project phase of the program, mid-managers have an opportunity to make this learning their own by applying it to issues and challenges in their own departments.

- The *Managing with Integrity and Effectiveness: Tools for Community Policing* program involves the learners from the beginning of the 12 weeks, and throughout the seminar and project development stage, in exercises and activities that allow for maximum transfer of learning to the real-world challenges of police mid-management.

- Both the police mid-managers themselves and the literature on training note that the credibility of the instructors is a key to having a successful program.

- The design group put together instructor teams that paired police educators with subject matter experts in management, change, and professional development. These teams worked to provide the mid-managers with the "stretch" they

said would help them develop new skills while grounding the content in the realities of police organizations.

- While the program designers recognize the difficulties in putting together similar teams, they can only point to this approach as having contributed significantly to the success of the program.

- Participants who came back to discuss the long-term effects of this program commented on the impact that these instructors had on them and how they contributed to their ability to really make the presented tools, skills, and knowledge their own.

Challenge and Value of Actively Listening to Participants

Making active use of the participants' extensive feedback also proved to be something of a challenge. The design team made every effort to consider the feedback provided by participants. Overall, this information helped to enrich the program and continue the effort to ground the program and make sure that the relevance and "translation" to the police world was working. The design team did resist suggestions to pare back the time commitment and the project work. While this made the program more of a challenge to the managers attending, a majority expressed the view that the 12-week duration of the program, the rigor of the content, and the project requirement were important and meaningful to them over time.

Developing the CD-ROM

Developing the CD-ROM represented a new kind of challenge since the approach being taken went beyond just burning files onto a CD as a media for national dissemination. The design team had to learn to think about presenting information in the lively interactive, nonlinear format required by this technology. Working with a company whose expertise is in the technology of creating such CDs meant that the team had to learn new terminology and develop new skills, as well as orient the firm's technical experts to the rationale for the program design, importance of certain materials and terminology, etc.

Making the Shift to the Next Generation of Instructors and Program Managers

It is not uncommon for a design team and initial instructor team to develop and deliver an exciting and innovative curriculum that dies on the shelf after the grant funding runs out. It is difficult to translate and make transparent all of the accumulated knowledge that goes into "birthing" a carefully crafted, integrated set of content; materials; and experiences. Given the extraordinary efforts that the design and first instructor teams have put into this curriculum, they have a large stake in making sure that others will use it successfully.

To accomplish this end, the team worked hard to develop a complete package of materials—one that provides everything new instructors and program managers will need to successfully implement this program. The CD-ROM, resource articles, and extensive supporting materials are designed to help any subsequent program

implementation be successful. The design team has made every effort to "capture the lightning in a bottle" and to share it.

In Conclusion

Finally, one of the most satisfying aspects of this curriculum and training for both the design team and the instructors lies in the body of work that the program participants implemented as they combined what they had learned with their experience and completed their projects. These projects included the following:

• Designing an award-winning effort to solve a significant public safety problem in one area of a major city by involving many community groups and other agencies in creating a successful effort to move a sports league's events to a safer, more appropriate venue

• Reconfiguring a police department's sectors and shifting the agency's patrol strategy to assure geographic and community accountability

• Developing a "frequent offender" program that included making changes in local and state statutes to free an area of a city of those offenders causing the most harm to citizens

• Working to develop a comprehensive approach to ridding an isolated low-income housing project of violent drug dealers and users (This program involved developing job training for adults and athletic programs for youth and helping the residents take back control of their housing development.)

• Developing a program to rid an area of a city of drug dealing by removing the telephones used in drug sales

• Putting together a variety of customized citizen police academies for the elderly, teenagers, and other groups of citizens (Both the citizens and the police learned from each other in these efforts.)

• Fashioning an approach to dealing with incarcerating handicapped individuals

• Developing safety programs for bicycles, child car seats, and traffic problems that were responsive to community concerns and provided an opportunity for partnerships with members of the local business community

These are among the many initiatives that were implemented as part of the project requirement of the 12-week program. These projects met the real needs and challenges encountered by the attending managers and their agencies and drew upon their learning experiences in the 12-week program. Program participants reported that devising these projects and sharing the ups and downs of implementing them with instructors and other participants proved to be significant learning and professional growth experiences.

Finally, participants indicated that they surprised themselves in their abilities to do something they would not necessarily have tackled on their own and that they did indeed "stretch" themselves and apply many of the skills taught in the program

to the local challenges facing their agencies. This was a source of satisfaction for the design team and the instructors as well.

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Police Training Response to Mental Health Crises

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Introduction

Police have been identified as one of the major groups of frontline professionals who encounter and are required to respond to mental health crises.

The population of the state psychiatric hospitals has declined from 560,000 in 1955 to less than 60,000 today. For the last 30 years, the mental health system has undergone a tremendous change in that it has shifted from institutional care to community support. Most mentally ill citizens are no longer housed in mental institutions. As a result, law enforcement agencies have more encounters with people in mental crisis. Law enforcement officers' encounters with mentally ill people sometimes end in violence, including the use of lethal force. Today, citizens with mental illness are over-represented in the criminal justice system. About 5% of the U.S. population is suffering from serious mental illness, and prisons and jails are holding 16% of that population. The Cook County jail in Chicago holds more people with mental illness on any given day than any hospital in the United States (Criminal justice, 2002). Incarceration of this population within the penitentiary system is a result of the public display of the symptoms of untreated mental illness.

Law enforcement leadership needs to make changes in the way people with mental illness are currently treated by police departments across the nation. Since 1997, about half of the states have established special task forces to look into some aspects of dealing with mentally impaired people. In 2000, the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board (ILETSB) created a task force according to Public Act 91-0837 (Law enforcement, 2001).

The Memphis Police Department Crisis Intervention Team (CIT) was pioneered in Memphis and has been replicated in numerous departments across the country. The Memphis Police Department CIT is a community-based program targeted to respond to crisis events. In 1988, the Memphis Police Department joined in partnership with the Memphis chapter of the Alliance for the Mentally Ill, mental health providers, and two local universities: the University of Memphis and the University of Tennessee. This unit is comprised of 165 volunteer officers from each precinct who are called upon to respond to mental disturbance calls and crises such as suicide attempts. These officers participate in specialized training under the instructional supervision of mental health providers, family advocates, and mental health consumer groups. Officers trained under this program are skilled in de-escalating potentially volatile situations, gathering relevant history, and assessing medication information and the individual's social support system. This unique program is cost-efficient; the training is provided by the professionals at no cost to the City of Memphis.

Education and training programs have been perceived as a key strategy in developing a professional law enforcement force that applies principles of serving people with special needs.

Many police departments around the nation are delivering special training on how to deal with people in crisis to less than 10% of officers (Jamieson & Wilson, 2000). The basic police patrol curriculum in Illinois has always included a four-hour block of instruction entitled "Dealing with Variant Behavior" (Law enforcement, 2001).

ILETSB has recognized the importance and need of the law enforcement response and interaction with people in mental illness crisis. Failings of mental healthcare have placed police officers on the frontline as responders in dealing with problem citizens. For these reasons, multilevel training should be given to law enforcement personnel in this area. Without proper training, police can lose a tremendous amount of public confidence.

This article draws from an analysis of the development of an effective approach to the training of frontline law enforcement personnel in response to mental health problems in Illinois.

Identify the Training Audience

Across all law enforcement agencies, there are numerous training audiences—law enforcement executives and supervisors, police and corrections officers, 911 operators, trainers, and instructors. To provide an effective training for a law enforcement agency, one needs to . . .

• Determine the audience's educational and cultural background.
• Identify existing knowledge of the mental health crisis encounters.
• Get information of participants' positions in the law enforcement agency.
• Identify what knowledge or skills the audience should gain from the training project.
• Clarify audience attitude towards the mental health crisis training.

Training will not be effective without first understanding the perspective of the audience. Members of the audience will likely respond based on their educational and cultural backgrounds, professional and personal profiles, knowledge of the mental health problem, and positions in the agency. Training objectives may vary with different audiences.

Develop a Training Committee or Task Force

Effectively balanced training for law enforcement officers in the area of dealing with mental health crises can be delivered only through the collaborative efforts of several agencies. The failure of these agencies to connect effectively endangers the lives of citizens and law enforcement personnel. On the local and state level, the success of cooperation often depends on leadership from the law enforcement community and mental health officials.

It would be an advantage for the chief executive of the law enforcement agency to initialize the formation of the task force or training committee, which should have a diverse membership that includes representatives of the agency and local and state mental health agencies as well as representatives from the community. The first step in this long process could be establishing a liaison position in the law enforcement agency, which would provide the opportunity to maintain day-to-day communication between various local and state agencies in a collaborative effort to develop a training committee.

The next step is to develop a package of documents, which should describe the nature and scope of collaboration between chosen agencies in a partnership effort to launch a training project. The following elements might be included:

• Defined audience of training
• Purpose of training agreement
• Training objectives
• Determination of the responsibilities of each participation agency
• Time lines for the training implementation
• Evaluation criteria

ILETSB is exploring the development of a management-training course on this issue to be offered through its Executive Institute. The course will be aimed at police chiefs, sheriffs, and their assistants who are responsible for policy development and implementation. It will include a review of the issues and a discussion of the provisions of the model agency policy and the model cooperative agreement. ILETSB will also initialize a training symposium, which will target trainers.

Training Objectives for Law Enforcement Officers in Handling Mentally Ill People

Training objectives should be based on improving knowledge and skills and developing specific competencies. The evaluation of existing training courses and materials should help the law enforcement agency to specify its training objectives and goals. The focus of the training programs is on increased skills in dealing with this population. The objectives of such programs are as follows:

• To enhance awareness, basic understanding of mental illness, and skills to help law enforcement officers in their response to and management of individuals with mental disorders or mental illness

• To ensure that the law enforcement officers deal with mentally ill people in an appropriate manner and respect their individual rights

• To minimize the risk of injury or harm to the mentally ill, the community, and law enforcement personnel

• To increase safety for law enforcement personnel (Most of them are not trained to deal with the mentally ill.)

- To enhance safety for mental health providers (Most of them are not trained to deal with hostile situations requiring police intervention.)

- To increase safety for the public and for the family members of the mentally ill person

- To increase safety for the inmates in jails and detention centers

Training Cooperation

The key condition of police training in this area is the cooperation of law enforcement and local mental health service providers. In Illinois, the survey revealed that 74% of the responding law enforcement agencies had no local agreements between police and mental health providers (Law enforcement, 2001).

The Illinois task force survey revealed that 83% of the law enforcement agency respondents had no written operational policies in the area of dealing with mentally ill individuals. ILETSB recommends the adoption of a model agreement between law enforcement and mental health service providers that includes training activities. The model agreement is flexible, can be amended for local conditions, and serves as a focal point for cooperative ventures designed to foster closer working relationships among law enforcement and mental health service providers.

Training Strategies

Training Ideology

Through training, all officers have to understand that mental illness is not a crime but a disease that demands special services of care. The advantage of such training is the increased chances that the person in mental crisis will get treatment instead of being arrested.

The multi-discipline training approach contains the following elements:

- Mental health institutions have to provide training that includes recognizing the symptoms of mental illness or emotional disturbance, interacting with a person experiencing those symptoms, types of treatment and medication, and substance abuse issues.

- Law enforcement agencies have to provide close collaboration of the criminal justice and health systems.

- The public is the most important component of the training strategies.

The multi-discipline training approach promotes education, training, sensitivity, and special care on part of the community. Training should be cognizant of local, state, and federal standards.

Training Topics for Law Enforcement Personnel (Adopted from Criminal Justice, 2002)

A. Understanding mental illness

   1. Who and where are people with mental illness?

   2. Differences between mental illness and developmental disabilities

   3. Differences between mental illness and neurological disorders (epilepsy, Alzheimer's disease, Tourette's syndrome, and autism)

   4. What is mental illness? (specific mental illnesses)

   5. Common medication and side effects

   6. Co-occurring disorders

   7. Attitudes about mental illness (misconceptions, discrimination, and stigma)

   8. Cultural and gender differences

B. Statutory influences on police responses

   1. Federal laws

- Rehabilitation Act of 1973

- Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990

- Civil Rights Act of 1983

   2. Local and state statutes, civil liability of police officers

   3. Confidentiality issues, confidentiality of medical information, police report writing, limits of information sharing

C. Police response to calls for service

   1. On-scene assessment

- Recognizing characteristics of impairments and crisis behavior, signs and symptoms of mental illness—verbal and behavioral cues, medical or situational causes of crisis behavior

- Crisis intervention, de-escalation techniques/communication skills, suicide prevention and other high-risk situations, victim/witness assistance

2. Response options

- Noncustodial police options; counseling, release, and referral; voluntary emergency evaluation and noncustodial transport

- Partnerships with mental health resources; working with community-based resources, local hospital-based psychiatric and substance abuse services, NAMI, and other advocacy organizations; mobile crisis teams and community-based services and supports

3. Booking

- Custodial police options, arresting and interviewing suspect with mental illness, involuntary emergency evaluation and custodial transport, involuntary commitment orders and civil criteria

- Police lockup, suicide screening, medications management

4. Follow-up

Training Development

Level 1

Implement Train-the-Trainer summits for certified ILETSB trainers and appropriate mental health staff that will conduct the police-mental health training in the basic training course for police and correctional academies statewide. Train-the-Trainer summits also should assist law enforcement agencies in developing training curriculum to meet the needs of their department. These summits focus on providing the law enforcement trainer with information on the training resources and strategies for curriculum development. The focus is on the development of effective training courses and methodology: trainer's manual, which contains all instructional content and role-play scenarios for police mental health training; officer's guide, which summarizes the basic information and tools on how to deal with mentally ill people; and videotapes to assist the instructor in utilizing the trainer's manual.

Level 2

Implement Train-the-Supervisor summits for Illinois police chiefs and sheriffs. The executive management program has to be designed to facilitate service coordination among police chiefs, sheriffs, and county and state mental health officials, providers, family advocates (NAMI), and survivors of mental illness. The training also provides skills, tools, and tactics for law enforcement executives to safely de-escalate persons in mental illness or developmental disability crises. Executives should receive information about different mental illnesses, developmental disabilities, crisis intervention techniques, community resources, and all major areas useful in interacting with persons in crisis. This training should produce confident supervisors who respond professionally in an empathetic and calming manner.

Level 3

Implement recruit (preservice/academy) training. Increase the training module from four to eight hours. The recruit training should be focused on identification techniques of mental illness, drug and alcohol abuse, and response to related violent behavior. It is important for the FTO to go through mental health awareness training first in order to be able to properly evaluate the new hire. Field training programs can be effective managerial tools through which law enforcement administrators can manage the transition to nonviolent encounters with mentally ill people in the community.

Level 4

Inservice training can be delivered through roll call training and mobile training units. Roll call training provides an opportunity to review problem situations that may have occurred or introduce a discussion. A representative from a local mental health agency can be invited to review potential problems for officers dealing with the mental health system and clarify procedures within the mental health system. This type of program increases the interaction between agencies, improving communication.

Training through mobile training units can be conducted in four 8-hour blocks or a single event with the hours determined by the trainer based on the amount of information presented. Inservice training should be aimed at call takers, dispatchers, front desk personnel, new hires, patrol officers, and deputy sheriffs, as well as some detectives and drug-enforcement officers.

Through training, the law enforcement officer has to be able to determine whether or not the person is . . .

• Mentally ill.
• A threat to him- or herself or the public.
• Incapable of determining rationally whether he or she may need treatment, and, if treatment is not received, whether his or her condition would deteriorate (Community policing, 2000).

Budgeting

To minimize the cost of training, law enforcement agencies should use informal cross-training opportunities in the community. Organizing frequent training visits to the mental health institutions for law enforcement personnel is not costly, except in terms of staff time, but it allows officers to get information and useful direct contacts.

A grant offering from the Illinois Office of Mental Health to ILETSB will fund an initial 20 offerings across the state for training incumbent law enforcement officers. ILETSB should develop the training within the resources of partnerships (no cost) to be delivered by ILETSB Mobile Training Units.

Training Resources

- Local colleges and universities
- Community mental health centers
- Local advocacy groups like NAMI
- Mental health associations
- Sample cooperative agreements
- Policy documents
- Videotape training references (Media Resource Center, Macomb, IL)
- Training modules (Police Executive Research Forum)
- General documents (Issues and Approaches) (Hoover, 2002)

Conclusion

When dealing with the mentally ill, law enforcement officers must have a good foundation of fundamental principles and skills. Effective training and education are the keys to success.

The extensive training of police officers in the area of mental illness not only increases the chances of an individual with mental illness getting treatment instead of being incarcerated, but also decreases the chances that a crisis situation might turn violent.

The decision by ILETSB and law enforcement agencies to provide their officers with training on dealing with people experiencing symptoms of a mental illness has been met with great support in the state of Illinois. Community agencies, families, consumers, and officers have all been an integral part of this trend to provide officers with additional tools to utilize in the community, as well as maintain the safety of both the officer and persons in the community.

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Field Training Officer Evaluations of Executives: Evidence from Two Police Departments

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Introduction

Although the first formal program was not established until the early 1970s, Field Training Officer (FTO) programs are now the most popular method of promoting a rookie to officer. National surveys reveal that agencies of every size and geographic location have some form of this program (Langworthy, Hughes, & Sanders, 1995; McCampbell, 1986; Strawbridge & Strawbridge, 1990; Webb, 1993). Despite the popularity of FTO programs, there is no generic type of field training. The goal, design, duration, FTO selection, training, and remuneration of contemporary field training programs differ from department to department. Most FTO programs, however, call for some combination of the following five features: (1) post-academy, on-the-job training by carefully selected and trained senior officers called FTOs, (2) several identifiable phases that gradually shift more responsibility to new officers, (3) trainees rotated to more than one FTO, (4) standardized training and evaluation techniques exercised by FTOs, and (5) regularly administered evaluations of trainees and FTOs (Hurley, 1990; McCampbell, 1987).

A well-designed and effectively implemented FTO program provides police agencies with substantial practical and legal benefits. These benefits include standardized personnel selection and training, enhanced work quality and morale, reduced civil liability suits, and fewer equal employment opportunity (EEO) complaints (Hurley, 1990; McCampbell, 1986). Moreover, field training programs can be an effective managerial tool through which police administrators may manage the transition to community policing. That is, by recruiting and selecting FTOs whose occupational outlooks and operating styles reflect the values of community policing, police administrators can better instill those beliefs and values in succeeding generations of officers.

The importance of FTOs centers on their impact on the socialization of recruits. Research on police socialization has confirmed that FTOs play a vital role in transforming recruits' attitudes, beliefs, and performance (Van Maanen, 1973, 1974; Yunker, 1977). FTOs' influence is mainly a result of the two primary roles they represent in contemporary field training programs: trainer and patrol officer. As trainers, FTOs are responsible for providing tutor-pupil instruction to assigned rookie officers, facilitating new officer orientation and familiarization, offering regular feedback to recruits regarding their daily performance, communicating with other FTOs and supervisors with respect to progress and deficiencies in probationary officers, and submitting formal recruit performance evaluations on a regular basis. Perhaps even more important is the FTO role in making meaningful and valid recommendations for retention/termination of recruits or for extension of field training (Molden, 1986).

On the other hand, as patrol officers, FTOs are expected to not only carry out their normal patrol duty, but also be exemplary in both quality and quantity of work. That is, they are expected to demonstrate a superior knowledge of legal procedures and department policies and regulations, display expert skills in handling complex situations, and be active and productive in performing their work, even when they are not training recruit officers. This means that FTOs should be role models or leaders not only for probationary officers but for their colleagues as well.

Despite the importance of FTOs in shaping new officers' attitudes and behavior and subsequently in facilitating the transition to community policing, little is known about the attitudinal and behavioral tendencies of contemporary FTOs. Ethnographic studies on American FTOs were conducted based on information collected in the 1960s and 1970s (e.g., Van Maanen, 1973, 1974; Yunker, 1977). Nevertheless, most American police departments have undergone significant transformation over the past two decades. Their demographic composition has changed (e.g., more racial minority, female, and college-educated officers), and new organizational strategies and operational tactics have been implemented (e.g., problem solving- and community-oriented policing). In addition, a new breed of police chiefs has emerged (e.g., willing to utilize empirical evidence from research to make changes), and FTO programs have established new procedures (e.g., systematic selection and training of FTOs and highly structured content for recruits). It is thus unclear whether previous observations and descriptions of the attitudinal and behavioral propensities of FTOs still remain valid.

Similarly, little is known about the extent to which FTOs differ from other officers who are similarly experienced. One would expect that if the department could identify and select those who are competent craftsmen as FTOs and give appropriate training and recognition to them, then attitudinal and behavioral differences between FTOs and non-FTOs would exist. Yet, little systematic empirical research has been conducted to test this argument.

The current study expands the literature on FTOs by comparing FTOs' evaluations of administrators with those of non-FTOs. Specifically, this study assesses whether FTOs and non-FTOs differ in their evaluations of three issues: (1) management recognition of good performance, (2) management recognition of team efforts, and (3) fair treatment for minor violations. If FTOs are the principal mechanism of transmitting police culture and craft, then the examination of FTOs' evaluations of management issues allows administrators to draw inferences about the attitudes displayed by FTOs over the training process. A better understanding of FTOs will shed some light on possible changes that could enhance the usefulness of these training programs.

Evaluation of Executives by Patrol Officers

Subordinates' evaluations of supervisors provide police executives valuable insight into the effectiveness of their supervisory skills and leadership characteristics. Moreover, a well-implemented evaluation program could enhance mutual understanding between managers and street officers and thus foster stronger *esprit de corps* among coworkers (Whetstone, 1994). Evaluation of police executives by patrol officers is not common in law enforcement partly because of officers' fear

of retribution from administrators. Indeed, one of the consistent problems in policing is the suspicious and even resentful attitudes displayed by rank-and-file officers toward top management (Goldstein, 1977). Officers frequently express their resentment of the bureaucracy and unresponsiveness of top managers who rely excessively on detection and punishment to control officers' field practices.

The tension between rank-and-file and managers is mainly due to the nature of police work and the organizational hierarchy. It is well-documented that patrol officers enjoy substantial discretion in performing their daily activities (Davis, 1969, 1975; Reiss, 1971; Wilson, 1968). Police administrators who institute constraining guidelines on discretion or introduce new policies and procedures are often perceived to be insensitive to the reality of policing and to the needs of rank-and-file officers. The different and often contradictory functions of the two levels of police hierarchy contribute to the development of distinct subcultures in the department. Police administrators are mainly concerned with the issues of financial and social accountability, rational decisionmaking, bureaucratic efficiency, affirmative action, and the principle of merit promotion. Patrol officers, on the other hand, frequently resent the changes (e.g., new rules, regulations, and programs) and look back fondly to "the good old days" when less supervision and accountability characterized the work environment and such qualities as "street sense" and "gut level" reactions were critical (Reuss-Ianni and Ianni, 1983).

The empirical evidence from research on officers' evaluations of police executives is scant, and the findings are generally not encouraging. A recent study, for example, found that most officers report that their chief does not have the kind of leadership skills needed to implement community-policing programs (Cheurprakobkit, 2001). These skills included creative problem solving, uniting employees in pursuing department goals, and involving officers in developing department policies.

With the exception of a few dissertation studies (Sun, 2000; Yunker, 1977), theoretical formulations of FTOs' attitudes and behavior are almost nonexistent. Furthermore, to the best of my knowledge, differences between FTOs' and non-FTOs' evaluations of police executives have never been empirically tested. Fortunately, the literature on styles of officers has generated valuable insights into the attitudinal and behavioral differences among patrol officers (e.g., Brown, 1988; Muir, 1977; White, 1972). These findings provide a useful basis for the formulation of hypotheses regarding the attitudes and behaviors of FTOs.

The FTO positions call for FTOs to be command-and-control-oriented officers, who focus on processes rather than outcomes, are controlled primarily by organizational policies and regulations, and are motivated by the approbation of the department in general and supervisors in particular (White, 1972). One might thus hypothesize that FTOs are more likely than non-FTOs to appreciate departmental policies and regulations and to accept changes imposed by the management. Also, the FTO assignment can be regarded as an endorsement and recognition of the officer's skills, knowledge, and abilities by the administrators and an opportunity for personal development and growth. Therefore, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that FTOs are more inclined than non-FTOs to have favorable evaluations of police administrators.

The Present Study

Research Sites

The data used in this study was collected as part of the Project on Policing Neighborhoods (POPN) conducted in Indianapolis, Indiana and St. Petersburg, Florida, during the summer of 1996 and 1997, respectively. The Indianapolis Police Department (IPD) was originally established in 1854 with an initial personnel strength of 14. By 1996, IPD was comprised of approximately 1,000 sworn officers and 250 civilian employees who provided police service to a population of more than 370,000. The department is divided into five police service districts: north, east, south, west, and downtown. Each district is a self-sustaining unit of operation under the command of a deputy chief (often referred to as a district commander), who has a great deal of autonomy in managing his or her area. These five districts are further broken down into 53 patrol beats, which are roughly coterminous with the city's neighborhoods. Community policing was implemented in 1992, which emphasized traditional "aggressive enforcement" strategies (e.g., traffic stops, field interrogation, drug law enforcement, and arrests) to enhance quality of life in the neighborhoods.

The St. Petersburg Police Department (SPPD) was officially formed in 1903 when five full-time officers were employed. In 1997, the department was composed of 514 sworn officers and 206 civilian employees who provided police services to a population of 240,000. There are three police districts (south, north, west) in the city, each supervised by a police major. These police districts are further subdivided into 48 community-policing areas (CPA), which have been primarily based on natural neighborhood lines, workload, and physical barriers such as highways and lakes. The department was recognized nationally as a leader in the implementation of community policing, stressing the utilization of the "problem-solving" model to improve police service and citizen satisfaction.

FTOs in Research Sites

This section focuses on the introduction of departmental policies on FTOs' selection, training, and compensation since this information may shed light on the attitudinal differences between FTOs and non-FTOs. IPD started its field training officer program in 1980. The FTO selection and training process involves seven phases: (1) application, (2) personnel file, (3) assessment center, (4) establishment of FTO eligibility list, (5) initial FTO training, (6) selection of field training officers, and (7) inservice training (workshops) (Indianapolis Police Department, 1997, pp. 53-54). The process begins with the officers applying for the position of FTO. Officers must have a minimum of three years solo patrol experience before they can volunteer for the assignment. Applicants' personnel files regarding their attendance and discipline records are reviewed as part of the screening process. Officers who have good attendance and accumulation of no more than one day of disciplinary suspension time in a two-year period are eligible for the FTO position. These candidates are then evaluated by a group of assessors consisting of supervisors and FTOs using a series of exercises, including written tests, role-playing exercises, interviews, and oral presentations. Based on the recommendation from the assessors, the chief will decide who should be placed on the FTO eligibility list.

Once the eligibility is approved by the chief, officers are required to complete a 40-hour, full-time initial FTO training conducted at the IPD academy. Officers receive training in, among other things, counseling, reporting procedures, feedback skills, training techniques, and making personnel assessments. They are trained by other FTOs, supervisors, and hired professionals. After officers successfully finish the initial training course, they are certified as FTOs by the department and may be activated as an FTO to fill vacant FTO positions. Additionally, FTOs and officers on the eligibility list who have completed the initial training are required to participate in the annual 8-24 hours of inservice training in order to remain certified as FTOs.

IPD gives some recognition to its FTOs. FTOs are given additional points in the evaluation for promotion. FTOs are offered salary incentives during active training time; they receive $1 per training hour (maximum $1,000 per training) and are allowed overtime pay for required administrative duties (but overtime is not encouraged). They also wear a distinctive FTO pin. While recognizing the importance of remuneration, IPD also formulates a program discipline policy that allows the agency to revoke officers' FTO status. The policy specifies that "any officer who accumulates two or more days of disciplinary suspension time in a two-year period will not be eligible to maintain their FTO status" (Indianapolis Police Department, 1997, p. 56); however, officers may reapply to the FTO position two years after the incident that resulted in their second day of suspension time. Other forms of disciplinary actions, such as a written reprimand or a single-day suspension, will not result in an automatic loss of FTO status, but the FTO staff will review these actions to make sure that the offense is not directly contrary to the philosophy of the FTO program or the responsibilities of the FTO (Indianapolis Police Department, 1997, p. 56).

Based on the San Jose model, St. Petersburg's FTO program was established in 1981. SPPD uses a common selection process for all specialized assignments, including the FTO position. According to the department's General Order II-32, which outlines the selection process and criteria for the FTO assignment, desired skills and abilities for FTOs include the following six characteristics: (1) comprehensive investigative skills, (2) interpersonal skills, (3) oral and written communication skills, (4) excellent report writing ability, (5) problem-solving abilities, and (6) mature behavior, self-control (St. Petersburg Police Department, 1995).

Officers have to meet a set of minimum criteria to be considered as candidates for the FTO assignment. The criteria require that officers must . . .

- be off probation for at least two years.

- have performance evaluation ratings during the previous two years averaging 3.0 or higher.

- demonstrate no use of sick leave that could be considered as chronic use or abuse of sick leave.

- have not received any disciplinary action exceeding an employee notice within the past 18 months.

Applications meeting these minimum qualifications and having recommendations for transfer from supervisors will be forwarded to the field training commander who may examine the applicant's personnel file, performance evaluations, written reports/investigations, training records, and internal affairs records. Also, interviews with the candidate, his or her past supervisors, and peers will be conducted by the commander and/or a selection panel comprised of the assistant chief, district major, patrol sergeant, and FTO sergeant. The field training commander then will develop an unranked eligibility pool of successful candidates who will be selected when a vacancy occurs. Once selected, the officer must serve in the FTO role for a minimum of two years.

FTOs are trained before being allowed to train new officers. FTOs receive over 40 hours of specialized training in evaluation and rating, counseling, feedback skills, training techniques, and making personnel assessments. The training is provided by other FTOs and supervisors. FTOs wear special badges and receive overtime pay for their administrative duties. Surprisingly, neither promotional incentive nor extra pay during active training time is offered to FTOs.

Study Group

POPN researchers interviewed 398 IPD and 240 SPPD patrol officers. These officers represented approximately 95% of the total patrol officers in the departments. All FTOs in both agencies were interviewed, including 58 in Indianapolis and 20 in St. Petersburg. A comparable non-FTO sample consisted of officers who had at least three years of experience (as the minimum requirement of year service for FTOs). This non-FTOs group included 340 officers in IPD and 220 in SPPD. The final sample was composed of 78 FTOs and 540 non-FTOs.

The interview consisted of 128 questions posed by interviewers and checklists completed by the respondents in the interviewers' presence. Officers were assured that their responses would be kept confidential, and an identification number was assigned to each officer to ensure confidentiality. Three questions were pertinent to officers' evaluations of executives:

1. When an officer does a particularly good job, how likely is it that top management will publicly recognize his or her performance?

2. When an officer contributes to a team effort rather than look good individually, how likely is it that top management will recognize it?

3. When an officer gets written up for a minor violation of the rules, how likely is it that he or she will be treated fairly?

The first and second questions indicate officers' evaluations of management recognition of good performance and team efforts, while the third question reflects fair treatment for minor violations. Appropriate responses of these questions included "very likely," "somewhat likely," "somewhat unlikely," and "very unlikely."

Results

Table 1 reports percentage distributions of responses by officer status and department. To simplify the interpretation, the "very likely" and "somewhat likely" categories are viewed as "positive" evaluations, whereas the "somewhat unlikely" and "very unlikely" are treated as "negative" evaluations.

Table 1
Percentage Distributions of Responses by Officer Status and Department

	Indianapolis		St. Petersburg	
	FTOs	**Non-FTOs**	**FTOs**	**Non-FTOs**
Management Recognition of Good Performance				
Very likely	1.8	14.3	—	5.0
Somewhat likely	38.5	42.1	20.0	28.3
Somewhat unlikely	31.6	26.2	25.0	30.0
Very unlikely	24.6	21.0	55.0	37.6
Management Recognition of Team Efforts				
Very likely	5.3	15.3	—	3.9
Somewhat likely	21.1	32.4	35.0	39.8
Somewhat unlikely	38.6	28.9	35.9	24.9
Very unlikely	35.1	23.3	30.0	31.5
Fair Treatment for Minor Violations				
Very likely	30.4	32.2	36.8	19.0
Somewhat likely	48.2	47.9	47.4	54.7
Somewhat unlikely	12.5	15.4	10.5	20.1
Very unlikely	8.9	4.5	5.3	6.1

Note: Percentages total may not equal 100 due to rounding.

Contrary to the expectation, IPD's FTOs were less likely than non-FTOs to have positive evaluations of management recognition of good performance. Only 1.8% and 38.5% of FTO responses were in the "very likely" and "somewhat likely" category, respectively, compared to 14.3% and 42.1% for non-FTOs. This means that less than 40% of FTOs gave positive evaluations of management recognition of good performance, while more than half of non-FTOs (56%) showed positive evaluations; therefore, the majority of FTOs in Indianapolis held negative evaluations of management recognition of good performance.

Similar to their training colleagues in Indianapolis, St. Petersburg's FTOs were less inclined than non-FTOs to report positive evaluations of management recognition of good performance. None of the FTO answers were in the "very likely" category, and 20% of FTO responses were in the "somewhat likely" category, whereas 5% and 28.3% of non-FTO responses were in the corresponding categories. Thus, the majority of patrol officers in St. Petersburg, regardless of their status, reported that their managers failed to publicly recognize their good performance.

Most officers in both departments also were not satisfied with executives' recognition of team efforts. Again, IPD's FTOs tended to have lower positive evaluations of management recognition of team efforts than their nontraining colleagues. About 5% of FTO responses were in the "very likely" category, compared to 15.3% for non-FTOs. Twenty-one percent of FTO responses were in the "somewhat likely" category, whereas 32.4% of non-FTO responses were in the corresponding category. FTOs were much more likely than non-FTOs to be in the "somewhat unlikely" (38.6% vs. 28.9%) and "very unlikely" (35.1% vs. 23.3%) category. The majority of FTOs and non-FTOs in Indianapolis expressed negative attitudes toward management recognition of team efforts.

FTOs in St. Petersburg do not differ much from non-FTOs in their evaluations of management recognition of team efforts. FTOs were only slightly more likely than non-FTOs to have positive evaluations. None and 35% of the FTO responses were in the "very likely" and "somewhat likely" category, compared to 3.9% and 39.8% for non-FTOs. Like officers in IPD, the majority of officers in SPPD, regardless of their status, reported negative attitudes toward managers' efforts to recognize teamwork.

Officers in both departments displayed a much higher level of satisfaction with the issue of fair treatment for minor violations. The majority of FTOs and non-FTOs in IPD and SPPD reported that they were "very likely" or "somewhat likely" to receive fair treatment for minor violations of departmental rules. In IPD, there are virtually no differences between FTOs and non-FTOs in three out of the four categories. The only noticeable distinction is that 8.9% of FTO responses were in the "very unlikely" category, compared to 4.5% for non-FTOs.

In St. Petersburg, FTOs were actually more likely than non-FTOs to have positive evaluations of fair treatment for minor violations. About 84% of FTOs rated the issue of fair treatment positively, compared to 74% for non-FTOs. Only 16% of FTO and 26% of non-FTO responses fell into the negative categories.

Discussion

Several major findings can be summarized from the analysis of officers' evaluations of three management issues. First, FTOs are more critical of police administrators, especially in their evaluations of management recognition, than non-FTOs. This finding is unexpected because it is hypothesized that FTOs are more likely than non-FTOs to have positive evaluations of administrators. One possible explanation is that FTOs might have higher expectations for executives regarding their leadership skills and management practices. Another possibility is that the FTO position makes them more sensitive to flaws in executives' leadership styles. FTOs might think that since they volunteer for and assume added responsibility imposed by the training assignment, they deserve more management recognition than regular patrol officers. If recognition is a motivator and if the department fails to offer appropriate and adequate support and recognition to its training officers, then it is not surprising that FTOs are less satisfied with executives than non-FTOs. Unfortunately, no evidence is available to confirm or deny these possible explanations.

In addition, the results indicate that the impact of officer status on their evaluations differs across department. Specifically, there are more attitudinal differences

between IPD's FTOs and non-FTOs than SPPD's FTOs and non-FTOs. Statistical tests show that the differences between IPD's FTOs and non-FTOs in the two "management recognition" issues are significant, whereas the differences in SPPD are not significant. Given that IPD actually provides more recognition (e.g., promotional and monetary incentives) to its FTOs than SPPD, this finding is somewhat surprising. This suggests that other factors, such as communication skills and leadership styles of executives, may account for a greater variation between FTOs and non-FTOs in Indianapolis. Future research should take a broad range of organizational factors into consideration in order to capture the attitudinal differences between FTOs and non-FTOs across departments.

Finally, FTOs and non-FTOs do not differ from comparable senior officers on their evaluations of fair treatment for minor violations. This means that officers' evaluations of the issue of fair treatment are independent of their FTO and non-FTO status. Moreover, most officers in both departments were clearly satisfied with fair treatments received for minor violations. This finding may be attributed to a number of reasons. It may be simply that, for example, police executives were fair in applying disciplinary actions. Court decisions over the few past decades may also promote fair treatment by imposing appropriate procedures (e.g., just cause, due process, and proper documentation) on police agencies in handling violations of departmental rules and regulations.

This study has some important implications for police executives. First, police executives should seek ways to mitigate FTOs' dissatisfaction with management recognition because they obviously do not want any resentful attitudes being transmitted to fledgling officers. It is unlikely that the FTO assignment attracts officers who are particularly critical of administrators. This means that the attitudinal differences between FTOs and non-FTOs cannot be attributed to officers' pre-existing attitudes. The findings also indicate that the attitudinal differences may not be accounted for by the variation in monetary and promotional incentives associated with FTO programs; therefore, the differences in officers' evaluations may be a result of management practices and leadership styles. Recognition can be an effective and relatively inexpensive approach to enhance officers' job motivation, satisfaction, and morale. Many options are available for police executives to improve training officers' negative evaluations. These include demonstrating positive and supportive attitudes toward the FTO program, giving awards and ceremonies to honor FTOs who successfully perform their tasks, permitting FTOs to do their job with a high degree of autonomy, and promoting the FTO position to a higher rank (e.g., corporal or master police officer).

Second, police departments should continue to exercise fair treatment toward officers who violate departmental rules and regulations, regardless of their status and background characteristics. If disciplinary actions are not affected by the officer status or any other characteristics, then it is likely that officers would receive fair and objective treatment. Indeed, most officers probably do not mind following reasonably strict rules, regulations, and procedures as long as they make sense and are equally applied to everyone in the department.

Finally, police executives should encourage and actually provide patrol officers with opportunities to evaluate the performance of top-level administrators. The results may not always be encouraging or as expected, but feedback from street-

level officers would definitely help management to shape and improve many aspects of their job.

Two important issues should be taken into consideration regarding the generalizability of the findings presented above. First, only officers' evaluations of police administrators are examined in this study. Whether FTOs and non-FTOs are distinguishable along other attitudinal dimensions is an open question. Second, the degree to which findings obtained from two metropolitan police departments can be generated to other police agencies is also an open question. Although IPD's and SPPD's FTO programs appear to be fairly representative with respect to FTO selection, training, and compensation, one must be cautious in generalizing the findings to other departments, especially to those with distinctive organizational characteristics (e.g., FTO programs, size, policies, and philosophies).

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Stress-Based Scenario Training

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Training is used to prepare officers for the realities of the street. In the gym, officers rehearse many repetitions of defensive skills, and on the range, thousands of rounds are fired from their duty weapons. The officers are told what to expect and how to use the minimum reasonable amount of force to control a subject during training, yet the training is sterile and lacks emotions.

Incidents happen quickly on the street. Anger erupts into a frenzied fight; a passive subject explodes with surprising strength. Soft-spoken words ignite a shouting match between family members. Experienced officers foresee the danger signals and can work to circumvent the problem with a calm, receptive voice. The inexperienced officer is usually caught by surprise and gets wrapped inside the anger and fear of the people he or she is supposed to help. The end result could be a display of unreasonable force.

Graham v. Conner[1] set the standard for reasonable force. Part of the reasonableness standard makes allowance for the fact that law enforcement officers are often forced to make split-second judgments in circumstances that are tense, uncertain, and rapidly evolving.

Stress-based scenarios use these elements to provide realistic decision-making training. The officer has a hood placed over his head and is told to remain still. The scenario is prepared with the needed number of role players. The officer is given limited information, such as being on patrol and first on the scene for a fight between two subjects. The role players start yelling, and the hood is removed. The officer is told to take immediate action.

The location for this training can be a briefing room or a gym. The time needed to conduct the training can vary depending on how many officers are present or the number of scenarios presented. It could be one officer doing one scenario with a discussion of other tactics that could have been used.

The training could allow the use of citizens to help with the police. Citizens may observe/participate in the training. Recruits could come from a civic theatre group or a police reserves. This allows for a more realistic response instead of using other officers who may be out to complicate an already difficult situation.

The hood allows anticipation to begin. Anticipation can turn into anxiety, which is useful in a training environment. Anxiety grows as the officer does not know what conditions await him or her. Anxiety for some officers diminishes their skills, and it can encourage officers to use techniques/tactics with which they are the most comfortable. The training could then continue with a review of the tactics used and the judgments about other alternatives that could be used in the streets that go beyond the proficiency of the sterile training environment.

Split-Second Judgments

James Fyfe (1986) stated, . . .

> The split-second syndrome . . . assumes that, since no two police problems are alike, there are no principles that may be applied to the diagnosis of specific situations. Thus, no more can be asked of officers than that they respond as quickly as possible to problems, devising the best solutions they can on the spur of the moment. . . . Second, because of stresses and time constraints, a high percentage of inappropriate decisions should be expected, but any subsequent criticism of officer's decisions . . . is an unwarranted attempt to be wise after the event. . . . Finally . . . assessments of the justifiability of police conduct are most appropriately made on the exclusion basis of the perceived exigencies of the moment when a decision had to be taken. So long as a citizen has, intentionally or otherwise, provoked the police at that instant, he, rather than the police, should be viewed as the cause of any resulting injuries or damage, no matter how excessive the police reaction and no matter how directly police decisions molded the situation that caused those injuries or damage.[2]

Information is being supplied to the officer before a critical decision is made. The officer must decide if there is a valid reason for the approach of a subject. The officer will decide upon the best way to tactically approach the subject. The officer will assess the subject, looking for any of the warning signs officers are told to look for in basic training. It will be these perceptions made by the officer that determine the level of force or actions of the officer.

Scenario 1 – Assist Officer with Resistive Subject

Background Information – Responding to a scene at which another officer has called for help with a resistive subject

Role Players – The subject is on the ground refusing to be handcuffed. The officer has one hand behind the subject's back.

Training/Safety Officer – This officer provides the background information and decides when control has been achieved or the testing officer has "won."

The training points may include the following:

- Reasonable use of force
- Stabilization (handcuffing) of the subject
- Search of the subject
- Asking if there are any injuries to the subject and the other officer

Scenario 2 – Fleeing Subject

Background Information – Responding to a fight between two bar patrons

Role Players – One subject is on the ground with a knife in the leg. The other subject is running away from the subject and officer. The running subject has nothing in his hands and runs around a corner.

Training/Safety Officer – If the officer gives chase, the scenario stops as the officer moves past the corner. If the officer stays with the wounded subject, the scenario stops when the officer starts first aid and/or asks questions on the incident.

The training points may include the following:

• Proper pursuit considerations
• Communication and coordination of arriving units
• Review of first aid considerations
• Review of court case Tennessee v. Garner

With decision-making training, the officer can learn to see an incident becoming a potentially violent encounter. Officers will be aware of the need to take action and learn how to control their responses. It is the anticipation of an encounter that has the officer building expectations and preparations.

Tense

Washington State Patrol departmental psychologist Roger Solomon (1990) says that police officers must understand and harness the positive aspects of fear, as well as understand and control the counterproductive aspects of fear. Solomon called it the "Dynamics of Fear."[3]

There are six stages that should be understood by officers:

• Awareness of Danger or Trouble (Solomon labels this "Here Comes Trouble") – the situation begins whether real or perceived.

• Vulnerability Awareness – the officer focuses on the danger in terms of his or her vulnerability or lack of control.

• Threat Acknowledgment and Shift of Focus from Personal Risk to the Conditions Producing the Threat (I've got to do something.) – the officer acknowledges the reality of the threat and makes the transition from internal focus on vulnerability to the external focus on the situation.

• Selecting a Tactic(s) for Survival – the officer, either consciously or instinctively, focuses on survival strategies and the ability to respond to the threat.

• Making a Mental Commitment to the Survival Plan and Summoning "Survival Response" (Here Goes!) – this is the moment of commitment.

• Response (the attempted physical implementation of the survival plan) – an effective action/decision has been implemented with the threat eliminated or controlled.

These stages are not linear. If an officer is properly trained and mentally/physically prepared, the officer can move from "Here Comes Trouble" immediately to the "Survival Response"; however the officer may loop back to any previous stage if . . .

- The officer cannot focus on the external situation and begin to think tactically.

- The officer has insufficient training or has doubts on his or her ability to respond.

- The officer lacks the resolve to respond.

- The action or decision does not eliminate the threat.

Scenario 3 – Crowd

Background Information – Responding to a loud college party

Role Players – Five or six subjects are yelling at the officer with no threatening physical action. The role players keep their distance, except for the person responsible for the party.

Training/Safety Officer – None of the role players should become physically active. The role players may become verbally hostile and may appear to be intoxicated.

The training points may include the following:

- Communication and coordination of arriving units
- Identification of responsible subjects
- Tactical communication skills (verbal judo)
- Emotional control for the officer
- Desirability or necessity for an arrest

Scenario 4 – Fight with Subject

Background Information – Outside a local bar

Role Player – Subject, in protective gear, throws a big right hand at the officer.

Training/Safety Officer – The officer ends the scenario when the subject is in position to be handcuffed and makes sure there isn't too much force used on the subject.

The training points may include the following:

- Good verbalization skills
- Proper use of defensive and arrest tactics
- De-escalation of force
- Communication and coordination of arriving units

Uncertainty

Officers are taught how to assess the threat potential of individuals. Officers can see the early danger signs of a person such as excessive emotional attention, exaggerated movement, conspicuously ignoring, and the ceasing of all movement. One of the most telling signs of threatening behavior and action would be the resistive tension of the subject's body. Contact with the subject allows the officer to perceive the level of agitation. It is the perception of the officer that dictates the amount of force needed to control the subject.

Perceive is defined as "to grasp mentally, to take note of, recognize, observe."[4] To perceive a threat is a skill that is acquired through experience and training. Officers are taught to win confrontations, meaning that the officers must be one level of force above the subject. It is the officer's perceived amount of force that is needed to control the subject.

Rutledge (1988) shares the following anecdote regarding use of force:

> I once worked with a partner who was a master of getting cooperation from even the biggest, meanest, drunkest men in town. Although this officer was in excellent physical condition and was a martial arts expert, he never came on like he was anxious to prove his superiority. He always offered the other guy a peaceful, face-saving way out, and the other guy usually took it.

> For example, we once went into a bar in the roughest neighborhood in town on a "keep the peace" call, and found a guy who looked like the Incredible Hulk creating a disturbance. Instead of running up and grabbing this big guy, my partner just took out his traffic whistle and blew it to get everyone's attention. When he asked the Hulk what the problem was, the Hulk said: "None of your business, Cop! You think I can't whip your ass?"

> My partner said: "Oh, I don't suppose I'd even be any contest for you. But I go off duty in an hour and I've got a date with a hot little mama who's expecting me to come over in good shape, and if you do anything to mess me up, she'll come over here and turn you every which way but loose." The Hulk and everybody else in the bar started laughing. The trouble was over.[5]

Perception is a voluntarily granted gift. If the community and media believe the force used was proper and timely, it is reasonable. If the force was perceived to be excessive, the officer and department lose credibility. While we teach officers how to perceive a threat, do we teach our citizens how to perceive reasonable force?

Scenario 5 – Subject with Knife

Background Information – Responding to a subject talking to himself at the public park

Role Player – Subject is acting as an emotionally disturbed person (EDP). The EDP is seated at a picnic table. As the officer appears, the EDP keeps the table between

them. The EDP displays a knife and swings it wildly and yells at the officer to stay away. The subject does not fight/resist the officer physically.

Training/Safety Officer – The officer is equipped with a red gun or Simunition and inert OC. If the officer uses OC, the scenario ends with the subject being handcuffed. If the officer talks with the subject in a calm voice, the scenario ends after a few minutes.

The training points may include the following:

• Communication and coordination of arriving units
• Exploring techniques/tactics for handling EDPs
• Good verbalization skills
• Tactical deployment of OC

Scenario 6 – Constitutional Violation

Background Information – Responding to assist an officer with resistive subject

Role Players – The subject is lying on the ground curled up, not fighting/resisting with the officer. The officer is over the subject punching, not attempting to handcuff. The officer is not offering any verbal directions, only shouting how it was a mistake to resist an officer.

Training/Safety Officer – The scenario ends when the subject is handcuffed.

The training points may include the following:

• Control of subject and other officers, if necessary
• De-escalation of force
• Review of case law
• Intervention training

The court decisions of Rodney King and others have set in law the requirement for police officers to intervene in police abuse or other constitutional violations. If a police officer fails to intervene, he may be liable under 42 U.S.C. section 1983 as well as arrested under 18 U.S.C. sections 241 and 242 (failure to prevent a constitutional violation).

The prominent case for failure to prevent a constitutional violation would be *Byrd v. Brishke*.[6] The court said "the officer must have knowledge of or deliberate indifference to the action that violates constitutional rights." In *Peterson v. Dept. of Navy*,[7] the court added "a plaintiff must also prove that the officer had a realistic opportunity to prevent the use of force."

Rapidly Evolving

When officers are subjected to high stress situations, the human body responds in many different ways. Good and consistent training may help diminish some of the effects of stress or fear. These effects would include the following:

- Coordination – there is a decrease in fine motor muscle coordination. There is an adrenaline dump in the body, which increases the strength of the person but makes that person more clumsy.

- Mental Confusion – This state may be affected by . . .

  - Inability to make critical decisions.

  - Inability to keep mental track of events.

- Tunnel Vision – The range of vision is focused on the narrow view of the threat.

- Auditory Exclusion – Sounds may be blocked as sight was narrowed.

- Time-Space Distortion – Time will move more slowly, and distances are closer and larger.

To control fear and reduce the stresses on the human body, the officer should . . .

- Know techniques that will work when needed. The more competent the officer is in the technique, the less likely the officer would be overwhelmed with fear.

- Practice mental imagery of high-risk situations.

- Learn the physiological responses to the human body under stress.

- Trust his or her instincts.

- Understand and accept the possibility that deadly force may be used one day.

- Develop a powerful will to survive.

- Maintain a high level of physical fitness.

- Stay mentally positive.[8]

Scenario 7 – Hostage Situation

Background Information – Responding to domestic abuse call (The husband has a history of violence.)

Role Players – The subject playing the hostage is passive, never saying a word or moving without direction. The other subject, the hostage taker, will have a gun pointed at the head of the hostage.

Training/Safety Officer – Red guns should be used for this scenario. Cover should be nearby as the role players would be in the open. If simunition is used, the role players must have proper protection. The scenario ends when the officer wins.

The training points may include the following:

• Understanding the dynamics of a hostage situation
• Verbalization skills
• Deadly force decision
• Use of cover

Scenario 8 – Multiple Subjects

Background Information – Responding to a robbery call involving two subjects

Role Players – The first subject has a gun and starts to pull it from the waistband. This subject is 15-20 feet away from the officer. The second subject is 10-15 feet behind the first subject. The second subject has no weapon but is walking towards the officer. This subject will try to walk past the officer without physical resistance.

Training/Safety Officer – Simunition or red guns should be used. After the officer deals with the first subject (who will not be involved any further), the officer will have to deal with the second subject. Appropriate force in dealing with the second subject is critical. The scenario ends when the officer wins.

The training points may include the following:

• Deadly force decisions
• Good verbalization skills
• Physical control tactics
• Weapon control

Conclusion

Whenever an officer is placed in a position of decisionmaking, the learning continues past those few moments. The officer reflects on the actions taken, assumptions, or beliefs in order to find a way for self-improvement. The officer will review the suggestions of the training officer to verify if the tactics that were offered would work for him or her. Self-reflection allows the officer to "what if" other variations of the training and continue to prepare for the next incident. The officer will decide what is important to him or her and what should be investigated further.

Stress-based scenarios are action-oriented. The officer has to seek an immediate solution, see the results, and critique the entire process. The personality of each individual officer becomes apparent. Does the officer work hard to win, does the officer fall into fear, or does the officer follow the lead of others? Does the officer use the same tactics or too much or too little force to gain control? Is the officer open to new strategies or alternative courses of action? These scenarios allow the officers to experiment in a changing environment to improve performance.

The scenarios can be applied to any environment an officer is likely to use force. Imagine an officer doing a traffic stop and the driver pulls a gun; an officer doing reports in the squad car and an armed subject is seen approaching; a car is stopped

and two subjects leave the car with guns, pointing at the officer who is still in the squad; a car is stopped and there is a change of positions among the driver and passengers. Each scenario has been played out in real-life situations. Sometimes, it ends tragically. Training should reflect life's situations and provide an advantage to the officer. When the training has the officer quickly applying tactics and principles in stressful conditions, the ability to function effectively is enhanced because chance favors the prepared mind.

Endnotes

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Entrapment, Enslavement, or Empowerment? PBL as a Teaching Strategy in Police Education and Training

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Introduction

Police have been identified as one of the major groups of frontline professionals who encounter and are required to respond to drug problems in Australia (Allsop, Cormack, Addy, Ashenden, Ask, & Beel, 1998). In October 2000, a consortium of the Problem-Based Learning Assessment and Research Centre (PROBLARC) of the University of Newcastle and the Australasian Police Education Standards Council Inc. (APESC) successfully tendered for an Australian Commonwealth Department of Health and Aged Care project titled "National Framework for the Implementation of Education and Training Programs to Enhance Police Responses to Illicit Drug-Related Problems in Australia." The project was a result of a review of education and training programs for frontline professionals responding to drug problems in Australia commissioned by the then Commonwealth Department of Health and Family Services and conducted by staff of the National Centre for Education and Training on Addiction (Allsop et al., 1998).

This review identified that education and training programs for police were not consistent with the National Drug Strategy's emphasis on mimimising harm through pragmatic, humane, and non-moralistic strategies (Morrison & Burdon, 1999). Rather, it was perceived that police education and training focus primarily on the law enforcement and supply reduction functions of police in response to illicit drugs. Thus, implicit in the tender project goal of enhancing police response to illicit drug problems was a need to focus on principles of harm minimisation.

Project Method

The project team was committed to reflecting the realities of the practice of policing in order to determine the extent to which harm minimisation principles were consistent with current practice. In addition to this, police ownership of the outcomes of the project was desired, and active participation by police at all levels was established through interviews with commissioners; the formation of a National Reference Group consisting of representatives from police policy, education, and drug and alcohol areas; and the conduct of structured workshops with frontline officers in each state and territory in Australia.

This approach resulted in an overview of the context in which police are required to perform their duties determined through interviews with jurisdictional commissioners and identification of policy and managerial issues that impact police practice through reference to the group of national representatives from the education, policy, and research sectors of each jurisdiction.

There were 120 examples collected from frontline police in response to illicit drug use.

Issues to Emerge from Data Collection Processes

Content and thematic analysis of data collected was undertaken by two members of the project team who were engaged in data collection and validated by a data analyst independent of the project team.

While harm minimisation principles were acknowledged as being relevant to police, there was concern among police about the potential for the project to become focussed on harm reduction without recognising the reality of police responsibility for supply and demand reduction strategies. The National Reference Group emphasised commitment to the National Drug Strategy that defines harm minimisation as the integration of supply, demand, and harm reduction. Participants at all levels agreed that the work already undertaken by police in responding to the National Drug Strategy should be acknowledged and that the tensions between harm reduction and policing practice should be recognised. In addition, there was questioning of the focus of the project on only illicit drug problems as it was felt that the consequences of licit substances such as alcohol and petrol resulted in significant demands on police resources.

It was noted, particularly by frontline police, that enacting harm reduction strategies is often dependent upon the use of police discretionary power; however, as has been observed by Forrell and Price (1997), there are complicating factors in exerting discretionary powers. Some of the factors that complicate the use of police discretion in drug-related matters are concerns about allegation of corruption, lack of explicit service support, community pressure, and a lack of motivation as officers do not see their contribution to the community when they are frequently moved from patrol to patrol (Forrell & Price, 1997). It has also been recognised that police encounter drug use mostly when they are investigating other matters (Makkai, 2000). This raises issues for operational police in terms of priority setting and action. Frontline police in this project sought greater clarity about the expectations placed on them with regard to harm reduction and commented in particular on the inconsistency between the police performance indicator of number of arrests and harm reduction principles.

Morrison and Burdon (1999) recognise the tension inherent between harm reduction and law enforcement; however, they assert that "nowhere in policing manuals does it state that enforcing laws should take priority over other policing objectives" (p. 10). This would support the belief that police have diverse roles and functions inclusive of law enforcement yet have little assistance in enhancing decisionmaking in context, a point well made by Morrison and Burdon (1999) who state, "The unreserved criticism offered to the police in recent years by those who have never been, nor ever will be, faced with the realities of policing has been, at best unhelpful and, at worst seriously detrimental to real progress in defining an appropriate role for police in Australia's National Drug Strategy" (p. 11).

Commissioners and all members of the National Reference Group rejected any proposal for a national police curriculum in total or in part (e.g., standardised and mandated courses related to harm minimisation). This was for both industrial reasons and a perceived need to recognise each jurisdiction's right to independence. Commissioners expressed, in principle, support for the project yet warned against placing increased demands on financial or human resources.

Members of the National Reference Group desired a framework for education and training that provided opportunities for demonstration of competence yet was sufficiently flexible to accommodate jurisdictional differences in policing practice and did not require extensive reworking of police education curricula. A National Framework was proposed and accepted by the group (see Diagram 1). It was felt that the framework is consistent with principles of curriculum design for professional education programs and provides opportunity to develop jurisdiction-specific learning resources that maintain jurisdictional autonomy and provide jurisdiction-specific responses to illicit drug problems.

Diagram 1
A National Framework for Education and Training to Enhance Police Response to Illicit Drug Problems
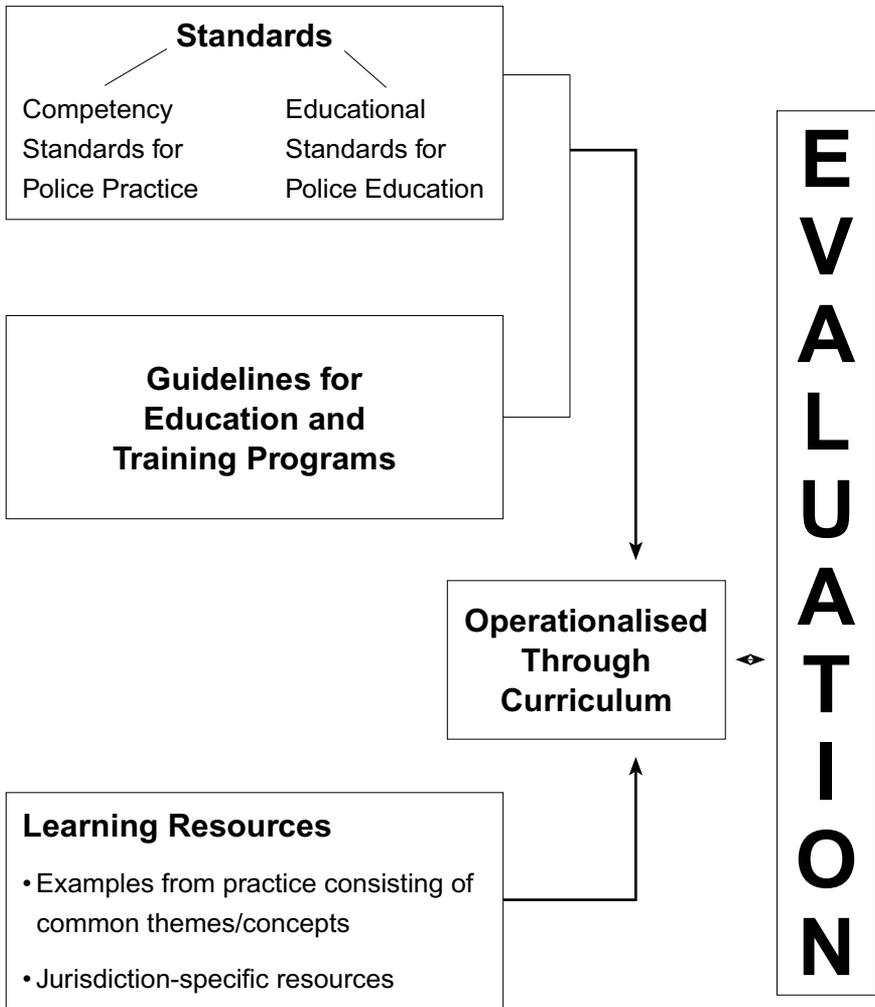
While not negating the significance of the numerous deliverables requested as part of the project brief, members of the National Reference Group felt that development of learning resources to guide and support implementation of education and training for frontline police officers was the most desired outcome of the project. PBL was seen by the consultants as an educational approach that provides context-based learning, which reflects the realities of frontline policing and enables integration of theory, policy, and practice. The development of eight sample learning packages as well as a process to guide police educators through development of the remaining 112 situations into packages was proposed and accepted by the National Reference Group as a desirable project outcome.

Problem-Based Learning in Police Education and Training

PBL is argued to be advantageous when compared to other teaching and learning approaches because it promotes lifelong learning, encourages development and integration of disciplinary knowledge bases and ways of thinking, and facilitates teamwork (Barrows, 1996). It is argued that the emergence of new technology, the continuing expansion of disciplinary content, and the increasing application of the principles of androgogy make PBL an attractive educational method. Furthermore, there is a demand for the professionalising of police education (Rohl & Barnsley, 1995), and PBL is considered an appropriate mechanism for achieving the associated cultural change in policing.

As a teaching strategy, PBL seems to be a useful approach to police education and training as it draws from the practice context; uses real-life situations focused on thinking skills (such as problem-solving, critical thinking, decisionmaking); requires an integration of knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours; promotes self direction and lifelong learning; and encourages learning shared in small groups (Conway & Little, 2000a).

In this project, frontline police were asked to reflect upon their own education and training in response to illicit drugs and make recommendations about education and training to the project team. Analysis of this indicated that police felt that they learned best from on-the-job experience, mentored support from an experienced officer, sharing "war stories," and examining classroom content as it applies to the practice context.

Clearly, there is potential for problem-based approaches and training to be used in police education; however, there is a range of uses for problems in teaching and learning situations. As Woods (1994) has identified, problems can be used to demonstrate application of content or to cause the learner to engage in critical examination of and reflection on practice. It is essential to differentiate between problem-based teaching and problem-based learning. Moreover, it is imperative that those who seek to implement PBL packages have an appreciation of the potential of the use of problems as a strategy in teaching and learning to entrap, enslave, or emancipate the learner.

Collection and Use of Practice Stories as Entrapment

Throughout the conduct of the project, police who participated in workshops at both the jurisdictional and national level were observed to have considerable

discomfort with the attempt to capture policing practice to inform development of learning materials. This discomfort has been interpreted as reflecting the potential for entrapment in disclosing personal practice.

Popham (1993) asserts, "In any profession worth its salt, the considered judgement of professionals is regarded with respect" (p. 327). Although referring to evaluation of performance, this statement is equally as relevant when seeking descriptions of practice and the thinking that underpins action; therefore, in national and jurisdictional workshops, police were invited to describe a practice situation in which they had responded to illicit drug problems.

Banks-Wallace (1998) argues that story telling is both a means to learn about participants' lives and to improve those lives. According to her, story telling provides the following:

• Contextual grounding
• A means of bonding with other participants
• A means of validating and affirming experiences
• A means for catharsis
• A means for resisting oppression
• A vehicle for educating other participants

In this project, however, the recall of examples of actual practice and their personal actions in context to support development of education and training material was perceived by some participants as an unpleasant experience. While the strategy was intended to collect a range of situations for development into learning packages and enable review of how the broad concept of harm minimisation was applied in police practice, some officers who contributed commented on feeling exposed to peer scrutiny, concerned about the judgement of their performance by others in the workshop, and worried about the potential consequences of describing their actual practice.

In some of the jurisdictional workshops, participants disclosed questionable practice and were potentially exposed as ineffective in that practice. Additionally, members of the National Reference Group were challenged when asked to describe a contemporary frontline policing situation. Members of the group reported this caused them to become conscious that they did not have recent practice, and they were confronted with their inability to usefully apply the policies they developed to a practice situation.

Avoidance of feelings of entrapment requires differentiation between performance assessment and learning resource development processes. It was of advantage to the project team that they were not police personnel, could ensure anonymity of participants, and oriented jurisdictional workshop facilitation toward identification of learning needs for future practitioners rather than assessment of current performance. Management of the perception of entrapment will be an ongoing issue in the facilitation of learning, particularly where education and training is "inservice" and not delivered by a provider external to the police service. While we encourage the use of situations to assess the learner's performance, it is essential that the learning process, summative assessment of learning, and performance assessment are separate activities.

PBL as a Strategy for Enslavement or Empowerment?

It is argued by some authors that the success of harm minimisation as a public health goal is dependent upon changes in perceptions of drug use (and users); targeted harm minimisation approaches through policy development; and recognition that an integrated, comprehensive approach from police and other human service agencies is necessary to minimise harm for individuals and the community (Ministerial Council on Drug Strategy, 1998; Rumbold & Hamilton, 1998).

Analysis of the practice situations collected suggests that for frontline police, the term *harm minimisation* is consistent with the National Drug Strategy (Ministerial Council on Drug Strategy, 1998) and is a blanket term that encompasses the three reductions (supply, demand, and harm). Analysis of policing situations indicated that police response to illicit drug use was rarely in response to drug use alone and often involved the management of complex situations in which another crime was committed. There were few reported strategies of harm reduction that had direct impact on those who used drugs beyond nonattendance at drug overdoses, diversionary programs, and management of the safety of the intoxicated person. Much of the police response to illicit drug use required an integration of existing policing practice knowledge, skills, and behaviour suggesting that harm minimisation strategies are integrated and implicit in current practice.

Of concern to the majority of police in this project was the perception that the project would be used to "scapegoat" police as not responding effectively to illicit drug use; that there was a lack of clarity about harm minimisation; that there was a potential for dissonance between harm reduction approaches, community expectations, and the police role as law enforcers; and that this was law reform by stealth. There were comments about police being asked to perform as public health workers and take on "out-of-hours" demands to which the health system was not responding. Some police who participated in this project were concerned that police education and training could become enslaved in an uncritical view of harm minimisation that is not evidence based (in terms of effectiveness in reducing crime as opposed to harm) and negate the role they have in law enforcement. Furthermore, there is considerable evidence that illicit drug use in Australia is currently deemed a medical problem rather than one of criminal deviance and should thus be dealt with by health departments (Palmer, 1996). An explicit goal of this project, however, was to embed harm minimisation concepts in police education and training about illicit drug use. While it has been observed that well-designed PBL packages should provide cues for students to identify learning issues related to both their professional role and lifelong learning, there is a need for a clear conceptual understanding of that practice and its future directions (Conway & Little, 2000b). The lack of clarity about the police role in response to illicit drug problems creates questions about whether police are to be educated from a law enforcement perspective or a health perspective. Both represent enslavement to a set of values and beliefs that may not reflect contemporary policing functions. Ideally, police education and training would empower police to reconceptualize police practice to respond to contemporary community contexts and issues.

PBL has been suggested as a mechanism for liberating and emancipating learners to create alternatives; however, Savin Baden (2000) has observed five models of PBL: (1) PBL for epistemological competence, (2) PBL for professional action, (3) PBL for interdisciplinary understanding, (4) PBL for transdisciplinary learning, and (5) PBL for critical contestability. Those who funded this project, those who designed and delivered it, and those who experienced it as project participants may all have had different understandings of the purpose of PBL.

The first three of Savin Baden's models of PBL are directed at maintaining the status quo and therefore enslave the learner into existing thinking. Use of problems to demonstrate application of predetermined content does little to encourage reflective practice and critique. The challenge for police services is the extent to which they wish to promote critical thinking and a capacity to challenge tradition in learners. Engel (1991) has identified that the goals of PBL include an ability in the learner to . . .

- develop high professional competency.
- deal with problems; reason critically and creatively.
- make reasoned decisions in unfamiliar situations.
- adapt to and participate in change.
- appreciate another person's point of view.
- make self-evaluations.
- identify own strengths and weaknesses and undertake appropriate remediation.
- work productively as a team member.

In their entirety, these goals of PBL can only be achieved through an appreciation of the intent of PBL as a critical social pedagogy directed to emancipation of both the learner and the practitioner. The goals of PBL as a critical social pedagogy will only be achieved if the use of problems is embedded in a curriculum that explicitly engages the learner in critical exploration and reflection. For organisations that encourage conformity and compliance, such an emancipatory approach to learning may be neither desirable nor appropriate.

If the changing nature of the workplace requires that those we train are multiskilled, not in terms of procedure and tasks but in terms of ability to make judgement, analyse situations, draw inferences, and justify action in context (Cohen, 1991), the use of PBL as an educational approach requires that professions define the nature of the real world of practice (i.e., practice as it is) and compare and contrast this to their educational and managerial practices and values. Where there is dissonance between the model of education and the belief systems inherent in the discipline, we believe a PBL approach generates conflict and confusion for educators and learners. Popkewitz (1991) has identified that all knowledge is socially constructed and knowledge itself is value laden. If there are fixed beliefs about the nature, purpose, and ownership of knowledge in the world of practice, then an instructional approach that values learner's experiences and reflective practice may be at odds with that practice (Conway & Little, 2000a).

A major challenge in curriculum design is managing the tension between practice as it is and practice as it should or could be. As curriculum designers, the project team members have had to question the intent of education and training of frontline police in response to illicit drugs. Is it to promote and maintain the status

quo? Is it to critique current practice and suggest alternative practice? Is it to bring about change in practice, which has as a consequence significant implications for the roles and functions of the individual and the organisation?

Conclusion

It has been reported that the implementation of PBL challenges the organisational and political structures of institutions that adopt PBL (Conway & Little, 2000a). The decision to implement a PBL curriculum raises many challenges. As the PBL curriculum is derived from practice, it causes practitioners, policy makers, and educators to articulate their professional practice and values. It can result in recognition of dissonance between policy, practice, management, and education and training.

Education as a mechanism for social reform (or control) has been widely recognised. Crebbin (1994) observes that "PBL challenges 'traditional' educational assumptions about knowledge, knowledge ownership (expertise) and appropriate power relationships" (p. 27). Underpinning the notion of social reform through education is the active engagement of the learner (Friere, 1985). PBL epitomises the notion of the active learner who is a participant in the construction of knowledge and the idea of "capacity building " for professionals. Broad social and cultural change is implicit in PBL; however, PBL literature tends to focus on outcomes for individual learners rather than examining the impact on communities of learners and those organisations in which they work.

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Jane has extensive project management experience in evaluation of educational programs and has consulted broadly. She also has considerable experience as a facilitator and workshop presenter.

In Search of the Perfect Test Question

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It's a beautiful Friday afternoon, and you are already thinking about the great weekend you have planned. You've even managed to suppress your thoughts of the officer from your department who was recently involved in a domestic dispute and shot her spouse six times center of mass in the back.

Your thoughts of the weekend are interrupted, however, by a process server who hands you a subpoena duces tecum for all training records relating to that officer. The process server is in a talkative mood and more than just a little bit familiar with the case. She tells you that the officer's defense will be based on the fact that she did exactly what your department trained her to do. The process server also tells you that the spouse's family has hired an attorney who is going to include your department in a wrongful death suit based on the training the officer received. Your first thought is, "No problem, our training records will document that the officer received proper use of force training and was tested to demonstrate that she understood what was taught." Your second thought is, "Or will they?"

Written tests are mutually hated by instructors and students alike. As a result, it is not unusual for written tests to be written so that everyone can pass them easily and writing them does not occupy too much of the instructor's time. In this article, I am going to discuss some of the things I have learned about written testing over the years. The key word here is *discuss* because I, like many of you, am still searching for the perfect test question. I would suggest that the next time you look at a test question, do so with the following six questions in mind:

1. **Does the question measure what you really want the student to learn?**
   This question goes right to the core of your training program. Before each training session, does someone decide what knowledge or skill each officer must master? The instructor did write a lesson plan, didn't he? Each behavior or piece of knowledge the student must master should be identified in the lesson plan. Normally, these are called student performance objectives (SPOs).

   By definition, SPOs are what you actually want the student to master as a result of the training; therefore, it seems to me that each test question should be directly related to a specific SPO in the lesson plan. I sometimes go so far as to put a coded reference to the specific SPO in parentheses at the beginning of each question. When a student complains that the questioned material wasn't taught or isn't relevant, I can go directly to the SPO and show it to the student. This is helpful, particularly when large amounts of material are being tested.

   If you were on the witness stand in an officer-involved shooting and you had the written test the officer took at the last department use-of-force training, which question would you rather be explaining to the judge and jury?

   • Use of force is covered by which state statute?
   • When is an officer authorized to use deadly force?

   You must define what you actually want the officer to learn and test accordingly.

2. **Can you prove the question is valid and job related?**
   Has the lesson plan been reviewed since it was last used? Perhaps a law has been changed or rescinded, or a new law has taken effect. Maybe department policy has changed. Once your lesson plan and SPOs are up to date, each test question must be reviewed for currency and correctness. A jury only needs to see one incorrect SPO or test question to become suspect of your entire training program.

   We live in a world of special interest groups. On occasion, it is expedient to expose officers to training sessions conducted by special interest groups. Do you review lesson plans and quizzes prior to the training? Are all of the quiz questions in accordance with the law and department policy? Are the special interest groups advocating the officer take steps that are not directly related to his or her job description? Is this opening the department to liability?

3. **Is the question objective or subjective?**
   Is there one and only one clear-cut answer, or does the question allow the instructor to enter into the grading process? I highly recommend well-written multiple-choice questions. Most of the time, they can be written by simply rewording the SPO. See the following example:

   SPO: Force must be deescalated as soon as resistance ceases.

   Question: When resistance ceases, force must be:

   Well-written multiple-choice questions can easily be shown to measure the SPO, leave little or no room for instructor subjectivity, and can be graded rapidly and accurately. They also spare you the agony of explaining to the jury why you thought the answer on the fill-in-the-blank question was "close enough" when you graded it. An added benefit is that there are probably fewer student challenges to multiple-choice questions than to those that are subjectively graded such as fill-in-the-blank and essay question.

4. **Does the question test knowledge or reading?**
   Remember way back to day one of your first instructor course when they taught the KISS principle: "Keep it simple stupid." The question should be written at the same level that the SPOs were written and at which the class was taught. The examination is not the place to introduce new vocabulary. Stick to rephrasing the SPOs in familiar terms, and this problem should never arise.

5. **Is the question a gimme?**
   Does the way you construct a question give away the answer? A multiple-choice question should have four possible answers. Avoid answers like "all of the above," "none of the above," or "a and b." If you think back over all of the multiple-choice tests you have taken, answers like "none of the above" tended to be correct nine out of ten times even if you had no clue what the answer really was. Additionally, all answers should be approximately the same length. If you are guessing at answers and you pick the longest one, you will be correct more often than not. Finally, look at the answers on the multiple-choice tests your department uses. Are two of the answers obviously incorrect? If so, you have given the student a 50/50 chance of getting the question correct by

guessing the correct answer. Each and every answer should seem plausible to a person who does not know the material.

I will reluctantly admit to having passed a multiple-choice test or two for which I had absolutely no clue what the correct answers were. I merely took advantage of errors in test construction that pointed to the correct answer like a big neon arrow. A good plaintiff's attorney can make it difficult for you to explain how poorly constructed questions can document the officer's knowledge of the training objectives.

6. **Does the question measure one and only one learning objective?**
In most cases, combining objectives into one question will cause the question to be long and difficult to understand. If the officer misses the question, you are unable to determine exactly the area of insufficient learning. This can prove to be a real problem if remedial training is going to be required.

Which of the following questions would you rather be defending in court?

- When resistance ceases, force must be . . .
  a. Deescalated because you might be on videotape.
  b. Maintained at high level.
  c. Continued.
  d. b. and c. above.

- When resistance ceases, force must be . . .
  a. Continued.
  b. Deescalated.
  c. Increased.
  d. Stopped.

Once you learn to write good multiple-choice questions, you won't be satisfied with anything less, and it won't take much more time than writing poor questions. A good question measures how much learning actually took place during the training and serves as excellent and specific documentation for years to come.

As a footnote to this article, every court case that questioned the training an officer completed at our Academy has been settled favorably after our training documentation was presented in deposition.

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Standards: Separating Technologies That Work from Those That Don't

Kathleen M. Higgins, Director, Office of Law Enforcement Standards, National Institute of Standards and Technology

The criminal justice community's need for technology has never been greater. Wedged between evolving threats on the street and increasing concerns over liability, officers need better protective gear, more accurate and less intrusive ways to detect concealed weapons, and safer less-than-lethal weaponry. To confront defense tactics that undermine scientific data and play on jury skepticism, investigators need improved means for ensuring the validity of forensic evidence—from DNA to bullets and casings—and a whole new set of tools for examining computer equipment and preserving data involved in crimes. In addition, first responders, like other public safety personnel, need a new generation of equipment to protect against chemical, biological, and radiological agents and a practical system for communicating with one another in multi-agency, multi-jurisdictional incidents.

Many technologies designed to meet these needs are available or in development. It should surprise no one, though, that not all of them perform as advertised. Some work fine in sales demonstrations but fail in the harsh operating environments common to law enforcement and public safety. Others perform well most of the time or for awhile but lack the reliability and endurance required in the field. Still, others work exactly as claimed but are so expensive or require so much training that they are impractical, especially for smaller organizations.

No law enforcement agency has the luxury of making bad procurement decisions. Budgets are too tight, and lives are at stake. What is needed is reliable information for determining what works and what doesn't, and that is precisely what the Office of Law Enforcement Standards (OLES) provides.

OLES, NIJ, and Standards

At OLES, we help the criminal justice and public safety communities separate the grain from the chaff. Together with our long-time partner, the National Institute of Justice (NIJ)[1], we design tools that enable practitioners to evaluate law enforcement and public safety technologies on the market today. We also provide information for making smart buying decisions, properly using and maintaining equipment, designing equipment training, shaping policy, and most importantly, ensuring the safety and effectiveness of officers on the street.

We are, in effect, a kind of consumer union for the criminal justice and public safety communities, with two exceptions. First, OLES is a federal organization—part of the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)[2] of the Department of Commerce. Second, instead of comparing one manufacturer's brand of equipment to another's, we establish a minimum performance standard for each category of equipment (e.g., body armor, metal detectors, 12-gauge shotguns), which can

be used to determine whether any manufacturer's make or model performs well enough to meet essential performance requirements.

Take handcuffs for example. Our standard (*NIJ Standard-0307.01, Metallic Handcuffs*)[3] and the test methods we designed to go along with it are used by NIJ in its formal compliance testing program, but any manufacturer or practitioner, using a properly equipped testing laboratory, can informally determine whether a particular model does what a consensus of law enforcement and corrections practioners says handcuffs must do. Such informal testing does not earn a product official NIJ approval but can still serve to verify product performance. All tests are pass-fail—a product either meets the essential criteria or doesn't.

The difficult part, of course, is getting that consensus within the criminal justice and public safety communities of what a type of equipment must do. That is at the core of our effort.

Establishing Practical Standards

Technology is only valuable if it is practical and reliable in the real world. Unfortunately, what constitutes the "real world" of law enforcement and public safety varies widely. The daily work environment of a seven-officer police force in a rural area is entirely different from that of a 7,000-officer force in a major city. A piece of equipment considered essential by one may not even make the wish list of the other. This makes establishing universal standards difficult.

The first challenge is to identify which technologies are most in need of standards. Here, NIJ does the heavy lifting—polling the criminal justice and public safety communities through representative organizations like the Law Enforcement and Corrections Technology Advisory Council (LECTAC) and the Research Committee of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP)[4]. Based on their recommendations, NIJ determines which technologies OLES should investigate.

OLES starts by gathering information on what the law enforcement and public safety communities need the equipment to do and under what conditions. We buy products on the open market and test them to get a feel for what the current technology is. We talk to manufacturers to get their points of view on issues such as materials, design constraints, manufacturing processes, and costs. We create a list of minimum performance criteria, design test methods for measuring those criteria, and incorporate both into a draft minimum performance standard.

Every standard is a balancing act. No piece of equipment can do everything everyone wants it to do and still be practical. For example, the ideal minimum performance standard for ballistic-resistant body armor would read as follows: "To meet minimum performance requirements, a vest must stop all bullets all the time." Instead, the actual standard (*NIJ Standard-101.04, Ballistic Resistance of Body Armor*)[5] says something like "To meet minimum performance requirements, each panel of a vest must be able to resist penetration by six independent single shot events, all three inches from the edge of the panel and two inches apart."

Clearly our standard falls far short of the ideal. Why? Because to create a practical standard, we have to compromise about what law enforcement officers face on the street, what manufacturers face in designing and making cost-effective vests, and what laboratories face in testing them. Given these parameters, the best we can do is a minimum performance standard for armor that is bullet-*resistant*, not bullet-*proof*.

Could we develop a standard for a truly bullet-proof vest, one that would give 100% protection? Probably. But no vest on the market today could meet the standard. And if a manufacturer designed one that did, it would be so expensive that no one could afford to buy it and so bulky and heavy that no one could stand to wear it.

So we compromise, but we make sure that our compromise is valid. We circulate each draft standard to as many as several hundred technical experts, criminal justice and public safety practitioners, manufacturers, and others. Based on their recommendations, we make necessary revisions. Then, experts at NIJ and NIST review our work for technical accuracy. Only then do we publish.

Every standard we publish is voluntary. No one is required to pay any attention to it at all; however, the reputation our work has earned over the past 30 years has encouraged criminal justice and public safety organizations to buy equipment that meets our standards. That, in turn, has motivated manufacturers to market products that meet our standards. In addition, for critical technologies like body armor and protective gloves, NIJ uses the standards and test methods as the basis of its compliance testing programs.

Looking Ahead

As soon as a standard goes to press, we begin looking ahead. We start accumulating user and manufacturer feedback, compliance test data, information on new performance requirements—all aimed at eventually revising the standard to keep up with changing needs and manufacturing innovations. The fourth revision of our body armor standard was published in 2000, and already the fifth revision is in the works. Other standards are undergoing their second, third, or fourth revision.

We find also that the process of designing minimum performance standards encourages others to look ahead. Because our standards indicate what criminal justice and public safety practitioners are looking for and reveal gaps in current technologies, they encourage equipment designers to push existing limits and develop new products. As a result, with each new revision of a standard, there is often considerably less need for compromise to reconcile users' and manufacturers' needs.

Decoding Standards: Technical Reports and User Guides

By themselves, the standards and test methods we publish do not satisfy the two groups most interested in our work: criminal justice and public safety practitioners and equipment manufacturers. Equipment manufacturers want *more* technical detail than our standards documents provide; for them, we publish technical

reports with the data they need to understand the standard in depth and develop products that meet it.

Criminal justice and public safety practitioners want *less* technical detail. They want to know what the standard *means* in practical terms. For them, we publish user guides. Each guide offers nontechnical, jargon-free explanations of what the standard means in terms of real-world performance, how the equipment must be used and maintained to ensure its effectiveness, safety and longevity, and the importance of proper training. Our primary purpose is to inform users about the limitations of our standards, so that no one attempts to use any equipment in a way or under conditions that exceed tested limits.

Our user guides are probably the most widely used and influential documents we publish. Organizations throughout the criminal justice and public safety communities refer to them when determining procurement, training, and maintenance policies. The guides also draw the most feedback. Hundreds of practitioners contact OLES with questions and comments about our standards each year. Most have never read the standards themselves, only the user guides. Nonetheless, their observations and recommendations alert us to items we missed, equipment applications we never thought of, maintenance and longevity issues, and dozens of other considerations that provide important insights for our standards updates and formal revisions.

In Addition to Standards

In addition to developing equipment standards, OLES conducts other types of programs. We manage basic research projects to support technologies that are essential to law enforcement and public safety. Such projects include characterizing the electrical properties of materials used in handheld weapons and that emulate the electrical properties of the human body (both in support of metal detector development) and burn pattern recognition research and measurement of ignition sources (related to arson investigation).

We develop tools that improve the effectiveness of criminal justice efforts. Our Standard Reference Material (SRM) for bullets and casings will help forensic investigators validate firearms evidence. Our National Software Reference Library (NSRL)[6] is already giving forensic investigators a validated set of commercial software "fingerprints" to use in tracking down illegitimate files on a suspected criminal's hard drive.

And on behalf of various sponsors, we manage research and development projects involving true "emerging" technologies—technologies that could bring dramatic new capabilities to law enforcement and public safety. Such current efforts include developing improved surveillance cameras and human recognition systems, exploring sweat-based and saliva-based tests for detecting drugs, evaluating proposed "smart gun" designs, working with NIST's Electricity Division to develop a new technology for detecting concealed weapons at a distance, and supporting NIJ's AGILE (Advanced Generation of Interoperability for Law Enforcement)[7] program to develop functional interoperability of voice, data, and video communications equipment among the nation's 53,000+ law enforcement and public safety organizations.

These "emerging technology" programs are promising and important, but they are secondary to our standards effort. The reason is that research and development work is always risky and carries no assurance that the results will benefit the criminal justice and public safety communities. Standards-development work is far less risky (some would say far less exciting), but the benefits to the communities we serve are almost guaranteed. Although many federal organizations are involved in technology research, our sponsors prefer to put the bulk of their funds where they are sure to get the best return on investment.

Two Types of "Established" Technologies

Our standards-development mission most often involves established rather than emerging technologies, but the term *established* can be deceptive. In fact, there are two types of established technologies. The first are technologies that have been around the criminal justice and public safety communities for awhile—items like firearms, emergency vehicle sirens, radio batteries, and riot helmets. Although OLES and NIJ have published hundreds of standards, we have only scratched the surface. There are still hundreds of basic, widely used technologies in need of standards, and the criminal justice and public safety communities have made it clear that this need takes precedence over creating standards for more exotic "new" products.

The second type of "established" technologies are those that have existed for years in other sectors before migrating into the criminal justice or public safety arena. Forensic DNA tests grew out of medical applications. Pepper spray was originally for civilian self-defense. Biochemical protective gear has long been used in industry and the military. Such technologies are not technically new, yet they are new—even emerging—to the criminal justice and public safety communities.

Regardless of the type of technology for which we are designing a standard, our objective is the same—to create a scientific baseline for evaluating equipment for criminal justice and public safety use. There is, however, a major difference between developing minimum performance standards for the two types of established technologies. With a technology that is already widely used by the criminal justice and public safety communities, practitioners' expectations are fairly well set, and certain products already dominate the market. When scientific data runs against the grain of habit—when the standards development process reveals a better way or the advantages of less well-known products—there can be strong resistance.

With technology that is finding new applications in law enforcement and public safety, there are no solidified user expectations or dominant market players. By establishing minimum performance standards even before products reach the market, practitioner needs have an impact right from the start. This has been the case with body armor. In the early 1970s, NIJ and OLES worked hand-in-hand with practitioners and manufacturers to ensure that the first vests produced met performance standards that satisfied the user community. As new types of firearms and ammunition have appeared, ballistic-resistant vests and minimum performance standards have kept pace—together ensuring the safety of officers on the street. In 2000, our body armor program expanded with the first minimum

performance standard for stab-resistant body armor (*NIJ Standard - 0115.00, Stab Resistance of Personal Body Armor*),[8] again through close cooperation among practitioners, manufacturers, and technical experts.

Emerging Technologies for First Responders

We now have the same opportunity with technologies being created for first responders. Through our participation in the Interagency Board for Equipment Standardization and Interoperability (IAB),[9] OLES is working with organizations like the National Fire Protection Association (NFPA)[10] and the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH)[11] to design minimum performance standards for the new generation of CBRNE (chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear, and explosive) protective, detection, and decontamination equipment.[12] Groundbreaking work has already been completed for respiratory devices, and projects related to protective chemical/biological suits and detection and decontamination equipment are underway. We have also published, in print and soon on CD-ROM, a series of user guides on the most critical types of CBRNE equipment, making it easy for first responders to compare the characteristics of different manufacturers' equipment on the market today.

Summary: Making Our Work Work for You

OLES was created more than 30 years ago to help the criminal justice and public safety communities equip themselves with the technologies and tools needed to get the job done. Ever since, we have been offering practitioners, at no cost, reliable technical information and scientific expertise. Thousands of local and state organizations find our work valuable, yet our efforts would be even more useful if more practitioners . . .

- Incorporated our minimum performance standards into every equipment purchasing decision, training program, and use and maintenance policy.

- Contacted OLES with comments and recommendations regarding our standards, user guides, and other products.

- Reported failures, deficiencies, and undocumented applications of equipment for which we have developed standards.

- Recommended technologies as candidates for new minimum performance standards or as tools for enhancing law enforcement or public safety efforts.

The bottom line is that OLES exists to help criminal justice and public safety organizations successfully navigate complex technical issues and make solid decisions regarding critical equipment. Ours is a valuable service, especially in light of the challenges that lie ahead, but it is only valuable to organizations that use it.

For more information about our organization and programs, we invite you to visit our website at http://www.eeel.nist.gov/oles and to obtain from NIST a copy of the latest summary of OLES programs, activities, and accomplishments.[13]

Endnotes

1   Information on the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) can be found at <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij>.

2   Information on the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) can be found at <http://www.nist.gov>.

3   National Institute of Justice (NIJ). (1982, March). *NIJ Standard-0307.01, Metallic Handcuffs.*

4   Information on the research efforts of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) can be found at <http://www.theiacp.org/research>.

5   NIJ. (2000, September). *NIJ Standard-0101.04, Ballistic Resistance of Personal Body Armor*.

6   NIJ. (2002, June). *National Software Reference Library (NSRL)*, Version 1.2. Information and updates available at <http://www.nsrl.nist.gov>.

7   Information on the NIJ Advanced Generation of Interoperability for Law Enforcement (AGILE) program can be found at <http://www.agileprogram.org>.

8   NIJ. (2000, September). *NIJ Standard - 0115.00, Stab Resistance of Personal Body Armor*.

9   Information on the Interagency Board for Equipment Standardization and Interoperability (IAB) can be found at <www.iab.gov>.

10 Information on the National Fire Protection Association (NFPA) can be found at <http://www.nfpa.org>.

11 Information on the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) can be found at <http://www.cdc.gov/niosh>.

12 Interagency Board for Equipment Standardization and Interoperability (IAB). (2001, April). *Interagency Board for Equipment Standardization and Interoperability 2000 Annual Report*.

13 National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST). (2002, January). *Office of Law Enforcement Standards: Programs, Activities, and Accomplishments (NISTIR 6843)*, U.S. Department of Commerce.

Kathleen M. Higgins began her career in criminal justice and public safety soon after she earned her undergraduate degree in analytical chemistry from the University of Rhode Island. As a freshman toxicologist in the state's Department of Health, she was assigned to analyzing evidence submitted by police detectives, medical examiners, and even the horse racing commission. She found the work challenging, and in the years that followed, she earned a master's degree in forensic chemistry at Northeastern University, did course work at Brown University in the fields of drug abuse and medical-legal autopsies, and cofounded a private forensic laboratory in Boston. She also lectured at the Massachusetts Criminal Justice Training Center and at Northeastern University, where she was made coordinator of the graduate and undergraduate forensic programs.

In the late 1980s, Higgins left the field of forensic science to manage materials-development programs for the U.S. Postal Service Engineering and Development Center, including one that produced the improved papers, inks, and self-sticking adhesives of today's postage stamps. She earned a Meritorious Service Honor Award for her efforts, but criminal justice remained her passion, and in 1994, she accepted an invitation to serve as the Director of the Office of Law Enforcement Standards (OLES) at the National Institute of Standards and Technology.

Under Higgins' leadership, OLES has grown from a handful of programs with a budget of less than $1.1 million to more than 50 active programs and a budget of over $15 million. She has been widely recognized for her efforts. In 2001, NIST's parent agency, the Department of Commerce, awarded her its Silver Medal for Outstanding Achievement, and in 2002, George Washington University honored her with the prestigious Arthur S. Fleming Award for her extraordinary service to the Federal Government and the nation.

Higgins is the author of several forensic science journal articles, a Fellow of the American Academy of Forensic Sciences, Past President of the Massachusetts Chapter of the International Association of Arson Investigators, and a member of several professional organizations, including the ASTM E-30 Committee on Forensic Science, the Mid-Atlantic Association of Forensic Scientists, and the International Association of Chiefs of Police.

Training Correctional Officers in Russia

**Valerij M. Morozov, PhD, Director of Vladimir Juridical Institute,
   Ministry of Justice, Russia**

The job of a correctional officer is difficult and sometimes dangerous. It requires special psychological, physical, and emotional readiness. It is the task of special education institutions to prepare correctional officers to successfully perform their duties.

In Russia, where the prison population is 919,000, specialists in the penitentiary system are in great demand.

The organizational philosophy of education and training for the correctional system in Russia can be seen in the state response to the social and political transformation of the early 1990s. In 1992, Russia's Law on Education (the State Law on Higher Education was finally adopted by the State Duma in the winter of 1996) proclaimed education to be a state priority and outlined the principles of the state's policies on education as the humanistic character of education and the priority of general human values, the unity of the cultural and educational space of the Federation, the accessibility of education to all people, freedom and pluralism in education, and the democratic administration of education and the autonomy of institutions.

The history of the Vladimir Juridical Institute goes back to 1938, when six-month courses for chief correctional officers were opened by the order of NKVD. In 1943, the courses were transformed into a school for detectives and on-duty deputies of correctional chiefs. Later, the profile of the school broadened substantially, and it became the only institution in the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the former USSR to prepare and improve the qualification of all categories of top correctional officers. In 1996, the Institute was granted status as an independent institution of higher education. In 1999, the Institute began to function under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice of Russia.

Several thousand specialists graduated from the Institute during its 65 years of existence. It is important to note that among them, there were representatives of more than 30 nationalities and ethnic groups, who work in all regions of Russia and abroad.

Officers and cadets constantly prove their loyalty to the motherland and performing duty. They heroically fought with fascists during World War II and fulfilled with honor multiple important tasks of the President and the Government of the Russian Federation and in the zones of local conflicts. It is impossible to forget about the participation of Institute personnel in the tragic events in 1991 and 1993 in Moscow, which were most difficult times of building a new state in Russia.

Now, it is the only Institute of higher education in Russia that trains detectives for the penitentiary system. About 3,500 cadets are enrolled currently in the Institute.

In recent years, the standards and process of admission have changed very little, at least formally. Entrance examinations are based on the curricula of secondary (an equivalent of the high school in the United States) school, and students must take both secondary school exit examinations and higher education entrance tests, with a few notable exceptions. Entrance tests for the Institute meet certain standards and are structured around secondary school curricula. Applications regularly exceed spaces available. Admission to the Vladimir Juridical Institute requires applicants to sit for four examinations: one written, two oral, and a physical agility test. The entrance examinations also cover Russian language and literature, Russian history, and the Russian Constitution and Law. In some cases, applicants who complete the secondary school examination with honors are required to take only one admission examination.

The Russian Ministry of Education and the Russian Ministry of Justice are the final arbiters of the curricula for the institution. State standards of education determine the curricula, and the Ministry then lends its approval. The standards are divided into four primary sections, and each has its own set of requirements that must be met. The first constitutes the several disciplines of humanitarian education. These include philosophy, history, political sciences, sociology, etc. The next consists primarily of theory of state and various fields of law and includes subjects such as civil, criminal, and correctional law. The final section of standards is reserved for the specialized coursework required in many disciplines. It can include such courses, as operative-investigative techniques, correctional psychology, forensics, self-defense, etc. Physical training continues throughout the training period. Cadets learn martial arts, self-defense tactics, handcuff procedures, and physical abilities maintenance and development. Each of the four divisions of standards includes optional or elective courses, which may be taught at an individual institution's/department's discretion.

Some fields of study have also seen changes in curricula recently. In legal training, for instance, attempts were undertaken to develop young correctional officers versed in Western legal codes who understand the concepts and foundations of common law and will be able to weigh the rights of the individual against the needs of society.

A new system of degrees was introduced in the early 1990s in many institutes that is similar to those in the United States. The first level is a four-year program leading, upon passing final examinations and assessments, to a bachelor's degree.

The duration of training and education is four years. The academic calendar in Vladimir Juridical institute consists of two semesters per year of five and a half months each, beginning September 1; however, several weeks are set aside each semester for examinations (far more than in western institutions). The student workload is heavy, involving up to 40 hours of class contact per week. Cadets have two vacation times a year: (1) two weeks in February and (2) one-month vacation in August. Cadets also have two internships during their studies. The location of internships is chosen according to the future specialty of a cadet. Usually, it is local

police department, jail, or prison. The first internship takes place in the middle of the third year and continues for two or three weeks. The second internship takes place in the middle of the last semester for three months.

Instructional patterns are similar to those in the United States, with special emphasis placed on seminars at the graduate and advanced undergraduate levels. Student ratings of teachers are common. The innovative approaches place stress on tutorials and individual supervision of student projects. Traditionally, only oral examinations were administered, but most instructors now use a combination of written and oral examinations.

There are two main faculty ranks: (1) professor (professora) and (2) a title roughly equivalent to associate professor (dotsenta). There are 87 PhDs and 18 professors at Vladimir Juridical Institute. The question of tenure does not apply since all faculty have permanent appointments and may be dismissed only for cause. Faculty selection is similar to that in America in that the position is advertised and the Scientific Council makes selections from those who apply.

The Scientific Council of the Institute coordinates functioning of the departments. Council consists of top managers of the Institute, academics with master's, and PhD degrees. Scientific Council is in charge of organization of the study process, scientific and research activity, and dissertation theme approval. The Methodical Council of the Institute is responsible for the questions of methodical provision of the educational process, improvement of its organization, and increase of the cadet's level of knowledge. The most experienced instructors are members of this council.

Outside consulting has been possible, and many faculty members engage in consulting or other part-time work, particularly teaching now that private institutions of higher education are being established.

Vladimir Juridical Institute designed the training program with two specialties: (1) operative-investigative and (2) criminal correctional.

At the beginning of training, cadets will be introduced to the so-called "course of a young fighter." It is a quite vigorous four-week training, which aims to strengthen physical and moral qualities of the rookies. It also allows the Institute to eliminate those who fail to comply with the established requirements. It is an analogue of the survival course in American military.

Practical training plays a vital part in the learning process. Role-plays based on real scenarios are widely used during the training. Usually, they follow every theoretical lecture so that the instructor can be sure that cadets and students understand the concept and are able to use it in real life.

Cadets and students make several visits to the jails and prisons during their course of study. There can be different assignments for them. For example, to make cadets familiar with methods and ways of establishing contacts with inmates, each cadet can be assigned to an inmate. He or she would try to communicate with the inmate and obtain information on the nature of the offence. Back in the classroom, cadets would share information and compare it with the official records. This kind of

experience serves as an orientation lesson to the psychology of the relationship between wardens and inmates.

It is important to take into consideration and to incorporate the latest trends in the penitentiary system into the curriculum. Vladimir Juridical Institute maintains strong ties with the correctional institutions. Students have a unique chance to listen to the lectures by practitioners, who have dozens of years of experience in the field. They make students familiar with the real world, with the difficulties and problems they might encounter during their first years on the job and how to eliminate them. These lectures are popular among cadets because they understand that they will rarely have the luxury, as a professional on the job, to speak for hours about the interested subject.

Another trend is globalization, which had positive and negative implications for society, and it influenced penitentiary system as well. The ratio of foreigners in the prisons has increased.

With criminals traveling freely around the world, a necessity of law enforcement cooperation became obvious. International entities were created in order to enhance cooperation and share useful information. The Vladimir Juridical Institute has successful exchange programs with the United States and Germany. Leading instructors are being sent abroad to study and give presentations on Russian organized crime, which is spreading quickly to the United States and Europe.

In recent years, Vladimir Juridical Institute has been forced to adopt nontraditional approaches to correctional training an education. In a free market economy society that demands flexibility in thinking and ever-increasing skills of its law enforcement forces, Vladimir Juridical Institute has begun the process of reworking curricula and even teaching methods to meet the current needs. The Ministry of Justice of Russia has made some attempts at setting standards and projecting correctional institutions' needs. For the last several years, Vladimir Juridical Institute has done substantial work in improving methods of education and incorporating new advanced pedagogical and computer technologies in the training process. It got positive results using the method of evaluating cadets' and students' performance by keeping track of grades and using rating systems. Traditions of excellence and success reside in Vladimir Juridical Institute, and combined with the enormous quantity and quality of human capital, Russia's correctional officers training system could be perhaps the most celebrated and accomplished system ever witnessed.

Valerij M. Morozov earned his PhD in sociology from Yaroslavl State University in 1999. He has written six books and 69 articles. He is an acting member of the Academy of Defense, Security and Russian Law Enforcement Federation.

The Ethics of Police Deadly Force Decisions After *Garner v. Tennessee*

Richard R. E. Kania, University of North Carolina, Pembroke

Introduction

After the 1985 U.S. Supreme Court decision in the case of *Garner v. Tennessee*, those states with fleeing felon rules governing the police use of deadly force had to adopt more restrictive policies on the police use of deadly force. In the language of the court's ruling, a police officer may use lethal force when, ". . . it is necessary to prevent the escape and the officer has probable cause to believe that the suspect poses a significant threat of death or serious physical injury to the officer or others" (*Garner v. Tennessee*, 1985; Hall, 1988a, 1988b). In the years since the decision, it has been assumed that this change in federal case law brought about a significant decline in the frequency of police killings of citizens. Indeed, soon after the decision was announced, the number of shootings was reported to have declined (Police Shootings, 1986). This has led to the belief that earlier, less restrictive police shooting policies, which were invalidated by this Supreme Court ruling, had been a major factor in accounting for the high frequency of police-inflicted homicides prior to 1985 and that the ruling "would alter law enforcement practices nationwide" (Walker, 1996, p. 146).

Yet a state-by-state before-and-after examination of changes in the numbers of police-inflicted homicides does not bear this assumption out. The decline in citizens killed by the police has been consistent with a trend in reduced use of deadly force by law enforcement officers, which predated the *Garner* decision. Indeed, those states already operating under a *Garner*-like statute or similar case law standards experienced a greater decline in police-inflicted deaths than those that were compelled to change policy or law to reflect the decision.

If the *Garner* decision itself does not account for the change in use of deadly force, then what does? This author believes that police training, both on firearms safety and on ethical instruction produced a growing ethical awareness on the part of police officers and police managers. It is a potential explanatory variable in accounting for the changes both before and after the *Garner* decision.

What the Data Reveals

Potentially, state-by-state comparisons of police-inflicted deaths have been available for many decades through the *Vital Statistics of the United States* or FBI data, yet the first study to make any use of such comparative statistics did not appear until 1977 (Kania & Mackey). It demonstrated convincingly that the frequency of police-inflicted homicides reported in the *Vital Statistics* varied widely from one state to another. That study concluded that the level of violence existing within the community best accounted for the frequency with which police employed lethal force. Key components in support of this hypothesis were the FBI's *Uniform Crime Reports* (UCRs) and the mortality volumes of the *Vital Statistics*; however, both data sets have serious methodological flaws. There may be as much

as a 50% under-reporting error factor in the police-inflicted homicides data of the *Vital Statistics* (Sherman, 1980; Sherman & Langworthy, 1979). There also are doubts about the reliability of FBI data that relies upon local police agencies for voluntary reports of their deadly force cases. The statistical databases were appropriately criticized for their imperfections, but they were the best data available at that time to address the questions raised in the article. It is worth noting that the most commonly cited flaws in these data sets are most likely to introduce random errors to the correlations and would serve only to weaken the strength of the correlations. The leading critics of these data, Sherman and Langworthy (1979), concluded that this data was adequate for correlational research, such as that done by Kania and Mackey, even with their obvious and well-known flaws (p. 559). Thus, this current examination of the issues first employs the 1977 Kania and Mackey methodology.

Other studies have since demonstrated that the level of violence in an area accounted for substantial variations in police-inflicted homicides and nonlethal shootings, what is now referred to as either the "community violence hypothesis" (Alpert & MacDonald, 2001, p. 406) or "the danger-perception theory" (McDonald, Kaminski, Alpert, & Tennenbaum, 2001). Fyfe (1980) identified a similar public-violence to police-violence correlation with urban precinct crime and police shooting data from New York City. Subsequently, Horvath's (1987) intrastate comparisons of 1976-1981 Michigan shooting incidents revealed that police within the same state had different shooting practices according to the region in which they served. More recently, Lester (1993) reconsidered regional correlates with police-inflicted homicides and confirmed the strength of the original Kania and Mackey correlation with the general homicide rate. Alpert and MacDonald (2001) found that the level of community violence was one of the two major explanatory variables in rates of police use of force, organizational policy factors being the other (p. 406).

Replicating the 1977 Kania and Mackey study has proven difficult (Kania & Mackey, 1993). Several unfortunate changes in the maintenance of *Vital Statistics* data have occurred since the closing date of the original study. An experiment in 50% sampling of source data (death certificates) for 1972 makes that year's data unsuitable for incorporation with previous and subsequent years. More problematic was the decision to stop publishing state-by-state data for police-inflicted homicides after 1978. These are still collected and compiled by the National Center for Health Statistics but are not available to the general public or even interested researchers without considerable cost, effort, and coordination with NCHS staff. The health statistics are incomplete for several reasons and difficult to use (Bailey, 1996, p. 538). Ultimately, to continue this research, it was necessary to acquire all mortality data for the nation between 1968 and 1985, over 14 million cases, and then do computer searches for the relatively few police lethal force codings.

Much has been done to improve the UCRs after 1970, when the first Kania and Mackey data set ceases. State reporting levels are much higher, and standards also have risen in the years since. Furthermore, additional unpublished UCR data is computer accessible, allowing interested researchers access to data on police reports of suspects killed by law enforcement officers, state-by-state, for the last decade. Called the Supplemental Homicide Reports (SHR), this data provides more detailed information on justifiable homicides by police (Bailey, 1996, pp. 538-539).

Provided these data, the author has a second means of checking on the changes that the *Garner* decision may, or may not have, brought about.

When the U.S. Supreme Court accepted 4th Amendment arguments to restrict police use of lethal force in the *Garner v. Tennessee* case, it was a major historical event in shaping police lethal force policy; however, even before *Garner*, many progressive police agencies and several states had employed *Garner*-like standards to regulate their police, and the FBI was advising caution in following the common law standard (Hall, 1984, pp. 30-31). The original law suit, *Garner v. Memphis Police Department*, was upheld on appeal by the federal 6th Circuit Court of Appeals in 1983, and this decision was publicized in law enforcement circles by *Police Chief* (IACP, 1983) and other publications. Fyfe (1988) notes that the decision was preceded by policy changes anticipating such a ruling, and "virtually all major police departments had adopted their own administrative policies that were at least as restrictive as the violent felon rule propounded by the Supreme Court" (p. 199). So, it may be that the final *Garner* decision followed, rather than created nation-wide uniformity in this policy area. Geller and Scott (1992) sum up a 1989 study by Walker and Fridell (1992), which found only about a third of the largest 100 police departments needed to change their policies to conform to the ruling:

> Given the belief of some experts that hardly any departments serving urban communities were still permitting officers to fire at nonviolent fleeing suspects as of the mid-1980s, this finding underscores the significance of the Supreme Court's decision. Moreover, the *Garner* ruling had a confirming power—an effect in bolstering the direction of deadly force police and practice reform in most jurisdictions in the nation. (p. 256)

Those states and major cities that had *Garner*-like policies or laws prior to the decision had been identified and compared with those states still retaining some form of the general fleeing felon rule just prior to the ruling (Matulia, 1982; Mays & Taggart, 1985). Matulia's study revealed that cities in states operating under the Model Penal Code guidelines had the lowest justifiable homicide rates (p. 21). Because the *Garner* decision moved all states toward these guidelines, it was supposed that the greatest change in police lethal-force practices soon after 1985 would have occurred in the common-law states that were required to give up their general fleeing felon rules in favor of the stricter *Garner* requirements. Yet, the data does not support this assumption.

For this analysis, the states are divided into two groups, those most affected by *Garner* and those already like *Garner* prior to the ruling. As Mays and Taggart (1985) note, the Modified Common Law and Model Penal Code categories are quite similar, restricting shootings to conditions similar to those permitted in the later *Garner* ruling. Mays and Taggart join the Common Law and Court Precedent states based on Matulia's (1982) comment that "the majority tend toward upholding common law guidelines" (p. 20).

Table 1
Pre-1985 State Laws vis-a-vis Fleeing-Felon Rules

Fleeing-Felon Rules		*Garner*-Like Rules	
Common Law Rule	Court Precedent	Model Penal Code	Modified Code
Alaska	Alabama	Arkansas	Delaware
Arizona	Maryland	Georgia	Hawaii
California	Massachusetts	Illinois	Kentucky
Colorado	Michigan	Louisiana	Maine
Connecticut	Ohio	Minnesota	Nebraska
Florida	Virginia	New Jersey	North Carolina
Idaho	West Virginia	New York	Texas
Indiana	Wyoming	North Dakota	
Iowa		Oregon	
Kansas	Washington, DC	Pennsylvania	
Mississippi		South Carolina	
Missouri		Utah	
Montana		Vermont	
Nevada			
New Hampshire			
New Mexico			
Oklahoma			
Rhode Island			
South Dakota			
Tennessee			
Washington			
Wisconsin			

Data taken from Matulia (1982, pp. 15-21), as amended with a correction from *Police Chief*, February 1984, p. 14.

Much of the attention given to this issue has focused on the matter of policy changes aimed at reducing police-inflicted homicides. Prior to the *Garner* decision, Sherman (1979) was studying the effects of departmental policies on police shooting statistics, and Fyfe (1981) proposed 13 specific policy guidelines to achieve such a reduction (p. 388). In articles since the decision, the commonly held belief is that the more restrictive rules have made a difference for the better. As Fyfe (1988) says it, . . .

> On balance, and even though the available data are skimpier than we would like, it appears that the frequency of police use of force is influenced heavily by organizational philosophies, expectations, and policies; that levels of community violence are marginal predictors, useful chiefly when organizational variables may be held constant (as in studying a single police jurisdiction); and that variations in law play a role in determining frequency of deadly force only when administrators abdicate their responsibility to see that propriety is not limited only by statutory definitions of criminal assault and homicide. (p. 99)

While Fyfe's remarks and the Matulia study suggest that policies have a significant impact on reducing the frequency of police-inflicted homicides, Mays and Taggart's study does not. They were unable to find the effects of policy in their comparison of police policies in 122 cities and rates of use of deadly force (1985, pp. 315-316). Mays and Taggart remark that when, "Controlling for state legal guidelines, no significant relationships were detected except in regard to departmental educational levels (p. 316). In addition, Mays and Taggart observe, "Departments may have developed deadly force policies because of perceived need, or these policies may have been developed reluctantly in response to political or community pressures" (p. 316). This differs from Kania and Mackey's (1977) view: "Thus the police officer is reacting to the community as he perceives it, a perception which is usually correct" (p. 46). In contrast to this perspective, Mays and Taggart view the agency, rather than the individual officer, as the generator of the perception. That same viewpoint also appears in the Alpert and MacDonald study (2001), but in that study, organizational policies and data collection efforts produce mixed results in terms of use of force.

Individual officers, exercising personal discretion related to policy guidelines, actually make these shoot/don't shoot decisions (Pollock, 1998). The importance of such individual decisions is borne out in a post-*Garner* study of nonlethal force situations in Savannah, Georgia (McLaughlin, 1992). In that study, it was documented that police in Savannah use far less deadly force than the letter of the *Garner* decision, state law, or formal policy would permit (p. 77). Other studies since have examined both lethal and nonlethal force, acknowledging serious problems in doing so (Pate & Fridell, 1995), but also showing that the use of force continuum functions much as McLaughlin found, with police using lethal force rarely, even in cases when permissible under *Garner*-rules (Garner, Schade, Hepburn, & Buchanan, 1995; Klinger, 1995). The Garner team also placed their emphasis on individual officer perceptions, finding some variability in their sample taken within a single police department. Thus, the value of the *Garner*-based policy alone as the causal factor in reducing citizen deaths cannot be predicted with confidence based on these contradictory analyses.

If the great state-to-state variation which Kania and Mackey (1977) previously discovered was the product of police policy shaped by case law (Fyfe's position), rather than street-level police reactions to their experiences with public violence (Kania and Mackey's thesis, as supported by Lester, 1993), then the wide variations from state to state they observed in 1977 should be replaced after 1985 with a more uniform level of police-inflicted homicides across the nation. If the variation continues to be significant and dependent upon police perceptions related to exposure to public levels of violence, then the original Kania and Mackey thesis retains its validity.

Many local jurisdictions were adopting policies anticipating the *Garner* decision, following the recommendations of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) or the even more restrictive policy recommendations of the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies (CALEA) (Geller & Scott, 1992). The data from the late 1970s, therefore, should reflect state law and traditional common law practices far better.

Table 2

Deaths by Legal Interventions: 1986-1989 in States Having Fleeing-Felon-Like Rules (N = 31) Versus States Having *Garner*-Like Rules (N = 20) Prior to 1985. Data from National Centers for Health Statistics, Table III. "Deaths from 282 Selected Causes" (9th Revision Codes E970-E977).

Fleeing-Felon-Like Rule States					*Garner*-Like Rule States					
State	1986	1987	1988	1989	Sum	State	1986	1987	1988	1989	Sum
AL	2	2	2	4	10	AR	1	2	1	3	7
AK	1	0	0	2	3	DE	0	0	0	1	1
AZ	5	10	8	13	36	GA	6	8	9	10	33
CA	46	63	46	74	229	HI	0	1	0	0	1
CO	5	8	8	6	27	IL	8	14	6	7	35
CT	4	1	2	2	9	KY	1	4	3	4	12
DC	7	4	1	3	15	LA	5	5	2	5	17
FL	13	12	7	16	48	ME	0	0	0	0	0
ID	0	2	1	0	3	MN	0	1	0	4	5
IN	4	3	2	9	18	NE	0	1	0	1	2
IA	0	1	1	2	4	NJ	8	7	11	9	35
KS	1	3	1	4	9	NY	18	13	8	14	53
MD	1	11	8	7	27	NC	5	3	4	5	17
MA	4	2	5	1	12	ND	0	0	1	0	1
MI	13	4	10	4	31	OR	0	7	8	4	19
MS	3	5	4	3	15	PA	5	5	7	5	22
MO	2	5	2	6	15	SC	2	1	1	1	5
MT	0	1	1	2	4	TX	26	10	20	24	80
NV	7	4	7	6	24	UT	0	2	0	3	5
NH	0	2	0	1	3	VT	0	0	0	0	0
NM	8	3	3	5	19						
OH	12	9	13	7	41						
OK	10	5	3	8	26						
RI	1	0	1	3	5						
SD	0	0	0	0	0						
TN	3	6	3	3	15						
VA	7	9	6	16	38	Total Deaths for the USA in Both					
WA	3	5	5	4	17	*Garner*-Like and Common Law States					
WV	3	1	3	1	8						
WI	2	0	2	3	7		1986	1987	1988	1989	Sum
WY	0	0	1	0	1	USA	252	265	237	315	1068

Data Analysis

The NCHS data was converted into a population-based rate. With 12 years of pre-*Garner* data and four years of post-*Garner* data, a rate per year was then computed to achieve the correlations employed in this study. Adjusting the above data into these population-based rates of police-inflicted homicides per year, we derived the average annual values for the states. Data on the District of Columbia was computed, and statistical tests were run both with and without DC in the calculations because DC essentially is a city measured against states. Later we also computed our post-*Garner* data with the original 1961-1970 data on police-inflicted killings used by Kania and Mackey (1977), also adjusted into a one-year average for each state (p. 31).

Distinguishing between states directly governed by the *Garner* ruling and those that already had laws compatible with the ruling, using the criteria employed

by Mays and Taggart (1985), we computed before-and-after comparisons. Thirty states and the District of Columbia had some form of the traditional fleeing-felon rule prior to 1985, while 20 had either Model Penal Code or more restrictive modified common law rules similar to the *Garner* decision (see Table 1) (Matulia, 1982, pp. 15-21; *Police Chief*, 1984, p. 14). We also subdivided the original Kania and Mackey (1977) data into these same two sets of states.

For the 1961-1970 data reported by Kania and Mackey (1977), there was no significant difference in police-inflicted killings between the fleeing-felon states and the *Garner*-like states (t = 0.38, df = 48; p >.05, two-tailed). For the 1974-1985 data, there were significant differences (t = 2.22, df = 48; p <.05, two-tailed).

This demonstrates that patterns of police-inflicted killings were not significantly different in the 1960s and 1970s, some years before the Supreme Court ruling, but the two groups of states became more unlike as the decision-date approached. Surprising as this fact is, nevertheless, if there are any major post-*Garner* influences, this unexpected late-arising distinction between the two groups of states prior to the ruling will highlight post-ruling changes. That is, after the *Garner* decision, there should be far less separation between the two groups of states if the change in case law is significant, as flee-felon-rule states become more like the other 20 states.

Yet, the two groups of states have remained distinct in the four years after the decision. This distinction is in evidence in a significant variance in the respective means (0.708 for *Garner*-like states vs. 1.273 for former fleeing-felon rule states). Police-inflicted killings declined in both groups of states, but the 20 states with more restrictive laws also experienced a statistically significant decline in means of their police-inflicted homicides after the decision (N = 20, t = 2.77, df = 18; p <.05, one-tailed).

The same pattern appears in the UCR data provided by the FBI from unpublished data tapes (see Table 3). The former fleeing-felon-rule states had 1386 reported police-inflicted homicides in the six years preceding and including the year of the ruling (1980-1985), and 1331 in the six years following (1986-1991), a statistically insignificant decline of only 4%. The quality of these data are dependent upon cooperation of the states and localities in making full reports on such homicides. After 1987, Florida, a major source of police-inflicted homicides, ceased to report altogether. When the problematic Florida data is extracted from both the before and after data, there is an increase of 7.5%, from 1192 to 1281 (N = 29, t = 1.25, df = 27; p>.05, Florida excluded and DC). In the NCHS data, however, the restrictive states showed a dramatic decline in the years following the *Garner* decision. The FBI data for those states dropped from 868 to 688, a drop of 20.7%. As before, the decline in means is slight but statistically significant (N = 20, t = 1.96, df = 18; p <.05, one-tailed).

It is difficult to theorize why the states that did not need to change policies in response to the court decision showed a greater and statistically significant down turn in police-inflicted killings after the decision, while those that had to change to conform to the new federal case law did not show as large of a decline, but several plausible explanations exist.

Recalling Fyfe's (1988) remarks quoted previously, ". . . that variations in law play a role in determining frequency of deadly force only when administrators abdicate their responsibility to see that propriety is not limited only by statutory

definitions of criminal assault and homicide" (p. 199), one might assume that the administrators of police agencies in the former fleeing-felon rule states were exerting more control in spite of the license granted under their permissive state laws, while those in the *Garner*-like states were more permissive, relying upon their state laws. Certainly, there are cases to document this, most notably, Kansas City, Missouri, which in 1973 formulated a restrictive policy in a common-law-rule state. There are, however, significant exceptions to this explanation: New York City, Chicago, and Atlanta, each enforcing very restrictive policies in states already under *Garner*-like rules (Geller & Scott, 1992, p. 254).

Table 3
State-Comparisons by Shooting Rules for Police-Inflicted Shootings Reported to the FBI Before and After the *Garner* Ruling

Police-Shootings in Fleeing-Felon-Rule States			Police-Shootings in Restrictive-Rule States		
State	Pre-*Garner*	Post-*Garner*	State	Pre-*Garner*	Post-*Garner*
AL	31	17	AR	16	14
AK	2	3	DE	5	2
AZ	16	14	GA	33	48
CA	465	672	HI	3	5
CO	37	40	IL	103	63
CT	10	7	KY	15	8
DC	23	18	LA	65	29
FL*	194	0	ME	3	0
ID	3	2	MN	16	7
IN	25	14	NE	8	4
IA	10	3	NJ	52	63
KS	23	5	NY	186	154
MD	57	66	NC	21	18
MA	23	4	ND	1	1
MI	101	80	OR	16	38
MS	20	18	PA	69	43
MO	42	37	SC	22	10
MT	0	1	TX	229	178
NV	17	25	UT	4	2
NH	5	2	VT	1	1
NM	14	24	Total	868	688
OH	76	51			
OK	67	37			
RI	4	1			
SD	1	1			
TN	46	38			
VA	41	45			
WA	22	28			
WV	5	8			
WI	20	17			
WY	2	3			
Total	1386	1331			
Total **	**1192	**1281			

* Florida ceased reporting this data to the FBI after 1987, and Florida data is not used in the before-and-after comparisons.

	Pre-*Garner*	Post-*Garner*
U.S. Total	2254/**2060	**2019

** Florida data excluded.

Table 4
Analytic Statistics on the Impact of the *Garner* Decision

	Former Fleeing-Felon-Rule States, N = 30*	Prior *Garner*-Like Rule States, N = 20	State Differences T-Test Scores
Pre-*Garner* Statistics			
UCR Means	1.241	1.023	1.005 (n.s.)
NCHS Means	1.668	1.167	2.220 (p <.05)
Post-*Garner* Statistics			
UCR Means	1.110	0.784	1.372 (n.s.)
NCHS Means	1.273	0.708	2.501 (p <.05)
Time Differences	2.933 (p <.01)	3.699 (p <.01)	
T-Test Scores	1.250 (n.s.)	1.956 (p <.05)	

* Florida ceased reporting this data to the FBI after 1987, and Florida data is not used in the UCR before-and-after comparisons.

Alternatively, it could be that the *Garner*-like states were more progressive then, and remain even more progressive now, further restricting police shooting policies, as if encouraged by the *Garner* decision to be even more restrictive. Indeed, the remarks by Geller and Scott (1992) quoted above support such an interpretation. Furthermore, the Geller and Scott study clearly documents that even more restrictive policies, such as those long in use by the FBI and those recommended by CALEA advocating an "immediate danger" or "imminent risk" standard, are being proposed by progressive police executives. Similar reform policies have been advocated by the National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE) and the Police Foundation. Such is the view implicit in Geller and Scott's Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) study.

While such interpretations dismiss the impact of the *Garner* decision, they do accentuate the importance of agency policy on reducing lethal force incidents. So should we accept that policy outweighs community influences, especially the levels of community violence? Is it as Fyfe assumed, "that levels of community violence are marginal predictors," or does the level of community violence still account for the greater part of the variation among the states in their use of deadly force? Using the 1987 UCR rates of violent crime (selected to fit within the 1985-1989 time-span of the decision itself and the immediate post-*Garner* period), we find that the level of violent crime indeed is a much stronger predictor than the *Garner* decision. The level of violent crime accounts for 13.4% of the variance among the states (N = 50, Pearson's rho = .3617; p <.05) in the post-*Garner* period. Whatever impact police policy has, the influence of responding to known community violence remains quite significant.

Ethical Principles

Police use of lethal force appears to be a socially controlled variable with the level of community violence, law, organizational police, and the individual perceptions of officers all bearing upon it. It has been a major topic of ethical discourse far before the *Garner* decision. Cadets in police academies and college students

considering careers in law enforcement have been receiving progressively more ethical instruction in their studies over the years. The authors of applied ethics texts discuss the ethics of using deadly force, typically calling on students to reflect on the morality of taking human lives in pursuit of lawful police objectives (Close and Meier, 1995; Delattre, 1989), but surprisingly, some ethicists pay the topic relatively little attention (Pollock, 1998; Souryal, 1998).

When new officers are given their first assignments, they encounter the pragmatic street-wise morality of veteran officers. These veteran voices often focus on the threats and risks to police officers raised by the criminally inclined citizens. They often promote a subterranean set of values that counter the values taught at the academy or contained in official policies (Pollock, 1998). In many agencies, the emphasis on risk is so great that an ethic of preemptive force has emerged, calling on officers "to shoot first and ask questions later." The related cliché of "better to be tried before twelve than to be carried by six" is another expression of that perspective (Waegel, 1984), as is the tragic shooting of Amadou Diallo in a New York City doorway in February 1999.

But a counter-ethic also has emerged in the last 30 years, one which calls on officers to be reflective and employ the minimal amount of force required to achieve the lawful police objectives. This is the ethical principle that explains McLaughlin's discoveries in Savannah, the ethic principle which may therefore explain the reduction in police-inflicted homicides in the years preceding the *Garner* decision.

It has been the hope of the advocates of ethical instruction that police officers trained in ethics would modify their behavior, and this in turn would lead to fewer ethical crises in policing (Jones & Carlson, 2001)—that policing would acquire a "soul" (Souryal, 1998, pp. 321-322). In that quest, Lawrence Sherman (1982) cited eight aims for ethics in criminal justice education:

1. Stimulating moral imagination
2. Recognizing ethical issues
3. Developing analytical skills
4. Eliciting moral obligation and personal responsibility
5. Learning to deal with moral disagreement and ambiguity
6. Dealing with the moral questions of using coercion
7. Integrating technical and moral competence
8. Learning the moral issues of criminal justice

Egon Bittner's discussion of non-negotiable force served the first aim well and ought to be read by every serious student of police ethics. Certainly, learning the appropriate application of lethal force falls within the second and eighth of these eight aims. The fourth and sixth aims are squarely related to the deadly force issue. Knowing the law on the use of force is part of the technical competence of policing; tempering the letter of the law with human compassion requires moral competence (Muir, 1977, p. 24). It is not unreasonable to believe that ethical instruction has played a role, along with legal changes and policy formulation, in the reduction of police use of deadly force.

Summation

While police-inflicted homicides declined immediately after the *Garner* decision, they already were in decline in the years leading up to the decision; the decline was greatest in those states already governed by laws that anticipated the *Garner* decision. The states compelled to abandon their traditional fleeing-felon rule standards did not experience a comparable decline in post-*Garner* police-inflicted homicides. The fact that such an extremely significant change in case-law-driven policy resulted in so slight a subsequent alteration in actual police practices supports the 1977 Kania and Mackey focus on situation-based individual decision-making, further reinforced by Lester's 1993 data analysis, that it is the police working environment that exerts the greater influence on police use of deadly force. If so, then the police may not have been as guilty of using excessive lethal force prior to *Garner* as has so long been supposed. Some part of that decline may be attributed to growing ethical awareness among police officers.

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Attaining the Certification of Integrity

Neal Trautman, PhD, Chairman, National Commission on Law Enforcement Integrity; Executive Director, National Institute of Ethics; President, International Association of Ethics Trainers

The National Institute of Ethics, the nation's largest provider of law enforcement and corrections ethics training made the Certification of Integrity program available in 1998. Although certification is available to any workplace, the first three organizations were law enforcement agencies. Each agency met the six certification standards and became the first law enforcement agencies in the world to literally be Certified in Integrity.

The institute is a Congressional Award-winning, 501(c)(3) nonprofit organization. As the world's largest provider of ethics training for law enforcement and corrections, the institute is the sole provider for virtually all of its seminars, ethics-related audio- and videotapes, integrity processes, computer software, certification procedures, and groundbreaking research.

In August, 1998, the 667 employee Seminole County Sheriff's Office in Sanford, Florida became the first law enforcement agency in American history to be "Certified in Integrity." The Carnegie Mellon University Police Department in Pittsburgh, became the second in September 1998. The Lake Mead Recreation Area Federal Park Rangers near Hoover Dam became the third agency, as they were certified in November 1998. Both Carnegie Mellon and Lake Mead Recreation Area have approximately 40 employees.

As of July 2002, agencies either having completed or completing the certification process include the following:

Agencies Having Completed Certification

- Seminole County Sheriff's Office, Sanford, FL
- Carnegie Mellon University Police Department, Pittsburgh, PA
- Lake Mead Recreation Area Federal Park Rangers, Sparks, NV
- Pittsburgh Police Department, Pittsburgh, PA
- LaGrange Police Department, LaGrange, GA
- Police Corps Academy, University of Southern Mississippi, Hattiesburg, MS
- Kalamazoo Department of Public Safety, Kalamazoo, MI
- Auburn Police Department, Auburn, ME
- Libby Police Department, Libby, MT

Agencies Completing Certification

- Clarksville Police Department, Clarksville, TN
- Wackenhut Protective Services, Savannah River Site, Law Enforcement Division, Aiken, SC
- Billings Police Department, Billings, MT
- Cordele Police Department, Cordele, GA
- Waukesha Law Enforcement Academy, Waukesha Technical College, Pewaukee, WI

- University of Illinois at Chicago Police Department, Chicago, IL
- Federal Protective Agency, Southeast Region, General Services Administration, U.S. Government
- Schenectady Police Department, Schenectady, NY
- Northfield Police Department, Northfield, MN
- Boulder City Police Department, Boulder, NV

The certification standards that must be met are as follows:

1. Develop a three-year integrity plan.
2. Conduct integrity training.
3. Adopt an Oath of Honor, and have all employees sign it annually.
4. Implement an awards and intervention system (early warning system).
5. Statistically track integrity effectiveness.
6. Maintain annual documentation.

Standard One – Develop a Three-Year Integrity Plan

The initial task of being certified and a crucial component of developing the three-year integrity plan is to conduct an accurate integrity needs assessment. Referring to the assessment, Chief Jim LaPaglia of the Carnegie Mellon University Police Department noted, "I would highly recommend other departments take advantage of this, as it assures employee understanding of department policies that are most violated and serves as a review of high liability areas."

After conducting the integrity needs assessment, organizations are able to identify the most significant integrity-related needs. The greatest needs are transposed into goals, which comprise the Integrity Plan.

Standard Two – Conduct Integrity Training

There are three overall requirements for meeting the integrity training standard:

1. First, the ethical perspective(s) for every topic instructed within the organization must be addressed, preferably during the first few minutes of the class.

2. Second, employees receive state-of-the-art ethical dilemma simulation training. This training must use audio or video dilemmas that anchor an ethical decision-making process into the long-term memory of participants.

3. The last requirement is that employees receive institute-approved, "career survival" training, commonly referred to as ethics training. The number of employees determines the amount of training. With 667 employees, the training mandate for the Seminole County Sheriff's Office included two integrity leadership seminars and two advanced FTO seminars.

The Lake Mead Recreation Area Federal Park Rangers, conducted a two-day integrity leadership course and hosted an Ethics Instructor Certification Seminar, allowing several employees to become certified as ethics instructors.

Having one or more officers complete the Institute's Ethics Instructor Certification Seminar permitted the Lake Mead Recreation Area Federal Park Rangers to conduct their own internal training. Departments with less than 25 officers can do the same, eliminating the need to have the institute provide the training.

Standard Three – Employees Sign an Oath of Honor

Standard three mandates that an Oath of Honor be formally adopted and signed by every employee each year. Although it is optional that the institute's oath be adopted, it states . . .

> Honor, integrity and respect shall never be betrayed. I will always have the courage to hold myself and others accountable for having the courage to do the right thing.

The signed Oath of Honor is placed in a display case in the lobby or another prominent area.

Standard Four – Implement an Awards and Intervention System (Early Warning System)

A system that accurately tracks statistics that indicate the agency should intervene to provide positive recognition and appreciation for an employee must be implemented. The process must also analyze data that will reveal indications that an employee would benefit from the organization intervening to providing some form of assistance. The system may be manually tracked or maintained through the institute's Awards and Intervention Program computer software. The types of statistics tracked include citizen compliments, citizen complaints, use of force, internal commendations, resisting arrests, and overtime use.

Standard Five – Statistically Track Integrity Effectiveness

The same statistics tracked as part of the Awards and Intervention Program are constantly tracked.

Standard Six – Maintain Annual Documentation

The data collected through the Awards and Intervention Program is sent to the institute each January. The institute will analyze the data and provide the chief administrator with an executive summary of the conclusions. Any substantial integrity-related needs are addressed before the annual recertification is bestowed.

Neal Trautman, PhD, was a founder of the Law Enforcement Television Network (LETN). He received his BS and MS degrees from Rollins College (FL). His doctorate course work was conducted at the University of Central Florida and the University of Miami. His dissertation was fulfilled at St. John's University.

During his 16-year "sworn" career at the Winter Park, Florida Police Department and the Orlando State Attorney's Office, he was bestowed awards for heroism, officer of the year, meritorious duty, police excellence, and runner-up for county officer of the year. He was also nominated for national officer of the year.

Neal has authored ten published textbooks and eight seminar manuals, in addition to being the researcher for extensive studies of serious police misconduct and the code of silence. He has instructed over 600 ethics seminars and was bestowed the ASLET, Joseph Boyd Award for Service to Society. Neal also walked alone, from St. Augustine, FL, to Washington, DC, to attempt to start a national movement to enhance integrity.

He was the chair of the IACP Ad Hoc Ethics Training Sub-Committee, chair of the ASLET Ethics Committee, co-chair of the IACP Police Image and Ethics Committee, and chair of the ASLET Professional Development Committee.

Currently he is the commission chairman of the National Commission on Law Enforcement Integrity, the Executive Director of the National Institute of Ethics, and the president of the International Association of Ethics Trainers.

Police Suicide

Terence Lynn, Bay State College and Western New England College

Introduction

The issue of police stress, substance abuse, and suicide has only recently started to gain notoriety and public attention. While no one profession or group of people is exempt from these three issues, the police profession is being plagued in pandemic proportion compared to other occupations. As policing begins a new era in the 21st century, so too is the issue of police suicide.

Among the myriad of reasons, the majority of the fault lies in both the public's perception of police work and police officers themselves. In the Boston area alone, the two major tabloids and all the major networks have focused on the many recent egregious cases of malfeasance being conducted by New England police agencies.

Crimes by police officers include domestic assault, murder, corruption, and heroin smuggling. The media reports these violations of public trust and integrity. Police administrations scramble to do "damage control." As a result, officers get burned out and drunk, and unfortunately, some commit suicide.

But what of these officers? Are they not also human beings? Are they not subject to the same addictions and afflictions as their civilian counterparts?

It appears that the general populace has managed to void the men and women in blue of any and all human characteristics, be they good or bad. Society has deemed that these officers are faceless monsters wearing a badge and gun, void of any emotional response or breakdown. It is this negative public image that is also a contributing factor in police suicide.

Every day in this country, a person commits suicide. Yet, when that person happens to be a police officer, reactions vary from "poor guy" to "one less cop." The truth is that police officers are living, caring, and compassionate human beings. They are hard working men and women who, by their own choice, have decided to be the protectors of our community and guardians of the night. Many are parents raising children in an ever changing society facing the same problems as other parents: paying rent or mortgage, keeping healthy meals on the table, and all the other thankless jobs in which each parent is expected. There is one major difference, however. In addition to worrying about these and other facts of life in the off-duty hours, police officers spend their working hours often looking at the worst situations society has to offer. They have to handle the problems of others in addition to their own worries and struggles. The police officer of today is expected to be a plethora of professional roles all neatly contained in a shiny blue package with a badge and a smile.

But what happens when life's problems become too much for the individual officer to handle coupled with the responsibility of society's problem people? Who is there

to listen to those officers complain about life's injustices? The answer is very clear: no one. Unfortunately for many officers, alcohol becomes comforting.

Alcohol has always been an accepted form of self-medication in any lifestyle; however, it is extremely condoned and accepted within the police lifestyle and subculture. Alcohol is and always has been the beverage of choice for the majority of the officers now joining the police ranks. Many are coming from the culture of the 1980s and 1990s in which drug use was more prevalent and socially accepted. Carter (1990) notes, "Virtually every law enforcement agency in the country has been touched by some form of drug corruption" (as cited in Kappeler, Sluder, & Alpert, 1998, p. 166). Recently, I was hired to testify as an expert in a federal case in the Middle District of North Carolina. The issue involved several sheriffs' deputies who were in the county narcotic unit. They had been stealing drugs, executing false search warrants, and abusing steroids. The case against the officers was clear. In fact, they plead guilty, and the only reason I was involved was for the sentencing phase. The argument was that being undercover for extended periods of time impaired the officers' judgment and led to a moral demise and subsequent criminal behavior. Thus, in addition to the abuse of alcohol, police mental health providers are seeing an increase in officers with chemical addiction.

So what happens next? The police officer has job and family stress, substance abuse, and general burnout—what could follow? The sad answer to that question is unfortunately, suicide.

Suicide is the final act of desperation. It is a phenomenon that is increasing among police officers according to a study by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) (1995). It is estimated that police officers commit suicide two to four times more frequently than the civilian population (FBI, 1995). Officer suicide is a critical incident that affects not only officers themselves, but also officers' friends, family, and the police community.

Chapter One

Alcohol and cops is as synonymous as milk and cookies. It is generally understood that alcohol use and abuse by police officers goes hand in hand. The image of the old Irish cop with the big red nose from years of drinking is an often joked about image through the Hollywood camera. Alcohol use has always been a staple for many officers who seek a way to relax and unwind after a tour of duty.

Also, there are the many "legitimate," legally established, after-hour police social clubs, which allow an officer a safe place to drink and unwind after hours. Unfortunately, the progression from casual consumption to alcoholism can occur gradually. With the endless availability of establishments that enjoy having police officers as customers, that progression can be rapid.

With the onset of police stress and burnout (which will be discussed in a later chapter), alcoholism can be traced in the very nature of the police lifestyle. It may begin with "choir practice," the police ritual that was immortalized in Joseph Wambaugh's novel *The Choirboys*. In that novel, choir practice was the gathering of officers after a shift to engage in drinking. This practice allowed officers the opportunity to swap war stories from the shift, bond, and generally complain

about society and systemic problems. While it should be noted that the phrase "choir practice" is not used by all police officers, it has been used by some officers with whom I have worked, and the practice of drinking with the "boys" after a shift, police detail, or drug raid is a commonly condoned and expected event. Cosper (1979) stated, "Active support for or passive tolerance of one's intoxicated peers is thought to originate in leisure time drinking that later leads to diminished informal social control over alcohol" (as cited in Hollinger, 1988, p. 441). The issue of police alcohol use is also echoed by Detective Richard Pastorella (Ret.), "Cops make an attempt to solve problems by self-medication" (Horvitz, 1994, p. 11). Drinking is not just a social outlet for officers, but it is also a way to numb themselves from violence, death, and human despair, which many officers see on a daily basis. Kroes (1976) found that, "Around one-quarter of U.S. police officers have claimed to have a significant problem with alcohol" (as cited in Brown & Campbell, 1994, p. 61).

As mentioned earlier, drug use is also becoming a problem with younger officers who have grown up in a culture in which recreational drug use is more accepted. It is interesting to note that while alcohol use/abuse is tolerated within the police structure, drug use is not. Alcoholism is viewed as a problem that is worthy of rehabilitation, whereas drug addiction is viewed as illegal, and those suffering from drug addiction are viewed as weak. I attribute this ignorance to the fact that the majority of police officers are not adequately trained or knowledgeable to the disease of addiction and addiction-related disorders. In addition, since most of the "bad guys" out on the street are drug abusers, they equate that stereotype with fellow officers who have drug problems. Stephen Crowe, MD, (1992) states, "drug users are viewed as outsiders; they cannot be trusted" (p. 927).

To show that alcohol problems are worthy of treatment and drug addicts are not, one need to only view departmental policies regarding alcohol use. Many departments will allow officers to receive treatment if they are found to have an alcohol problem. The department will, in most cases, allow an officer to take some form of leave to attend a detoxification or rehabilitation program, which is also accompanied with full pay; however, if an officer requests treatment for a drug problem whether legal or illegal, most departments will attempt to terminate that officer. After all, alcohol is legalized, and most drugs of abuse are specifically outlawed; however, that thinking is slowly changing within police departments due to increased police union pressure to afford equal rehabilitation opportunities to officers who are experiencing substance problems. Unfortunately, there is still a stigma attached to an officer labeled a drug abuser. Some may find themselves placed on more restrictive or administrative duties within the department, while those returning to duty from an alcohol-related problem find their way back to the same position in which they had.

Another area of concern falls on officers who work in specialized units, such as undercover narcotics or vice. These men and women can be more susceptible to substance use/abuse problems. Undercover officers are by definition officers who are actively involved in the commission of a crime. They are out on the street trying to blend in with the criminal element. Since most of the criminal element conduct illegal activities from bars, undercover officers find themselves in the bar environment, drinking, and trying to be seen as genuine. The temptation for officers in specialized units to use drugs is also a real danger. In some instances,

officers find themselves faced with a situation that requires them to sample the drug in an attempt to offset any suspicion that they may be a police officer. As with most people who become addicted to drugs, it all started with the use of some drug.

The effect of alcohol on police officers also plays an important role in their ability to cognitively function on the job. The job of police officers in society today is both important and high profile. The effect of alcohol on officers' performance can still be seen after the alcohol has left their body. Police officers on duty need to be functioning at peak performance physically and psychologically. After all, officers may be called upon to make a decision about taking a human life. Edwin Dellatre (1989) states . . .

> A police officer is authorized to make decisions about the lives of others, an enormous power that the rest of us do not have. Such power should be exercised only by those whose public and private behavior befits authority. A person who is hung-over or weakened by other intemperance is more prone to errors of poor concentration, inattention to detail, and so on. (p. 156)

Again, it is generally accepted that the abuse of drugs and alcohol can and does lead to future psychological and physiological problems, such as, addiction, depression, and suicide.

Chapter Two

Police stress and suicide has become a topic of major concern and focus in the last few years. The New York City Police Department suffered 11 police suicides within the first nine months of 1995 alone with a police agency of over 38,000 officers (Horvitz, 1994). Across the country in the last few years, police agencies and municipalities have been clambering to initiate and implement some form of police mental health services for their officers; however, while larger urban police departments can provide financial backing and manpower to its stress units, many smaller departments struggle to find ways to provide services. Unfortunately, there are still some agencies and administrators who as of yet (and for other reasons) have not or will not pursue implementation of stress programs. James T. Chandler (1990) states . . .

> In any event, whether or not police personnel suffer to a greater extent from job stress than those in other occupations, courts have ruled police agencies are responsible for the psychological fitness of their personnel (Meredith, 1984). Such rulings do not focus only on responsibilities for careful initial hiring but also on the care and maintenance of personnel throughout their careers (p. 117).

The everyday routine of police officers is difficult enough, but when officers are expected to handle their own problems in addition to having to be a problem solver out on the street, officers' own problems become exacerbated.

Police officers assume many roles during their tour of duty. On any given shift, an officer may act as social worker, enforcer, protector, truant officer, nurse, etc. The majority of the public is conditioned to look to officers for protection, guidance,

and help; however, in many urban high-crime areas, police officers are sometimes viewed as the bad guys. The research is still ongoing with respect to identifying a correlation between police occupational stress and suicide, but it is generally agreed that there are some stressors unique to policing. John M. Violanti (1996) states, "Stressors reported as inherent in police work are danger, shift work, public apathy, boredom, a sense of uselessness, and dealing with misery and death" (pp. 31-32). Violanti further cited several researchers who have studied the aforementioned police stressors (e.g., Kroes, 1986; Territo & Vetter, 1981; Symonds, 1970; Graf, 1986; Spielberger et al., 1981). According to Dr. Francis L. McCafferty (1992), "Police officers, because of the stress they endure, are prone to depression, alcoholism, anxiety disorders, all of which are associated with increased suicide" (p. 238).

The exact number of police suicides varies from year to year, but it is generally thought that police officers commit suicide at a much higher rate than the general public. Brown and Campbell (1994) stated, "In the United States, elevated suicide rates among police officers have been reported by a number of authors (e.g., Violanti; Vena, and Marshall, 1986; Gularnick, 1963). Fell, Richard, and Wallace (1980) found that police officers in the United States had the third highest suicide rate among 130 occupations" (p. 62). Approximately 300 police officers commit suicide annually (Seligmann, 1994). Kroes (1976) concluded, "peace officers commit suicide at a higher rate than the rest of the populace (Allen, 1986; Fell, Richard & Wallace, 1980; Heiman, 1979; Terry, 1981). A police officer is also more likely to take his or her own life than to be killed in the line of duty" (as cited in Kurke & Scrivner, 1995, p. 201).

Police suicide is an issue that not only affects the family and the department. Robert Loo (2001) writes . . .

> Conservative estimates report that there may be as many as 28 persons directly affected by a suicide (Knieper, 1999). One could argue that, for police suicides, the number of significant survivors could be much higher given that not only family and friends are directly affected but virtually all of the police officers . . . in the department especially small departments where strong bonds create a family feeling (p. 1).

Police suicide remains a pandemic problem that not only has one victim but leaves a trail of grief and remorse. It is the author's opinion that administrators need to understand that the act of officer suicide reaches far beyond the walls of the police department.

Chapter Three

In a study by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (1996b), it was found that there are several factors that contributed to police officer suicide: regular and easy accessibility to a firearm, exposure to death, social strain, and the false perception by officers that they are working in a hostile environment under negative public image. In addition, most officers soon realize that the police work environment is drastically different than they may have originally perceived. They quickly realized that they are handcuffed by the inability of the justice system to adequately punish those who have been arrested and the extreme scrutiny of the public they swore

to protect. Police officers work under the harshest of conditions, which include long hours away from family, inadequate pay, systemic incompetence, and the never-ending paperwork, all coupled with the fear of being held criminally or civilly liable for a tortious act even if done under the color of law. There is a feeling of powerlessness in a position of expected power and control; however, not all of these reasons alone are linked to police suicide. Nock and Marzuk (1996) identified other factors to police suicide that are applicable to the general population: affective illness, alcohol/substance abuse, and interpersonal difficulties" (http://www.afsp.org/research/marzuk2.htm). In a police stress study by Finn and Esselman-Tomaz (1996), they added . . .

> Law enforcement officers face a number of sources of stress particular to their field, ranging from organizational demands (e.g., shift work) to the nature of police work itself (e.g., exposure to violence and suffering). In addition, some officers report new or increasing sources of stress, including those that result from the implementation of community policing, negative publicity, and reduced resources. (p. 6)

Suicide in police officers is generally limited to males, who dominate the majority of the police ranks. In a joint study by the Detroit Police Department and the Federal Bureau of Investigation (1995), it was found that the average profile of an officer susceptible to suicide was generally, "a uniformed, white male, high school education, married, late twenties" (as cited in FBI, 1995, p. 2). In addition, it is reported by Nock and Marzuk (1996) "The limited data available suggests the typical police suicide is a married, white male patrolman, in his late 30s, with 15 years on the police force, who commits suicide at home using a firearm" (http://www.afsp.org/research/marzuk2). It is noted by Violanti (1996) that "inconsistencies in availability and accuracy of police suicide data, differences in individual vulnerability, and differential exposure to stress across police departments makes researching stress and suicide difficult" (p. 32).

In contrast to the above, Ivanoff (1994) point out that no profile of a suicidal police officer exists; however, they cited research findings by Lester (1986, 1989) that identify five key characteristics in identifying a potential suicide victim:

1. Age, race, and sex – White males have the highest suicide rate of all demographics. Males age 50 and over are at higher risk. White females are at lowest risk.

2. Psychiatric Symptoms – Those with clinical depression are at high risk. Depression is most common warning sign of suicide.

3. Stress

4. Prior suicidal thoughts or attempts – Each previous attempt increases the likelihood of a successful completion.

5. Available resources – Isolated person is at greater risk. Family or friends who were rejecting.

It should be noted that while the rate of suicide for police officers is extremely high, the reasons why officers choose to kill themselves are as different and unique as why a civilian commits suicide. Professor Andre Ivanoff states, "every suicide is likely to have a different cause, the only thing that they have in common is that they were all police officers" (Horvitz, 1994, p. 10). Moreover, Professor Ivanoff feels that stress per se is not the only cause of police suicide. She states, "There's no doubt that the occupation is stressful, but it's dangerous and does a disservice to say that that's why the officer[s] took their lives" (p. 11). In the commonwealth of Massachusetts, there have been many officers who have fit the "profile" of an officer prone to suicide; however, there will always be exceptions to that profile and that is what makes pinpointing a suicidal prone officer much more difficult for administrators.

Chapter Four

As mentioned earlier, there is a correlation between alcohol and suicide and with suicide, there is a feeling of hopelessness and despair, a feeling of no way out. Miller, Mahler, and Gould (1991) state, "The subjective state of hopelessness is the key to the final disposition of actual suicide. Alcohol and drug use are influential in providing a feeling of hopelessness" (p. 52). When asked about the epidemic of police suicide, Gerald Arenberg, the Executive Director of the Police Chief study on suicide remarked, "This is a national problem and has been for years; it's just kept an extremely low profile" (Seligmann, 1994, p. 58).

According to a Chicago Police study on suicide (FBI, 1995), reported documented alcohol abuse in 60% of all their reported suicides. With the link between alcohol and suicide, supervisors should look for other warning symptoms of possible danger. These include work problems, high absenteeism, motor vehicle accidents, and intoxication on duty. Supervisors should consider these incidents as part of a much larger problem that is worth exploring.

Other factors that have been revealed in suicide studies also showed that the availability and easy access to firearms are important contributing factors in police suicide (FBI, 1995; Ivanoff, 1994; Nock & Marzuk, 1996). Of the 63 documented police suicides in the New York City Police Department between 1985-1994, "all but four used their department issued revolver" (Insight, November, 1994, p. 10). Andre Ivanoff (1994) also remarked, "The stress is always there, so are the guns" (p. 10). Most officers die by the use of their own weapon. In fact, according to the FBI (1995), the police weapon was used in approximately 95% of all documented police suicides.

It has also been theorized that the police weapon holds a special significance for cops because it is representative of the power over life and death. Society gives the police officer the authority to use the weapon to take the life of another person (in certain instances). Thus, in the case of police officers that commit suicide with their service weapon, they are claiming the right to have taken their own life. The weapon was issued to stop misery and protection from harm. Male police officers will also seek other ways to commit suicide in addition to their firearm says Gloria Rothenberg, President of the Nassau County Psychological Association, "Men choose more lethal means of death, like hanging and carbon monoxide poisoning; women tend to choose drug overdosing" (Horvitz, 1994, p. 10). It is thought that women do not want to damage their face or body for identification and

funeral purposes, whereas men choose the most violent and guaranteed lethality method of suicide.

Research has shown that officers who are involved in critical incidents, that is, officers who have been subject to sudden and traumatic events, run an increased risk to such disorders as acute stress disorder and post-traumatic stress disorder as well as many other physical and psychological ailments (FBI, 1995). John Violanti (1996) states . . .

> Of the factors associated with stress in policing, incidents outside the range of normal occurrences appear to adversely affect officers. Such events are termed "critical incidents" and may include shootings, witnessing death and mutilation, attending to disasters, and dealing [with] abused or maltreated children (p. 34).

The possibility that officers will be involved in a traumatic event over the course of their career is always present; however, it must be understood that what is perceived as traumatic to one officer is different to another. The hyper-masculine environment of police work is often a roadblock to understanding this concept. It is not uncommon to find a veteran officer who has "seen it all" who, having become psychologically numb to some incidents of police work would tell a police officer experiencing emotional difficulty after exposure to a traumatic event to "handle it." This is true for younger officers who may be seeking validation from a senior officer that his or her feelings of lack of control, nightmares, or becoming "gun shy" are legitimate feelings. Again, supervisors need to recognize that they may have learned to suppress traumatic events as a defense mechanism over the course of their own career. Additionally, officers need to understand that traumatic events may differ depending upon their agency. For example, a special agent with the Drug Enforcement Administration may encounter more likelihood of a traumatic event while working in an undercover capacity, just as a state police trooper would encounter a motor vehicle fatality or a municipal officer would see a case of domestic violence. Nock and Marzuk (1996) state . . .

> Police officers are also exposed to an extraordinary amount of occupational stress. An acute source of stress comes in the form of "critical incidents," those that are beyond the normal range of day-to-day work experiences, and involve the threat of death or serious injury. Events such as accidents, assaults, shootings (either as the aggressor or the recipient) and the witnessing of deaths are experienced much more frequently in the life of a police officer than a person in any other profession. In effect, police officers in major cities can be exposed to traumatic stress similar to that of individuals involved in military combat operations. Even when officers are not in a crisis situation, they recognize they are at risk to be injured or killed. Moreover, police often feel compelled to "put their lives on the line" 24 hours a day, even when they are not on duty. (p. 1)

All law enforcement officers, however, are subject to the any one of the three most recognized traumatic events:

1. Death of an officer/partner
2. Shooting incident
3. Being wounded in the line of duty

In the case of the above three incidents, officers may encounter a series of events which, if left ignored or untreated, can lead to many of the problems identified within this article. Officers who are involved in traumatic events may feel numbing, detachment, derealization, inability to recall aspects of the event, nightmares, sweats, and bouts of hypomania or depression. These warning signs are indicative of a problem post-trauma and need to be taken seriously by the officer, the police department, and mental health professionals. More appropriate action will be discussed later in this article. One thing remains clear, and that is that these psychological and physiological symptoms cannot be ignored. Dr. Violanti also states "Suicide may be an attempt of police officers to restore feelings of strength, courage, and mastery over environment after exposure to a traumatic event" (p. 36).

Researchers have also identified relationship problems as a major contributing factor in police suicide (Ivanoff, 1994; Nock & Marzuk, 1996). In addition, the police study by the FBI (1995) also found that in addition to diagnosed psychosis and alcohol abuse, marital problems were the most prevalent trait found in police suicide.

Chapter Five

The researching of police suicide is often times quite difficult. This is due largely in part to the "solidarity" that exists within the police structure itself. In addition, it is also believed that many police suicides are routinely misclassified as accidental (Ivanoff, 1994; Violanti, 1996). In a Chicago Police Department Study (FBI, 1995), it was found that as many as 67% of all police suicides in Chicago had been misclassified. In the 1995 FBI study on misclassification of police suicides, they (FBI) believe that in the past 40 years, as many as 30% of all reported suicides nationwide were falsely misclassified.

The reasons for intentional misclassification vary from department to department. In some cases, it has been rumored that homicide investigators would carry a gun cleaning kit to be used in the event of a suspected police officer suicide. The gun cleaning kit would be placed out near the weapon so that it would appear that the gun had discharged while the officer was cleaning his or her weapon; however, this allegation has never been witnessed or substantiated by this writer. Again, while this action may be viewed as admirable and noble by some police officers, this still creates a problem. Researchers and police administrators are left trying to figure out how to combat the issue of police officer suicide. This becomes extremely difficult when it cannot even be classified as a suicide. The other problem that is prevalent in understanding police officer suicide are the officers themselves. Police officers tend to have an overinflated sense of importance. There is a feeling common among many officers that this is the profession they were born to do. Police psychologist and former New York City Police detective Harvey Schlossberg (1995) in a video documentary on police suicide by A&E productions compared this belief to that of the religious calling of priesthood. The majority of police officers tend to assume the police persona 24 hours a day. They are unable to shed that sense of power and control and make the transition from the shift to off-duty time.

Another factor that makes the researching of police officer suicide difficult is department reluctance to allow civilian access to records involving officer suicide. Police departments and officers view suicide as a disgrace, rather than an illness. Police officers feel that there is a tarnishing of the badge, an infringement on the sensitive police ego. Many feel that officers who killed themselves were either weak or took the coward's way out.

Finally, there is the police notion of "taking care of our own." Misclassification of police suicide allows the deceased officer protection from the often unforgiving press, allows the deceased officer to receive police burial honors without disgrace, and allows the surviving family members to receive insurance and police benefits. Police officers tend to stick together with other officers. Kappeler et al. (1998) note, "The way the police view the world can be described as a "we/they" or "us/them" orientation. The world is seen as composed of insiders and outsiders—police and citizens. Persons who are not police officers are considered outsiders and are viewed with suspicion" (p. 89). They have relatively few friends outside the realm of the police family. This can place tremendous strains on officers and their families. Harvey Schlossberg states "Cops tend to feel very uncomfortable outside the company of other police officers. They tend to be very clannish" (Gibbs, 1994, p. 63). The ex-husband of a female police officer offers his perspective "It's as if you become a cop 24 hours a day, you treat everyone commanding, suspicious, paranoid. She'd gone into the cop role so much that she regarded any challenge to her authority as an attack" (Gibbs, 1994, p. 63).

When the research for this article was conducted starting in 1999, it was the author's belief that many officers may not be as isolated as the literature suggested; however, in lecturing in the criminal justice program at Western New England College that primarily attracts police officers, the close community that is discussed can be seen in a much more controlled environment in the classroom. It has been the author's experience that officers from various agencies tend to sit with peers from the same department and in some instances, alienate officers from other agencies.

Chapter Six

It has always been difficult to get officers to seek help for emotional issues. There is a general feeling among officers that if they seek help, than they are not a "real cop" or they are "weak." Edward Donovan, a former Boston police officer and head of the International Law Enforcement Stress Association states, "You think you have to be superman to your department and to everyone. The number one problem for cops is, has been and always will be image" (Seligmann, 1994, p. 58).

Often, there is a perception among officers that if they seek help for problems from their department, they will be punished. In some cases, they feel that their career could be placed in jeopardy if they are labeled as "trouble" or "problem officers." Baker and Baker (1996) state, "As noted, troubled officers usually resist seeking help. Officers fear that if help is sought, employment and economic security will be threatened" (as cited in FBI, 1996b, p. 25). The experts agree that getting an officer to seek mental health counseling is difficult.

Nock and Marzuk (1996) state . . .

> Many officers worry that their admission of any mental health problem such as depression or suicidal thoughts will not be kept confidential and will result in ostracism by fellow officers, a loss of their assignment and confinement to desk duty, a passing over for promotion, and worst of all the removal of their firearm. Such fears, both real and perceived deter many officers from getting the help they so urgently need. Moreover, many officers are socialized by both their supervisors and colleagues to view mental illness as something that only "weird," "weak," or "crazy" people have. (p. 2)

In addition, William Nolan, president of the Chicago Chapter of the Fraternal Order of Police agrees:

> They (the city) take him off the street because the city does not want the liability of an officer with stress on the street. So if an officer is willing, or man enough, to admit that he needs help, they'll take away your gun and star, and you won't get it back until you prove you are OK. (as cited in Gibbs, 1994, p. 63)

William Nolan stated that he preferred a system in which officers can feel free to go without stigma or risking a career. Edward Shaughnessey, a professor at New York's John Jay College of Criminal Justice states "In other jobs, employees usually have no way of knowing that a co-worker is receiving counseling. But in the police force, everyone knows as soon as an officers firearm is removed that he is in counseling . . . It's instantaneous" (Horvitz, 1994, p. 11).

In the case of the New York City Police Department, the stress unit is now located on the campus of John Jay College. Officers can seek help without fear of being seen by a fellow officer. In Los Angeles, the LAPD has moved their stress unit to an old abandoned bank building in the Chinatown section for the same reasons as New York. The LAPD reports client increase of 103% with their new location (Gibbs, 1994). As with anything, the department must first recognize that officers need counseling services. Second, they must be prepared to offer those services.

Conclusion

With police officers committing suicide at an alarming rate, police agencies and administrators need to recognize and understand the effects of police occupational stress, substance abuse, and suicide. Police stress will always be an inherent component of the work; however, additional stressors such as alcohol, relationship problems, and easy accessibility to a firearm are directly related to an increase in police suicides (Ivanoff, 1994).

Police suicides intentionally misclassified do not contribute to finding a solution to reduce the number of officers committing suicide. Police departments need to find systemic ways of changing the false perception among officers that seeking help for mental issues will not be tolerated. Departments need to realize that they are obligated both ethically and legally to provide services to maintain good mental health for police officers. In addition, police officers themselves need to understand that seeking mental health services does not mean they are

weak. They need to understand also that as human beings, they will respond psychologically and physiologically to the stimuli and trauma that they will encounter as a police officer.

As policing moves forward, the issue of police stress, substance abuse, and suicide can no longer be denied, dismissed, or minimized by police agencies. In addressing and respecting this problem, the police community and mental health professionals can attempt to keep the thin blue line from thinning any further. Education at all levels of the police department needs to be encouraged. Police administrators would best be served by allowing officers to seek higher education, attend training, and cease the punitive atmosphere for officers who seek outside professional help. Moreover, it will be cost-effective from a managerial perspective to explore the training of police peer counselors to address police psychological issues. Modern policing has come a long way since the days of Sir Robert Peel. Administrators need to be at the forefront of progressive reform issues within the department. This will result in a more harmonious working environment for police officers, their families, and the public.

Moreover, with the tragic events of September 11, 2001, we are beginning to see an increase in police officer suicide, and this phenomenon may be attributed to post-traumatic stress disorder. In the year following the 1995 Oklahoma City Bombing and the North Hollywood police shootings, an increase of police suicides occurred approximately one year after the dates of those traumatic events.

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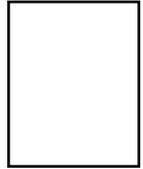
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