



Law Enforcement Executive
FORUM

**Police-Medical Collaborations:
Dealing with Mental Health**

July 2003

Law Enforcement Executive Forum
Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board
in cooperation with Western Illinois University
Macomb, IL 61455

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The *Law Enforcement Executive Forum* is published six times per year by the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board's Executive Institute. The journal is sponsored by Western Illinois University in Macomb, Illinois.

Subscription: \$40

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Editorial

The multiple roles of law enforcement as both service providers and enforcers has placed additional burdens, responsibilities, and public attention on those who serve.

There is no better example of this continually expanding police role than the call for law enforcement officers to intervene in cases involving persons who suffer from mental illness. Protocol, procedures, and training for law enforcement officers in responding to such cases has traditionally been lacking. In recent years, however, there has been considerable attention to refocus and reexamine the police role in handling such cases and improving service delivery involving persons suffering from mental illness.

The primary focus of this edition of the *Forum* is on “Dealing with Mental Health.” In Illinois, the Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board (ILETSB), working in cooperation with the law enforcement community and mental health professionals statewide, has completed significant work designed to enhance quality service delivery offered to citizens facing mental health crisis.

In March 2001, ILETSB published a task force report entitled, *Law Enforcement and Mental Health Interaction in Responding to Persons with Mental Illness*. The task force report recommended statewide protocol and model policy for transportation of persons with mental illness, provided an overview, recommended resource materials on the topic of mental illness, recommended procedures for developing and implementing cooperative agreements between law enforcement agencies and mental health service providers, and made specific recommendations regarding the training of police officers. As a component part and extension of the task force report, ILETSB convened a statewide summit in October of 2002 for mental health and law enforcement professionals to focus on best practices and to improve cooperation and response. Over 100 participants at the conference contributed ideas and recommendations, which were then published in a summit report entitled *Modernizing Mental Health and Law Enforcement Collaboration*. Finally, ILETSB has conducted a series of workshops throughout the state to train officers on policy, procedures, and tactics involving mental health response. Taken collectively, this significant work has improved cooperation between police and mental health service providers and has led to improved response and enhanced service delivery.

The first seven articles in this edition of the *Forum*, focusing on mental health issues, provide a good overview and summary of current thought and innovative approaches. The remaining collection of articles in this edition contains interesting research and perspective on topics related to police training and education, budgeting, and recruitment and selection of police personnel.

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

The Impact of Individual Characteristics of Police Officers and Their Organizations on Perceptions of Persons with Mental Illnesses

Michael James Bolton, PhD, Marymount University

Kia Bentley, PhD, Virginia Commonwealth University

This study explores the influence of individual characteristics of police officers and police organizations on perceptions of the dangerousness, credibility, and self-sufficiency of persons with mental illnesses. Data collected from 276 experienced police officers attending inservice classes at five criminal justice academies indicates that both individual and organizational factors influence police perceptions of persons with mental illnesses. Moreover, results also indicate that even slight increases in training, as well as leadership priorities for community-policing activities, can improve officers' perceptions of mentally ill persons.

Introduction

Mentally ill persons are increasingly becoming a greater burden to law enforcement than to the mental health system (Wolff, Diamond, & Helminiak, 1997). This transformation is occurring at a time when the landscape of policing in the United States is changing at a dramatic rate as police departments continue to pursue evolving theories of community policing (Dunham & Alpert, 1993; Reiter, 1999; Skogan & Harnett, 1997). As police chiefs strive to reinvent their agencies, three questions still linger: (1) Can it be done? (2) Will it work? and (3) Who may be affected by the changes? As chiefs continue to combine efforts to embrace community policing with progressive recruitment efforts that focus on youth and higher education, as well as increasing gender, racial, and ethnic diversity in the workforce, the image of a more caring police officer, sensitive to the multifaceted needs of the community should emerge.

This study explores, therefore, whether the anticipated increase in sensitivity and empathy is being extended to include persons with special needs in communities. Specifically, this study examines the relationship between two major groups of characteristics on one segment of the many special populations police routinely encounter—persons with mental illnesses. Despite the fact that the management of mentally ill persons is “possibly one of the most intricate, dangerous, and unstable situations” that a police officer may encounter (Ruiz, 1993, p. 149), to date no other study has been conducted to examine what, if any, relationship exists between factors related to the personal characteristics of police officers and those of their organizations on how officers perceive individuals who are mentally ill (Blackburn, 1998; Green, 1997; IACP, 1997; Patch & Arrigo, 1999; Police Executive Research Forum, 1997; Ruiz, 1993).

Background on Factors Influencing Police Perceptions

Existing literature on police attitudes toward persons with mental illness (e.g., Harr & Hess, 1998; Inbau, Reid, & Buckley, 1986; IACP, 1997; Lester & Grant, 1978;

Matthews, 1970; McKenzie, 1996; Police Executive Research Forum, 1997; Weston & Wells, 1970) indicates that police officers tend to perceive persons with mental illnesses as . . .

- Unpredictable and potentially dangerous.
- Not credible.
- Sick and in need of medical care.

In developing a theoretical framework for selection of dependent variables, officer safety immediately emerges as critical. Or as Skolnick (1994) asks, "What are the conditions under which police as authorities, perceive danger" in the oftentimes violent law enforcement milieu? (p. 17) Indeed, several researchers have found a strong link between psychotic symptoms as signals of danger, which heighten negative attitudes toward mentally ill people (Link, Monahan, Stueve, & Cullen, 1999; Link & Stueve, 1998; Socal & Holtgraves, 1992; Finn & Stalans, 1995). To some extent, these perceptions may be predicated on behavioral cues associated with the presence or absence of aggression (Johnson & Beditz, 1981; McNeil & Binder, 1995; Vrij & Dingemans, 1996).

In addition, unreliability or lack of credibility may equate with increased concern over dangerousness (Finn & Stalans, 1997). Weston and Wells (1970), in their classic work on criminal investigation, cite "history of mental illness" as cause for concern and urge police investigators to exercise caution in accepting information from mentally ill victims and witnesses, inasmuch as "psychological disorders inhibit and destroy memory" (p. 162). Empirically, Finn and Stalans (1995) used credibility as an explanatory variable in a domestic assault study that examined how the husband's mental state affects officers' decisions to refer victims to battered women shelters or mental health centers. In a later study by these same authors (Finn & Stalans, 1997), inferences about credibility of paranoid or delusional assailants affected officers' concerns over potential violence and decisions to arrest.

With police now bearing the brunt of handling persons with mental illnesses in community settings (Wolff, Diamond, & Helminiak, 1997), officers are justified in viewing these individuals as sick and in need of medical care. Moreover, because mentally ill persons may not be aware of the nature of their illnesses, nor have insights into them, they may be understandably reluctant to seek professional assistance (Baldwin, 1998; Beck-Sander, 1998; Meehan, 1995; Torrey, 1997). Furthermore, some authors have found that mental illness is equated with competency, self-worth, self-esteem, and docility (Cohen & Struening, 1962; Issac & Armat, 1990; Trzepacz & Baker, 1993). Deciding how best to deal with a population of individuals relegated to the status of homeless persons, throwaways, or incompetents, who appear incapable of coping with the fundamentals of everyday living, has become a major challenge facing police administrators (Meehan, 1995; Plotkin & Narr, 1993).

Therefore, using each of these criterion as a basis for inquiry, this study pursues a question that has never before been asked: When police officers are confronted by situations involving people who are exhibiting behaviors suggestive of mental illness, do factors related to the personal characteristics of the officers and/or their organizations influence their perceptions of the dangerousness, self-sufficiency, and credibility of these persons?

Independent variables in this research include age, gender, race/ethnicity, educational level, work experience, previous contact with mentally ill persons, extent of organizational training concerning the handling of mentally ill persons, extent of organizational policies concerning the handling of mentally ill persons, participants' perceptions of leadership priorities for community policing, and participants' perceptions of leadership priorities for traditional enforcement.

Table 1
Independent Variables

Individual	Organizational
Age	Training (Mental Illness)
Gender	Policies (Mental Illness)
Race	Emphasis on Law Enforcement
Education	Emphasis on Community Policing
Work Experience	
Contact	

Thus far, studies examining mental illness and use of force indicate that older officers, with more experience on the job, are less likely to apply force and tend to be less suspicious and wary of mentally ill persons than their younger colleagues (Cox, 1996; Dunham & Alpert, 1993; Skolnick & Fyfe, 1993). Green (1997) also found gender not to be significant in officers' referral decisions regarding mentally disabled persons. In addition, in use-of-force studies, gender also appears not to be a significant factor (Geller & Scott, 1992; Kappeler, Sluder, & Alpert, 1998; Skolnick & Fyfe, 1993). Race was not found in police/mentally ill encounter studies, but multivariate studies (e.g., Croft, 1987; Green, 1997; Skolnick & Fyfe, 1993; Wilson & Meyer, 1990) do show correlations between race of officer and suspect in decisions to apply force, which is always a critical factor in assessing police encounters with mentally ill persons. Not surprisingly, educational level has generally been found to have a positive influence on attitudes toward mentally ill persons (McKenzie, 1996; Neff & Husaini, 1986; Weller & Grunes, 1988). Though abundant research exists to show that attitudes tend to become more favorable as contact with mentally ill persons increases (e.g., Demarzo, 1990; Keane, 1991; Landeen, Byrne, & Brown, 1992; Oyefeso, Osinowo, & Idemudia, 1989), police studies lack information regarding this relationship.

Finally, studies on social climate and organizational culture have found that issues related to areas of shared work environments, such as individual job performance and well-being, are in part affected by policies, training, peer relations, managerial practices, and expectations (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992; Ostroff, 1992; Shortell et al., 1995). In this context, police organizations may be viewed as people-processing networks in which the raw material processed is nonuniform (Cox, 1996), and in which change is in and stability is out (Shields, Harris, & Hart, 1999). While the examination of results of police departments' efforts to implement community-policing practices shows improved alliances with citizen groups (Arcaya, 1989; Borum, Deane, Steadman, & Morrissey, 1998; Fosam, Grimsley, & Wisher, 1998; Herbert, 1998), Waddington (1999, p. 294) found that police departments still tend to be "punishment-centered bureaucracies" where officers are seldom praised for good practices and face draconian penalties if they are deemed to have behaved improperly. General reviews of police culture and climate have suggested that part of the dilemma facing contemporary police leaders is how

to transform their departments from traditional, enforcement orientations to those of socially sensitive organizational entities. It appears, therefore, that an exploratory look into what impact, if any, factors related to police training and policies for handling mentally ill persons, as well as the extent to which subordinates are influenced by the emphasis leaders put on enforcement versus community-policing activities, is a justifiable rationale for including them in the current study.

Method

Sample

The survey instrument used in this study was personally administered by the primary investigator, a former police officer, at five criminal justice academies during inservice cycles. A purposive sample of 276 experienced officers (post-probation) taking inservice classes in police and criminal justice academies located in the District of Columbia, Maryland, and Virginia was used in this study. One major metropolitan police academy, one metropolitan transit police academy, two large county criminal justice academies, and one state police academy served as survey sites for this study. Data was missing from eight questionnaires; consequently, responses from these questionnaires were deleted, leaving a total of 268 for analyses.

Table 2
Participants' Characteristics and Background

Variable	Category	N	Item %
Gender	Male	246	89.1
	Female	22	8
Mean Age (SD)	35.34 (7.56)		
Mean Years Experience (SD)	10.99 (7.60)		
Race	Caucasian	167	60.5
	African-American	73	26.4
	Hispanic	13	4.7
	Asian	5	1.8
	Other	4	1.4
	Native American	3	1.1
	Multiracial	3	1.1
Education	No High School Diploma	2	.7
	High School Diploma	131	47.5
	GED	3	1.1
	Associate's	69	25.0
	Bachelor's	60	21.7
	Master's	3	1.1

Measures

Officers participating in this study were told that they would observe the behavior of a man on the streets of a large city—no mention of mental illness was made. They then viewed a three-minute videotape of an individual previously diagnosed with schizophrenia who was manifesting symptoms of severe mental illness (complaining of being “zapped” by electrodes, darting on and off sidewalks, covered with a sheet, etc.). Following the video, officers answered a 40-item questionnaire created for this study.

The police perceptions scale attempted to capture how dangerous, credible, and self-sufficient participants perceived the individual in the video. Higher scores indicate increasing concerns about the potential dangerousness, credibility, and self-sufficiency of the individual in the video. Alphas for the three subscales were .65, .73, and .38 for dangerousness, credibility, and self-sufficiency, respectively. Though the alpha for self-sufficiency is less than desired, it should be noted that occasionally even frequently used instruments, such as the Opinions About Mental Illness Scale (Cohen & Struening, 1962) report meager alphas for subscales.

The questionnaire also contained demographic questions, which included a scale to assess the extent of the past personal/professional contact respondents had with mentally ill persons during the past two years. Higher scores on this scale indicate greater past involvement with mentally ill persons. Reliability for this scale is .81. In order to gather data on characteristics of police organizations, a scale was used to assess the extent to which departments develop official policies and provide training for handling mentally ill persons, as well as an assessment of what respondents believed their leaders expect of them in terms of enforcement activity and community-policing activity. The alpha for this scale is .68. Descriptions of both scales are also included in the Appendix.

Dependent Variables

Initially, we performed tests to examine correlations between the three dependent variables. The rationale for this query centered on whether possible relationships exist between perceived dangerousness, credibility, and self-sufficiency. In simpler terms, when a police officer encounters a person with suspected mental illnesses, is the officer likely to sense a greater threat of bodily harm when the individual is perceived as not credible or lacking in the ability to manage the routine pressures of daily living? Previous studies have not examined these correlational relationships. As Table 3 illustrates, the three dependent variables are positively correlated with each other. The correlation coefficients demonstrate differing relationships between the level of perceived dangerousness and the level of perceived credibility and self-sufficiency. The highest positive correlation between any two dependent variables is between perceived dangerousness and perceived credibility, with a correlation coefficient of $r=.4717$.

Self-sufficiency is also moderately associated with dangerousness ($r=.316$, $p<.001$). A smaller positive relationship is found between credibility and self-sufficiency ($r=.2304$, $p<.001$). These correlation coefficients are substantial enough to suggest that perceived threats to officer safety may be predicated on factors relating to questionable

believability, as well as doubts about the self-reliance of the suspected mentally ill persons officers may encounter.

Table 3
Correlation Matrix of Perceived Dangerousness, Perceived Credibility, and Perceived Self-Sufficiency (N = 268)

	Perceived Dangerousness	Perceived Credibility	Perceived Self-Sufficiency
Dangerousness	1.0000	.4717*	.3163*
Credibility	.4717*	1.0000	.2304*
Self-Sufficiency	.3163*	.2304*	1.0000

*p<.001

Regression Analyses

We used three Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression equations to assess the influence of individual characteristics of police officers and their agencies on perceptions of persons with mental illnesses. OLS is especially suitable for combining many variables to “produce optimal predictions of the dependent variable” (Allison, 1999, p. 3). The three dependent variables, perceived dangerousness, credibility, and self-sufficiency, were tapped using a scale for police perceptions about mental illness.

Table 4 contains the results of the analyses of data from all five agencies. Later, the same regression equations were used to examine a subset of data representing responses from officers in one of the participating agencies, Department A, a “progressive” department with higher levels of training, policy, and leadership priorities for community policing. In order to show differences, Table 5 lists combined mean scores for organizational variables of the four other participating agencies and mean scores for Agency A.

Before continuing, it also should be noted that officers’ ages and years of work experience were highly correlated ($r=.86, p<.01$); hence, coefficients for years of experience are removed, and coefficients for age, the variable with the most explanatory power, are retained in all models.

Because measures with different metrics are used, betas are reported. The five demographic variables include age, gender, race/ethnicity, education, and contact. Previous professional and personal contact were measured on an eight-item scale for previous contact with mentally ill persons, which asked respondents to indicate the general level of contact they have had with mentally ill persons during the past two years. Organizational characteristics were measured on a police organizational characteristics scale, which is a two-part, 12-item scale. It examined the extent of available policies and training relating to handling mentally ill persons, as well as the perceived leadership expectations for enforcement and community-policing activities.

With respect to perceived dangerousness for the five agencies, three of the variables were found to be significant: (1) age, (2) race, and (3) training. A moderate negative relationship was found between age and perceived dangerousness. Essentially, this means that as the age of the officers increased, perceptions that the man in the video was dangerous decreased (beta = $-.187$). A modest positive relationship also was found between race/ethnicity and perceptions of dangerousness. This suggested that majority officers seemed more likely than their minority peers to perceive the individual in the video as potentially dangerous (beta = $.159$). Training also had a moderate—but important—negative correlation with the perceived dangerousness scale. Thus, higher scores on training equated with decreased concerns over dangerousness (beta = $-.174$).

Contact was the only variable to explain perceived credibility in this model. Not surprisingly, given the vast research on the “contact hypothesis” (e.g., Demarzo, 1990; Keane, 1991; Malla & Shaw, 1987; Socall & Holtgraves, 1992; Weller & Grunes, 1988), this study supports existing research that contact has a mild positive influence on perceptions of credibility (beta = $-.125$).

The last section centered on how self-sufficiency; that is, how able to handle the demands of daily living was the individual in the video perceived by police respondents? Among the strongest predictors, community policing moderately influenced (beta = $-.226$) perceptions of self-sufficiency. Hence, respondents with higher scores on perceived expectations for community policing tended to view the individual in the video as more able to manage the affairs of daily living than did their peers who believed their leaders expected less community involvement. Race (beta = $.186$) and enforcement (beta = $.136$) have milder correlations with self-sufficiency; therefore, majority officers, and those officers who believed their leaders expect more from them in terms of enforcement activity, appeared slightly more likely to have doubts about the self-sufficiency of the individual in the video than did their nonmajority peers who believed their leaders place less emphasis on enforcement activities.

Table 4
All Participating Agencies: Determinants of Police Perceptions

Predictor Variables	Perceived Dangerousness	Perceived Credibility	Perceived Self-Sufficiency
	Beta	Beta	Beta
Age	-.187**	-.086	-.047
Gender	.034	.110+	-.014
Race/Ethnicity	.159*	.119+	.186**
Educational Level	.008	-.032	.090
Contact	-.100	-.125*	-.053
Extent:	.001	-.056	-.022
M.I. Policies			
Extent:	-.174*	-.063	.001
M.I. Training			
Priority:	.043	-.051	.136*
Enforcement			
Priority:			
Community Policing	-.031	-.043	-.226**
R-Square	.101	.071	.113
F (Sig.)	.001	.023	.000

Note: +p<.10; *p<.05; **p<.001 (two-tailed tests); N = 268

As noted, a second question worth exploring was whether differences between agencies in organizational practices (e.g., training, policy, and perceived leadership priorities for traditional enforcement and community-policing activities) had any effect on officers' perceptions of persons with mental illnesses. Interestingly, although departmental policies appeared not to influence police perceptions of mentally ill people in any model, a different picture emerged when viewing outcomes of training and leadership priorities. Table 5 presents mean scores for organizational variables.

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics: Organizational Variables

Department	Training Mean (SD)	Policy Mean (SD)	Community Policing Mean (SD)	Enforcement Mean (SD)
Agencies (Except A)	2.88 (2.26)	2.58 (1.97)	8.85 (4.39)	12.82 (4.16)
Agency A	4.33 (2.28)	3.89 (1.82)	9.92 (4.26)	12.34 (3.63)

It appears that whereas leadership emphasis on enforcement (e.g., prioritizing arrests and traffic citations) negatively impacted officers' perceptions of persons with mental illnesses, increases in training and greater emphasis on community policing appeared to improve these perceptions. Recall that higher scores on the scale indicate greater concerns about dangerousness, credibility, and self-sufficiency. Thus, when examining outcomes from perceived dangerousness, for Agency A, training (beta = -.284) and enforcement priorities (beta = .292) emerged as significant, but with opposite impacts. With credibility, community policing (beta = -.245) favorably influenced perceptions; with self-sufficiency, enforcement (beta = .235) also influenced officers' perceptions but in a negative direction. Of equal importance, the total variance of the dependent variables explained by independent variables in this model substantially exceeded those explained in the model representing the other four agencies, as indicated in Tables 6 and 7.

A plausible extrapolation is that study participants' responses to the person manifesting symptoms of severe mental illness in the video suggested that agencies in which leaders continue to emphasize enforcement activities were more likely to have officers who perceive mentally ill persons as needful and potentially violent. Conversely, officers in agencies stressing training for handling mentally ill persons as well as those embracing community-policing principles tended to have a more favorable view of mentally ill persons.

Table 6
Agencies Except Agency A (Mental Illness-Related Policies and Training and Community Policing Not Emphasized): Determinants of Police Perceptions

Predictor Variables	Perceived Dangerousness	Perceived Credibility	Perceived Self-Sufficiency
	Beta	Beta	Beta
Age	-.122	-.035	-.051
Gender	.078	.129	-.003
Race/Ethnicity	.184*	.079	.116
Educational Level	-.027	-.002	.137+
Contact	-.097	-.091	.051
Extent:	-.001	-.003	.017
M.I. Policies			
Extent:	-.149+	-.047	-.059
M.I. Training			
Priority:	.053	-.051	.134
Enforcement			
Priority:			
Community Policing	-.052	-.063	-.228**
R-Square	.092	.042	.114
F (Sig.)	.070	.629	.019

Note: +p<.10; *p<.05; **p<.001 (two-tailed tests); N = 181

Table 7
Agency A (Mental Illness-Related Policies and Training, and Community Policing Emphasized): Determinants of Police Perceptions

Predictor Variables	Perceived Dangerousness	Perceived Credibility	Perceived Self-Sufficiency
	Beta	Beta	Beta
Age	-.196+	-.165	-.006
Gender	-.120	.097	-.011
Race/Ethnicity	.213+	.207+	.409**
Educational Level	.048	-.097	.006
Contact	-.209+	-.129	-.174
Extent:	.042	-.725	-.019
M.I. Policies			
Extent:	-.284*	-.136	.050
M.I. Training			
Priority:	.292**	-.063	.235*
Enforcement			
Priority:			
Community Policing	-.194+	-.245*	-.074
R-Square	.266	.238	.245
F (Sig.)	.005	.014	.011

Note: +p<.10; *p<.05; **p<.01 (two-tailed tests); N = 87

Discussion

The purpose of this research was formulative, an initiating first step to search for patterns or ideas that can lead to more precise and meaningful questions for future inquiries (Vogt, 1999). If we are to discern factors influencing police officers’ perceptions, and therefore, quite possibly their handling of mentally ill persons, before setting out to find definitive answers, an attempt must first be made to determine whether “anything is out there.” Notwithstanding its exploratory nature, outcomes of this study clearly indicate that personal characteristics of police officers and their organizations influence perceptions of persons with mental illnesses.

Of equal importance, the influence these factors have on police perceptions of individuals with mental illnesses vary; that is, the extent to which major perceptions—perceived dangerousness, credibility, and self-sufficiency—can be explained by the two categories of independent variables differ, depending on their unique relationships with each other. Also interesting are findings from bivariate analyses, which indicate that all three criterion variables are moderately correlated with each other, suggesting for example, that negative perceptions about an individual’s credibility or self-sufficiency are also likely to lead to negative perceptions about the potential for danger.

The implications of these perceptions, particularly their tendency to further stigmatize mentally ill people, should not be viewed as unchangeable or permanent. By examining data from Agency A, an agency that places great emphasis on mental illness-related policies and training and increased emphasis on community policing, we can conclude that improvements in how the police perceive mentally ill persons are possible. Whether these changes are significant enough to impact officer safety during field encounters with mentally disabled persons or decrease unwarranted arrests, involuntary commitments, and consequential lawsuits is not clear, but they are substantial enough to justify follow-up research.

Green (1997) suggests that when looking at theoretical models describing police micro- and macro-level decisionmaking, policy analyses, and training related to persons with mental illnesses, institutional characteristics must be integrated with individual-level characteristics in order to acquire accurate assessments. Accordingly, this study expands the theoretical framework for understanding police officer perceptions of mentally ill individuals by taking the inquiry beyond documentary and archival data to the fringes of participative research. Officers can then participate by observing the behavior, mannerisms, and speech patterns of suspected mentally ill persons and consequently form opinions about this population.

While this study offers a research approach for combining personal and organizational characteristics in order to examine the effects these factors play in the interpersonal dynamics of police encounters with people manifesting symptoms of mental illness, it lacks methodological sophistication. Extant and future computer developments and other leaps in technology undoubtedly will accelerate data collection and analysis (Neumann & Wiegand, 2000). Moreover, feedback and interpersonal communication, which were not available in this study, will surely benefit understandings of the complex interplay of factors present during actual police field encounters (Arrigo, 1992; Green, 1995; Green, 1997).

In the final analysis, findings from this study support contemporary research suggesting that within the community policing framework, police and mental health professionals must begin to jointly focus their services on specialized populations, including those precipitating service-oriented calls or triggering public disorder (Borum et al., 1998; Lurigio & Swartz, 2000). This study also reinforces Meehan's (1995) contention that an essential part of the treatment of persons with severe mental illnesses, particularly in community settings, is no longer within the exclusive domain of mental health. Communicating at both the system and practitioner levels in order to gain greater insights into each other's capacities and constraints in dealing with the same clients appears especially promising (Lurigio & Swartz, 2000).

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Michael James Bolton is chair of the Sociology and Criminal Justice Department at Marymount University. Dr. Bolton is a former Arlington, Virginia police officer. He is author of *Aiding People in Conflict: A Manual for Law Enforcement* (National Mental Health Association, 1988) and has assisted various agencies, such as IACP, PERF, and the Justice Department with presentations and training concerning police involvement with mentally ill persons.

Kia Bentley is the Director of the PhD in Social Work Program at Virginia Commonwealth University. Dr. Bentley lectures extensively on issues related to social work, mental health, and mental illness. Her research interests include mental health, direct practice, psychopharmacology, and women's issues. Her articles on issues related to mental health and mental illness appear in social work and psychological literature.

Appendix

Summary of Measures Used in the Analysis

Independent Variables

1. Sex 1 = male; 2 = female
2. Age Your present age
3. Race Which racial/ethnic background best describes you?
1 = Native American; 2 = Asian; 3 = Black or African American; 4 = White or caucasian; 5 = Hispanic; 6 = Multiracial; 7 = Other (Please specify.)
4. Educational Level Highest grade obtained. 1 = No high school diploma; 2 = High school diploma; 3 = G.E.D. 4 = Associate's; 5 = Bachelor's; 6 = Master's; 7 = Doctorate; 8 = Other (Please specify.)
5. Work Experience How many total years have you been a sworn law enforcement officer? (In years, round responses to nearest year).
6. Contact A combination of eight items:

During the past two years,

- How often have you transported a person to a local mental health facility for a mental detention?
- How often have you worked for pay or done volunteer work with people who have been hospitalized for a mental illness?
- How often have you served court-ordered mental detention papers on anyone?
- How often have you assisted with the processing of a person into a mental health facility?
- How often have you been dispatched to a mental health facility to assist with a problem patient?
- How often have you been present in a mental health clinic or mental health center and observed mental health workers conducting interviews with a patient?
- How often have you testified in a hearing in which a person was subsequently ordered to be detained for mental observation?

- How often have you met or spoken with a relative or personal friend who has been hospitalized for mental illness? 1 = not at all; 2 = occasionally; 3 = sometimes; 4 = a good bit; 5 = frequently; 6 = very often; 7 = all the time

7. Extent of Policy

- Aside from law, what official guidelines does your department provide for handling cases involving persons with mental illnesses? (Check all that apply). () None or don't know; () Policy statement; () Department rules and regulations; () Procedures and recommendations for handling mentally ill persons
- How does your department distribute and then determine that you possess current official guidelines for handling persons with mental illnesses? () None distributed or don't know; () Guidelines are distributed at time of initial appointment; () Updated amendments to guidelines are distributed; () Supervisors periodically conduct inspections to see that you possess the most recent amendments.
- Not counting academy training, how does your department determine that you are familiar with official guidelines for handling persons with mental illnesses? () None or don't know; () At time of initial appointment, supervisory officers discuss and review official guidelines; () Supervisory officers discuss and review amendments when distributed; () Supervisory officers quiz or test your knowledge of official guidelines and amendments.

8. Extent of Training

- Generally speaking, what topics concerning handling persons with mental illnesses have been covered by your academy instructors? () None or don't know; () Commitment laws; () Department guidelines for handling mentally ill people; () Information covered on signs, symptoms, and methods for handling people with various mental illnesses
- Generally speaking, what teaching/training methods are used by your academy recruit and inservice instructors in covering mental illness? () None or don't know; () Academy and/or guest instructor lecture; () Educational aids (e.g., handouts, videos, films, etc.); () Interactive exercises (e.g., role playing, computerized simulations)
- Please estimate the number of academy hours (recruit and inservice) you have been given on handling persons with mental illnesses within the past year. () None or don't know; () 1-8 hours; () 9-16 hours; () More than 16 hours

9. Enforcement Priority

- In terms of keeping your bosses happy, how strong is the "pressure to produce" arrests, summonses, and/or traffic citations in your department?

- How strong is the relationship between arrests you make (including summonses and traffic citations) and your chances of being promoted?
- How strong is the relationship between the arrests you make (including summonses and traffic citations) and selection of duty assignment?
1 = extremely weak; 2 = very weak; 3 = somewhat weak; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat strong; 6 = very strong; 7 = extremely strong

10. Community-Policing Priority

- In terms of keeping your bosses happy, how strong is the pressure to attend civic and community group meetings?
- How strong is the relationship between your level of involvement in attending civic and community meetings and your chances of being promoted?
- How strong is the relationship between your attendance at civic or community group meetings and selection of duty assignment? 1 = extremely weak; 2 = very weak; 3 = somewhat weak; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat strong; 6 = very strong; 7 = extremely strong

Dependent Variables

1. Perceived Dangerousness

- Given what you saw, how predictable are this person's actions? 1 = extremely predictable; 2 = very predictable; 3 = somewhat predictable; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat unpredictable; 6 = very unpredictable; 7 = not predictable at all
- In your opinion, how aware is this person of his actions? 1 = extremely aware; 2 = very aware; 3 = somewhat aware; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat unaware; 6 = very unaware; 7 = not aware at all
- If you encountered this person in the course of your routine duties, how difficult would it be for you to understand his behavior? 1 = not at all difficult; 2 = very easy; 3 = somewhat easy; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat difficult; 6 = very difficult; 7 = extremely difficult
- To what extent do you think this person is a threat to himself or others? 1 = no threat at all; 2 = very unthreatening; 3 = somewhat unthreatening; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat threatening; 6 = very threatening; 7 = extremely threatening
- How likely is it that this person will become violent without warning? 1 = extremely likely; 2 = very likely; 3 = somewhat likely; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat unlikely; 6 = very unlikely; 7 = not at all likely

2. Perceived Self-Sufficiency A combination of five items:

- In your opinion, how likely is it that this person will succeed in life, however you define success? 1 = extremely unlikely; 2 = very unlikely; 3 = somewhat unlikely; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat likely; 6 = very likely; 7 = extremely likely
- How likely is it that something can be done to help this person? 1 = not at all likely; 2 = very unlikely; 3 = somewhat unlikely; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat likely; 6 = very likely; 7 = extremely likely
- Presuming this person does not receive help for his difficulties, how likely is it that he will always act this way? 1 = not at all likely; 2 = very unlikely; 3 = somewhat unlikely; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat likely; 6 = very likely; 7 = extremely likely

3. Perceived Credibility

- Compared to other people as witnesses, how believable would you consider statements made by this person? 1 = extremely believable; 2 = very believable; 3 = somewhat believable; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat unbelievable; 6 = very unbelievable; 7 = not believable at all
- If this person were involved in a dispute with another person, how likely would you be to accept this person's version of what happened? 1 = extremely likely; 2 = very likely; 3 = somewhat likely; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat unlikely; 6 = very unlikely; 7 = extremely unlikely
- If this person provided you with an account of an accident or crime, how reliable would you consider the information? 1 = extremely reliable; 2 = very reliable; 3 = somewhat reliable; 4 = neutral; 5 somewhat unreliable; 6 = very unreliable; 7 = not at all reliable
- If this person and several other witnesses observed a crime occur, compared to the others how much time would you spend interviewing this person? 1 = much more time; 2 = quite a bit more time; 3 = somewhat more time; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat less time; 6 = much less time; 7 = no time at all
- If this person offered to give you a written report of a criminal incident he observed years ago, how likely would you be to encourage him to write the report? 1 = not at all likely; 2 = very unlikely; 3 = somewhat unlikely; 4 = neutral; 5 = somewhat likely; 6 = very likely; 7 = extremely likely

The Social Worker in the Criminal Justice System: Community or System Advocate?¹

Lucy Edwards Hochstein, PhD, Department of Criminal Justice, Radford University

Introduction

In 1996, recognizing an increased need to provide domestic violence victim safety and offender accountability, criminal justice and advocacy agencies in the Spokane, Washington region and the Spokane Police Department (SPD) led interested public and nonprofit organizations in identifying local domestic violence programming needs. From these meetings grew a community consensus of structure, services, and participating agencies necessary to address local domestic violence issues.

Responding to the needs assessment, Spokane Regional Domestic Violence Team (SRDVT) partnering agencies immediately began setting up parts of the program in their respective agencies, and the Spokane Police Department soon applied for a grant from the Office of Justice Programs Violence Against Women Grants Office to allow greater program collaboration and co-location of program practitioners. Primary programmatic goals were increased victim safety and offender accountability, and ancillary grant goals were conceived as the means to actualize the primary grant goals. Key partners in the program included the SPD and the Spokane County Sheriff's (SCSO) Office, Spokane County and City of Spokane Prosecutor's Offices, YWCA Alternatives to Domestic Violence (ADV), Lutheran Social Services' Spokane Sexual Assault Center (SSAC), and Spokane County District Court (misdemeanor court).²

Early in 1997, the Spokane Police Department was awarded a \$1.5 million grant by the Office of Justice Programs Violence Against Women Grants Office (VAWGO) under statutory authority of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, and Victims of Crime Act of 1984 for the creation of the proposed coordinated community response to domestic violence. This grant has been extended regularly.

Study Goals

This study investigates the ability of SRDVT policy makers, operations personnel, and practitioners to create and maintain equal participation in the domestic violence system and community advocacy in a co-located, interdisciplinary domestic violence task force program. This study also investigates the effects of the housing system and community domestic violence victim advocates within the offices of the interdisciplinary co-located program along with prosecutors and detectives. Courts and probation practitioners were housed elsewhere due to ethical and victim-safety concerns.

For the purposes of this study, *system advocates* are defined as those who are employed by the criminal justice system to further system goals. In the Spokane Regional Domestic Violence Team, the goal of system advocates is to maintain domestic violence victim participation in the investigation and prosecution of their cases. *Community advocates* are defined as advocates who are not employed by the criminal justice system. Community advocates work to fill the service needs of domestic violence victims, without regard for criminal justice system needs. Advocates in the SRDVT are expected to perform both system and community advocacy roles, depending on the circumstances of particular victims.

Study Setting

Spokane County, located in northwestern Washington, encompasses 1,758.3 square miles and has a population of approximately 419,000, of which 9.2% are minorities. The City of Spokane, with almost half of the county's population, is the largest municipality in the county. The SPD provides law enforcement services for the City of Spokane, while unincorporated areas of the county and 16 small communities are policed by the Spokane County Sheriff's Office. All domestic violence cases in the region are addressed by SRDVT except those in the few small towns with misdemeanor courts. Spokane County Superior Court and county prosecutors address all felonies in the county and incorporated areas. Thus, SRDVT addresses all domestic violence cases in the City of Spokane and approximately 95% of domestic violence cases in the rest of the county.

Interagency Approaches to Domestic Violence Issues

The Spokane program has its roots in the rising awareness of domestic violence as a societal problem and a public safety issue, not a private issue. Previously, the American criminal justice system took a hands-off approach to domestic violence. In some places, law enforcement officers could not legally arrest perpetrators unless police witnessed the assault, so laws had to be changed before the criminal justice system could change its response. Domestic violence was often seen as a private dispute, so law enforcement's only duty was to calm the participants and restore order. Judges avoided punishing abusers as a means of keeping families together. Prosecutors were discouraged from filing charges because victims seldom cooperated, leaving prosecutors without a case and victims feeling abused by a system that couldn't address their problems or their needs (Sherman, 1992; Landes, Siegel, & Foster, 1993).

Changes in the hands-off approach to domestic violence did not occur until "wife beating" was redefined as a crime in the 1970s. Since then, awareness of the magnitude of domestic violence in society has been growing, with some estimates suggesting that millions of women and their children experience violent victimization in their homes (Giles-Sims, 1983; Hotaling, Straus, & Lincoln, 1989; Stark & Flitcraft, 1988; Walker, 1989). This changing awareness fostered the emergence of two prominent policy goals in domestic violence reform: (1) offender accountability and (2) victim safety (Bachman, 1994; Fagan & Wexler, 1987; Gelles, 1987; Herrenkohl, Herrenkohl, & Toedter, 1983; Hotaling et al., 1989; Jolin & Moose, 1997; Stark & Flitcraft, 1988; Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980; Walker, 1989; Widom-Spatz, 1992). Offender accountability reforms have caused states to take responsibility for prosecuting and punishing domestic violence offenders and promoted a major drive to protect

victims from further abuse, which prompted system-level changes in addressing domestic violence issues (Davis, 1995).

Early on, criminal justice agencies tried mandatory arrest in response to state and federal pressure for change (Davis, 1995; Jarret, 1996). Mandatory arrest alone was found to have no dependable deterrent effect on the incidence of domestic violence (Dunford, Huizinga, & Elliot, 1990; Hirschel, Hutchison, & Dean, 1992; Sherman et al., 1991). Any post-arrest decreases in violence were short-lived but were more lasting when system-level responses incorporated more than prosecution and law enforcement efforts (Sherman, 1992).

Interagency Interdisciplinary Collaboration

Other early reform efforts strove for parallel institutional and disciplinary changes in autonomous criminal justice organizations; however, parallel reform had negative consequences for criminal justice organizations and victims. The lack of a shared vision, mutual problem identification, or coordinated resolution process; dearth of interagency communication; and uneven reform across criminal justice agencies prevented meaningful intervention, increased system fragmentation, and endangered victims caught up in these uneven agency responses that coupled few perpetrator sanctions with inattention to victim safety (Hart, 1995).

Inclusive system-level responses that coordinate criminal justice efforts with advocacy services have been found to be more effective in enforcing offender accountability, significantly deterring further violence, and lengthening the time between violent episodes (Hart, 1995; Steinman, 1990; Syers & Edelson, 1992; Tolman, 1995). Coordinated, co-located interdisciplinary programs increase communication among service providers and between providers and victims. This communication provides insight on necessary system services and creates never before available services for victims (Campbell & Aherns, 1998). Police officers who receive interagency interdisciplinary training in identifying, reporting, and intervening in family incidents are more likely to participate in interagency programs and are more willing to work with program advocates (Hart, 1995; Holmes, 1998; Steinman, 1990; Syers & Edelson, 1992; Tolman, 1995).

Teaming police first responders, victim advocates, prosecutors, and probation and parole officers can improve the quality of investigations, increase prosecutorial effectiveness for domestic violence cases, and give victims access to community and system advocacy services (Whetstone, 2001). Cases addressed by an interdisciplinary collaborative program can increase victim satisfaction with service and support during calls for service and court appearances. Prosecutors and judges find that officers working in interdisciplinary collaborative programs prepared cases better than nonprogram officers. Personnel in coordinated programs have greater job satisfaction and less burnout because of their focus on the importance of their work and opportunities to share experiences.

The Domestic Violence Task Force Model

Some jurisdictions use the law enforcement task force model to formally include system and community advocates in multidisciplinary domestic violence units, since the task force model is familiar to law enforcement (Hart, 1995). In a domestic

violence task force, criminal justice agencies officially coordinate their responses to domestic violence issues by making all participating agencies' protocols compatible. Additionally, new training and problem-solving protocols are created so that the program can plug service and procedural gaps. The task force model is most effective when it includes a strong focus on victim safety, advocate leadership equal to criminal justice leadership, and significant victim services. In one domestic violence task force that coordinated efforts of police, prosecution, court, and advocate responses, some new domestic violence incidents were delayed more than a year longer than in the traditional approach (Tolman, 1995).

Task force model programs sanction perpetrators by educating law enforcement officers in investigation of domestic violence incidents and collection of evidence (Hart, 1995; Weisz, 1999). When law enforcement agencies coordinate with prosecutors and dedicated domestic violence courts in task force programs, convictions markedly increase. Conviction rates increase further when task force programs provide system advocacy support for victim witnesses throughout each step of the case (Hart, 1995). Some domestic violence task forces also provide community advocacy by connecting victims with necessary community services such as counseling, parenting training, financial support for living expenses, relocation, or medical care. When prosecutors or law enforcement lead domestic violence task force programs, the programs often do not maintain meaningful advocate participation at program policy, supervisor, and practitioner levels. Soon victim-centered goals are lost as policy priorities, and these programs support victims only to further prosecution goals (Hart, 1995).

The Domestic Violence Victim Response

Domestic violence victims supported by system advocates participate more fully in their cases than those victims who do not have advocate support (Weisz, 1999). Relationships with community advocates increase victims' use of police services, their ability to access legal services, and their participation in their case's prosecution. Although system and community advocacy services cannot address all of the complex problems faced by domestic violence victims, early advocate services provide much needed support for all aspects of victims' lives (Sullivan, Campbell, Angelique, Eby, & Davidson, 1994). Victims favor creation of inclusive programs with specialized domestic violence courts and system and community victim advocacy services (Smith, 2001).

Hypotheses and Methodology

Hypotheses

The hypotheses used to investigate the level of participation and parity of community and system advocates in the SRDVT are based on evaluations of the program's implementation and outcomes. Hypothesis I predicts that the grant award and implementation of the new program will lead to advocate participation in creation of region-wide changes in policies and protocols to address domestic violence issues. Hypothesis II predicts that accomplishment of the grant goals will result in advocates maintaining an equal position in relation to criminal justice program participants.

Methodology

Research Design

Evaluating federally grant-funded programs has become the norm in recent years as the federal level increasingly funds numerous “experimental sites” tailored to fit local needs in order to discover the most effective. This article reports SRDVT process and outcome evaluation findings that have a direct bearing on advocacy participation and parity in SRDVT. Review of published research suggests that advocate participation and parity can provide significant benefits to victims and the criminal justice system, such as increased time between violent episodes, decreased levels of violence, and increased system efficiency and effectiveness. Advocate parity is seldom maintained in programs led by law enforcement agencies.

Rossi and Freeman (1993) have identified three phases of evaluation research: (1) program conceptualization and design, (2) monitoring and accountability of program implementation, and (3) assessment of program utility. In evaluating a program, selection of the appropriate research strategy is dependent on the purposes of the evaluation and the evolutionary stage of the program (Berk & Rossi, 1990; Bingham & Felbinger, 1989; Patton, 1997; Rossi & Freeman, 1993).

When programs have already been conceptualized and designed and have gathered funding, as the SRDVT had at the time this evaluation began, a monitoring and accountability evaluation, also called a process evaluation, is the appropriate research design. Program innovators had already diagnosed and defined a social problem, conceptualized a strategy to be used to treat the social problem, and were poised to operationalize that strategy. The SRDVT process evaluation examined both the formal and informal processes of the program implementation, identified successes and failings in the implementation, delineated why program decisions were made, and chronicled program development continuously throughout the implementation process, as recommended by Bingham and Felbinger (1989), Patton (1997), and Rossi and Freeman (1993). In an outcome evaluation, changes that realistically can be attributed to program activities, not to other causes, are documented. The SRDVT outcome evaluation documented and assessed region-wide changes (outcomes) that could reasonably be attributed to program activities.

The SRDVT’s broad program goals of increasing offender accountability and victim safety were to be actualized through the following five ancillary grant goals: (1) creation of a coordinated, co-located, region-wide, innovative, state-of-the-art, cross-disciplinary unit based on the law enforcement task force model, (2) utilization of a vertical case management format to handle domestic violence cases in the region, (3) team building activities to emphasize the problems of domestic violence victims and promote mutual understanding and knowledge sharing between all the disciplines in the SRDVT, (4) victim legal advocacy and safety equivalent to the criminal justice goals of successful prosecution and offender accountability, and (5) development of an electronic tracking system linking all criminal justice system agencies to provide online access to the case’s entire history and the offender’s criminal history and lethality assessment.

Data Collection

Between May 1997 and August 2001, direct observations of 70 SRDVT Policy Board, Operations Board, and practitioner level meetings; and 29 court actions were completed. Thirty-six interviews were conducted with individuals who brought up issues at meetings for the evaluator's clarification; those who could provide background on decisions made during meetings; and prosecutors, advocates, and detectives concerning court actions and program processes.

Eleven focus group interviews were conducted overall. Early in the program implementation process and a year later, focus group interviews were conducted with SRDVT program participants at every level to gauge impressions and opinions early in the program for comparison with later focus group interview responses. Two focus group interviews were conducted with SRDVT Policy Board members, and two were done with members of the Operations Board. Focus group interviews early and later in the program implementation were conducted with SRDVT practitioners from most of the program's disciplines. Supervisors were not included in the practitioners' focus group interviews so that practitioners would feel comfortable discussing issues important to their program level. Two focus group interviews were conducted with program detectives, two with program advocates, and two with program prosecutors. The misdemeanor domestic violence court judge serves on the Policy Board, so she was included in Policy Board focus group interviews. SRDVT probation officers were interviewed individually due to their heavy work schedules. The domestic violence court commissioner was interviewed separately due to ethical considerations. One focus group interview was conducted with local law enforcement personnel who do not work in SRDVT in order to assess their response to changes in law enforcement policies and procedures due to SRDVT actions.

Data Collection Findings

The Spokane Regional Domestic Violence Team

The SRDVT policy makers created a co-located, interdisciplinary program based on the task force model. This structure was drawn from the local needs assessment meetings and the Department of Justice Violence Against Women Grant Office grant criteria that required advocacy to have parity in the program with criminal justice agencies. The needs assessment revealed that Spokane area agencies addressing domestic violence issues considered a coordinated community task force that responded to local domestic violence victim service needs, public safety issues, offender accountability issues, and system liability concerns a necessity. The task force model utilized by SRDVT already had been successfully applied locally to collaborative drug programs, so this structure offered a familiar viable framework for coordination of intergovernmental criminal justice and nonprofit, advocate social service agencies in a multidisciplinary program, which participants call "one stop shopping" for victims. The SRDVT addresses all city and most county domestic violence violations, misdemeanor and felony, by providing co-located advocacy, investigative, and prosecutorial functions. Spokane municipal court, misdemeanor county court, and city and county probation are also program partners, but due to ethical and safety issues, they are not co-located with advocates, detectives, and prosecutors.

Changes in Participating Agencies' Protocols and Procedures

Advocate participation and parity can be ascertained through changes in program policies and procedures and changes in the partnering agencies' policies and procedures. System and community advocacy behaviors can also be gauged through policies and procedures. In this section, each partnering agency and its SRDVT practitioners are assessed to gauge their interaction with advocates and advocates' participation in setting policies and procedures for the program.

Law Enforcement

SRDVT detectives and advocates partner to do roll call trainings so that local officers become familiar with advocates and their professional and ethical norms and outlooks and understand the reality of domestic violence. Regular roll call trainings at police and sheriff's offices also keep officers apprised of current procedures and reinforce academy and inservice domestic violence training.

Law enforcement first responders now routinely carry cards with information on SRDVT advocacy services and locally available domestic violence services. These cards are given to all domestic violence victims at crime scenes and to all participants at domestic violence calls when there is no evidence of a domestic violence offense.

SRDVT created special packets for patrol use when responding to domestic violence calls for service. Officers receive a laminated evidence collection checklist, supplemental domestic violence report forms with an anatomical drawing for marking injuries, case disposition notices, an information sheet explaining types and purposes of various orders for protection, and a checklist for use with call-in reporting. Polaroid cameras are in all police cars so pictures of evidence can be taken at the scene. Domestic violence evidence collection training is done at the academy, roll calls, and inservice trainings.

Although time constraints limit team detectives to handling only felony cases, it is the detectives' responsibility to make sure paperwork is completed so that misdemeanor arrestees are not released after the mandatory 72 hours without charges being filed. SRDVT detectives collaborate with other program disciplines for law enforcement training, presentations to other jurisdictions, and gap-closing procedure changes for all partnering agencies.

In response to advocates' proposals, law enforcement records departments have changed their procedures to promote victim safety by promptly inputting data on jail releases and no contact orders. Victims are now informed before perpetrators are released, and patrol has access to the most up-to-date information on orders, allowing officers to promptly arrest those who violate no contact orders.

City and County Prosecutors

Early in the program, prosecutors began including advocate information in all court actions. Judges have found this information beneficial in making decisions, so they now actively solicit direct advocate input during every domestic violence court procedure. Improved evidence collection at the scene has resulted in better

labeling of cases as misdemeanors and felonies. Stronger cases going to court now produce higher rates of convictions and guilty pleas. With this increased offender accountability, greater safety for victims should follow.

SRDVT advocates made prosecutors and the misdemeanor court aware of the latest domestic violence perpetrator treatment research. This research suggests that anger management is of little use in preventing domestic violence recidivism because it does not address the control issues inherent to the cycle of violence. Research also identifies a connection between chemical abuse and violent episodes. In response, new sentencing recommendations have been developed in favor of perpetrator treatment programs and drug and alcohol abuse treatment, often at the same time, over anger management training programs.

Advocates

Working with the court advocates created a new process for no contact order recalls initiated by victims to protect victims from abusers who coerce or manipulate victims into requesting that their no contact orders be withdrawn. Victims must now meet with a SRDVT advocate, who assists in the development of a safety plan before the court will grant a hearing to review the recall request. In concert with judicial officers, advocates also developed a new process that defendants must follow to request the recall of a no contact order, including having hearing notices served on prosecutors and victims.

Working together, the YWCA and Eastern Washington State University, which has a training program for domestic violence advocates, designed an advocate internship program to train students in system and community domestic violence advocacy at the SRDVT. The SRDVT internship is now a required part of Eastern Washington State University's domestic violence victim advocacy coursework.

Spokane County District Court (Misdemeanor Court)

A dedicated domestic violence docket was established to address all misdemeanors and first appearances for felonies. A regularly scheduled probation review docket monitors offenders' treatment compliance and follows up with prompt arrest and incarceration for those not in compliance. Vertical case management allows probation officers access and communication with prosecutors, detectives, and advocates, so probation has immediate notification of new offenses or probation violations. Before these changes, the time from re-offenses and probation violations to show cause and probation violation hearings was one year. It is now six months.

Vertical Case Management

Vertical case management is an ancillary grant goal that was accomplished early in the program implementation. To close system gaps, SRDVT handles city and county domestic violence cases. If an offender has cases pending in both jurisdictions or re-offends, the same prosecutor handles all of his or her cases. The same advocate always supports his or her victims. The prosecutor and advocate are paired together permanently.

Vertical case management has been a catalyst in integrating SRDVT practitioner disciplines by causing prosecutors and advocates to work closely together. Victims get needed community services while being supported throughout the case process and are able to have a relationship with the advocate that is beyond the abuser's control. Vertical case management and related procedural changes have increased the effectiveness of the local criminal justice system by shortening case processing times. The time from arrest to filing charges in misdemeanor cases has dropped from over three months to two months, while the time from filing to adjudication now takes three months instead of six.

Domestic Violence Offender Tracking and Lethality Assessment Electronic Database

During the outcome evaluation period, SRDVT planned to establish an electronic offender-tracking database that would be available to all members. SRDVT was not able to accomplish this goal as planned. The database was to have a lethality assessment component and be available to the entire local criminal justice system.

Information for the database was to come from advocate victim interviews; victims would know the most about their abuser's behavior. These interviews are recorded on advocate in-take sheets, which were to be amended to collect data for the lethality assessment component. Advocates were also expected to input their information to the database. First, advocates were concerned about the extra time needed for them to collect the new data and input it all into the database. Second, and more significant, were advocates' concerns about the revictimization of domestic violence victims. Advocates reasoned that intake sheet information put into the database might ultimately be accessed by defense attorneys through discovery and become part of the court record, where it would be available in family court for custody decisions.

Sometimes domestic violence victims have lost custody of their children in Spokane Superior Court when defendants, after getting out of jail, used information from their own trials to demonstrate that victims allowed their children to remain in a dangerous environment (i.e., a home in which one parent abused the other). The court agreed that not removing the children demonstrated that domestic violence victims were unfit parents and awarded custody to convicted domestic violence perpetrators.

The database conceptualization was changed by removing the lethality assessment component and gaining information for the Domestic Violence Offender-Tracking Database from police reports. All domestic violence police reports written by the Spokane Police Department and the Spokane County Sheriff's Office are entered into the database daily by clerks hired for this task. In setting up an offender tracking program, advocates on all three program levels suggested procedure changes, including that the program maintains a strong advocate component at all levels and preserves the program's original focus on keeping victim safety goals equal to offender accountability goals.

Data Analysis

Results of the SRDVT process and outcome evaluations suggest that the partnering agencies have directed a significant proportion of their resources toward domestic violence issues and have made SRDVT a policy priority in their agencies. Evidence of this priority is particularly suggested by the participating agencies' willingness to adopt new procedures that have been created and proposed by SRDVT advocate practitioners. SRDVT answers many of the partnering agencies' programmatic needs, and coordination with advocate agencies has improved performance on domestic violence issues.

All of SRDVT's ancillary grant goals except one were accomplished effectively. A coordinated, co-located, region-wide, innovative, state-of-the-art, cross-disciplinary unit based on the law enforcement task force model utilizing vertical case management was set up in the first 18 months of the program. Advocates at all program levels—policy, supervisory, and practitioner—were given the same accord as criminal justice participants. During the same time, team building activities were conducted that emphasized the problems of domestic violence victims and promoted mutual understanding and knowledge sharing between SRDVT criminal justice disciplines and advocates, who had never before been formal partners with criminal justice agencies. Community advocacy services, such as legal advocacy and safety, were given equality with criminal justice system advocacy, successful prosecution, and offender accountability. Collaboration between team disciplines, adoption of vertical case management, and better evidence collection at the crime scene have resulted in offenders more often going to trial or court-ordered treatment, a significant reduction in the time from arrest to adjudication, and a more realistic view of the scope of the domestic violence problem in the region for team personnel.

Practitioners from all program disciplines collaborate to increase the criminal justice system's response to domestic violence situations. Practitioners pressure their home agencies to change policies and protocols to reflect better ways they have discovered to help victims and sanction perpetrators, as demonstrated by the SRDVT practitioners and partnering agencies' willingness to change policies and procedures in response to advocate input. Advocacy practitioners report that many benefits have arisen from their inclusion in SRDVT, including the ability to identify and correct system problems.

Inclusion of advocates in the SRDVT is seen by all the partnering agencies as the primary means of keeping victims from being lost in the system. The community advocacy role, which consistently connects victims with needed community services, is in addition to the system advocacy role, which program advocates fill by encouraging victims to testify in court and otherwise supporting the prosecutors' work to increase offender accountability.

Vertical case management continues to be one of the most effective procedures for increasing offender accountability and victim safety. Team prosecutors are strongly in favor of vertical case management and believe that the collaboration of advocates and prosecutors makes SRDVT cases strong in court. Vertical case management and dedicated court dockets for misdemeanor first appearances, trials, and probation violations have significantly shortened the time that offenders are

not held responsible by the system, thus encouraging greater victim safety and increased offender accountability.

Vertical case management increases advocates' job satisfaction because they work with a victim from the beginning to the end of the case and in subsequent cases. Advocates are able to act as both system and community advocates when they work with victims on their cases and when victims come to the SRDVT offices for legal advocacy services. When there is a conflict between community and system advocacy roles and behaviors, program advocates satisfy their community advocacy goals in conjunction with or before performing system advocacy duties.

Advocates continue to maintain their strong voice in the program and their parity, suggesting that victim safety continues to have equal importance in the program with offender accountability goals. Program advocates continue to be proactive in their outlook. They have collaborated with other program discipline practitioners to institute processes that promote victim safety.

The challenges in implementing the domestic violence offender tracking database and lethality assessment demonstrate a failure of program theory. At program conceptualization, policy-level advocates did not recognize that the proposed database and lethality assessment would violate community advocacy ethical and professional norms, and other program partners did not know enough about advocate ethics and norms to recognize that there might be a problem. Thus, this program theory failure resulted from communication breakdown during program conceptualization. SRDVT advocates' refusal to participate in the database demonstrates that these advocates will fulfill system advocacy goals only if they do not violate community advocacy norms. The database as implemented is only available to SDRVT personnel, not all regional criminal justice agencies, and the data comes from police reports of domestic violence calls for service. Without the advocates' victim data, there can be no lethality assessment.

Stronger evidence collection at domestic violence crime scenes has resulted in better cases going to court, higher conviction rates, and increased rates of negotiated guilty pleas. With more abusers sentenced to incarceration and domestic violence perpetrator treatment, advocates can assist victims to create safe lives for themselves. Shifts in sentencing to perpetrator treatment programs demonstrate the influence of SRDVT advocates on program and criminal justice policies and procedures.

Summation

Hypothesis I predicted that the grant award and SRDVT implementation process would lead to advocate participation in policy and protocol changes. Data analysis suggests that advocates often informed policy and procedure changes. For example, advocates were responsible for changes in addressing petitions to withdraw no contact orders and perpetrator sentencing to treatment programs. Thus, advocates in the program have been equal policymakers and collaborated in changing protocols and procedures but have also become recognized on their own as professionals and authoritative resources.

Hypothesis II predicted that the accomplishment of grant goals would result in advocates attaining and maintaining parity in program participation. In analyzing

the data, SRDVT advocates' community advocacy concerns seem to override their system advocacy goals. System advocates, as members of the criminal justice system, would have participated in database data collection as originally conceived. By refusing to provide necessary data for the planned offender-tracking and lethality assessment database, SRDVT advocates demonstrated that they have enough power in the program to disregard requests that violate their ethical and professional norms. Additionally, their refusal reveals that they hold community advocacy above system advocacy. Community and system advocacy roles, actions, and participation have supported and furthered criminal justice goals. The SRDVT and its partnering agencies have greatly advanced domestic violence advocacy in the region.

Program accomplishments can be attributed to coordination and consensus between partnering disciplines. The meeting of minds, not power, has been the foundation for their agreement and action. Early excitement prompted participants at every level to form a cohesive organization, but with the newness worn off, each discipline remains convinced of significant program benefits to victims, offenders, and partnering disciplines.

Conclusion

This study suggests that formal collaborations of criminal justice agencies with not-for-profit private agencies can create positive outcomes for partnering criminal justice systems and private agencies and their programmatic goals. At a time when governments are seeking resourceful ways to improve services while reducing costs, coordinated programs, like the SRDVT, that include advocacy agencies as formal partners can improve services and reduce costs. With more evaluations of grant-funded projects becoming available, site-specific evaluation findings, such as this SRDVT evaluation, can be used to inform both program and policy decisions for other sites through the description, understanding, and explanation of the program being studied (Hamel, Dufour, & Fortin, 1990; Schofield, 1993). Coordinated, collaborative, interdisciplinary domestic violence programming may also have applications for other community problems if utilized for issues for which consensus already exists on problem definition and approach (Andranovich, 1997).

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Endnotes

- ¹ The author wishes to thank the policy makers, supervisors, and personnel of the Spokane Regional Domestic Violence Team for their assistance and openness throughout this project.
- ² Spokane County District Court includes City of Spokane Municipal Court and Spokane County Probation Office.

Lucy Edwards Hochstein is an assistant professor of criminal justice at Radford University in Radford, Virginia. She earned her PhD in political science from Washington State University, where she focused on public administration issues. Much of her research is in criminal justice program evaluations, especially needs assessment, process evaluation, and outcome evaluation. Her research interests include formal interagency collaborations and public-private partnerships addressing community issues.

Restorative Policing: A Community-Wide Response to Mental Illness

Joel Fay, PsyD, San Rafael Police Department
Miles Kramer, LCSW, Marin County Community Mental Health

Introduction

Recent public policy failures and fiscal decisions have dramatically increased the frequency of law enforcement contacts with mentally disturbed individuals. With the enactment of community-oriented policing, law enforcement's role has changed from reactive enforcers of laws and rules to proactive community peacekeepers and caretakers, transitioning police officers into the front line response for the "treatment resistant" mentally ill.

Severe and persistent mental illnesses, especially those compounded by substance abuse, are traditionally treated by long-term supportive services, psychiatry, and ongoing case management. Police officers in the field provide expedient, ineffective, short-term emergency intervention. Law enforcement is unable to provide the interventions needed to improve the situations of mentally ill persons or even prevent future calls for service. Repeated calls for police service drain needed emergency resources, clog our courts, and crowd our jails. Compounding the problem is an underfunded and overwhelmed mental health system struggling to meet the needs of its clients and fulfill its legal mandates. Police officers quickly learn that arrest is more immediately effective than psychiatric commitment. Eventually, mentally ill individuals, who are not criminal or antisocial by character, spend time in jail and eventually prison as the criminal justice system struggles to case manage and treat mentally ill persons. Sadly, once involved in the criminal justice process, mentally ill offenders will remain involved twice as long as undiagnosed persons (RDA, 2001).

Michael's Story – Part I

Michael graduated from high school and college in three years each, at the top of his classes. After earning a master's in business administration from a major California university, Michael provided professional accounting and financial services for over 20 years with success. During Michael's career, his fierce dedication, passionate commitment, and ability to tirelessly work long hours earned him tremendous respect and financial reward.

In retrospect, Michael's dedication to duty was an early sign of his mental illness. Michael soon began to overextend himself and stay awake for several days at a time, and he eventually became lost in his work. Michael's marriage suffered, and his wife eventually left him due to his erratic behavior and mood swings. Michael was first noticed on the streets of San Rafael in 1995 after losing his job and his home. Michael has bi-polar disorder but refused to accept the reality of his illness or his need for treatment. Law enforcement encounters with Michael were generated by his manic symptoms, paranoid verbally abusive outbursts and occasional physical assaults. Michael soon

became psychotic and believed people were conspiring against him. Michael's delusional beliefs convinced him people were stalking him and threatening his life. Michael attempted to make numerous police reports and often confronted the citizens he believed to be stalking him with accusations and threats. Fed up with police officers ignoring his delusional complaints, Michael filed formal complaints against the officers and threatened civil action.

Setting & History

In 1995, Marin County, located just north of San Francisco, reported a median household income of \$86,800 and the highest housing costs in the State of California. Since many mentally ill citizens live on monthly SSI payments of approximately \$650.00 per month, they often become homeless and frequently come into contact with law enforcement. In 1999, 4,281 people in Marin County were homeless at some point during the year, and at least 425 were mentally ill (Marin Continuum of Housing and Services Community Interaction Partnership Report, 1999; Marin Continuum of Care Plan, 1999). Homeless and multiply diagnosed persons often avoid treatment and can languish for years in a cycle of isolation, incarceration, and illness before they become acute enough to require restrictive long-term care. During the three-year period from January 1997 until December 1999, 422 people with histories of mental health treatment were arrested in Marin County; 171 had serious mental health conditions and experienced multiple arrests. "Survival crimes," such as petty theft, failing to appear for court appointments, and crimes associated with mental health crisis episodes or the effects of substance abuse, accounted for 64% of arrests, and only 6% of the crimes could be classified as seriously violent. Marin's mentally ill offenders (MIOs) did not "age out" of the criminal justice system in their late 20s or early 30s like non-MIOs. Instead, their frequency of arrest peaked in their late 30s and did not drop off significantly until the population reached its 50s (RDA, 2001).

Problem Definition

Factors in California that contribute to or maintain the frequent meetings between police and the mentally ill include the severely underfunded community mental health system. The community mental health system accounts for only 3.5% of all Medicaid dollars spent in California where Medicaid expenditures for mental health rank 51st in the United States (Cervine, 2002). California's involuntary psychiatric commitment process, as authorized by the Lanterman, Petris, Short (LPS) law, was passed prior to the development of atypical antipsychotics. The LPS law was created to protect the rights of mentally ill citizens but has been so liberally interpreted that only the most severely compromised individuals receive medium- to long-term involuntary treatment and only in inpatient settings. Acknowledging the steadily growing numbers of mentally ill persons in the streets, officers refer to the LPS act as the law that declares, "Let People Suffer."

Law enforcement has become the primary management agency for the homeless mentally ill (Moreno & Sobel, 2000). Patrol officers assume the role of community case managers for many well-known mentally ill citizens. Marin County Jail became one of the county's mental health inpatient treatment facilities, spending approximately \$90,000 on psychotropic medications during the 1999-2000 fiscal year. The system became reactive and stopped working in the best interest of its

client; instead of coordinated community treatment, mentally ill citizens were being treated through frequent incarceration and containment in the county jail. For many mentally ill persons, incarceration became the primary avenue to adequate long-term health care (Milton, 2001). Legislative and fiscal changes in the mental health system limited access to emergency and long-term care for the chronically ill (Seager, 2000), and the resistant, dually diagnosed homeless mentally ill continued to cycle through the criminal justice system (Treatment Advocacy Center, 2001.)

Contributing Causes

A. Governmental and Program Limitations

Public mental health services are underfunded and overutilized (Szegegy, 2001). Since 1999, however, state grant funds have improved mental health programs. Despite these grants, California continues to be the worst funded Medicaid community mental health program in America (Cervine, 2002). The current national fiscal crisis and California's own deficit of \$38 billion will undoubtedly reduce available mental health services to the legal minimums in many counties. Current reductions in mental health funding are especially damaging as the last few years have seen tremendous successes among grant-funded initiatives targeting at-risk children, homeless adults, and mentally ill offenders. Traditional government funding and competitive grants often limit service and client selection criteria by narrowly defining target groups. Limitations in target groups and compressed resources encourage some agencies to informally ignore the chronically arrested, labeling their behavior criminal instead of symptom-based. Difficult clients are often ineligible for housing or support services because of historical events or the inability to follow through with treatment. Excluded clients often wait in a gray area, not sick enough for involuntary treatment and too sick for anything but homelessness, incarceration, and desperation. The population of homeless dually diagnosed citizens is abandoned to languish in the streets under the assumption that respect for a client's right to ignore or refuse services must come before compassionate and creative interventions.

B. Client Limitations

Many homeless and multiply diagnosed individuals do not desire treatment and actively seek to avoid it. The side effects of outdated drugs, experiences in treatment, and previous hospitalizations discourage individuals from seeking mental health care. Many homeless people manage the symptoms of their mental illnesses with street drugs, developing dependencies that further limit their access to mental health care. Dually diagnosed clients are often required to stop using drugs or alcohol without treatment before medication can be provided to treat the symptoms of their mental illnesses. Outdated treatment methods and barriers to traditional services maintain homeless and mentally ill people in a cycle of substance abuse, desperate poverty, arrest, and incarceration (Husted, Charter, & Perrou, 1995).

Traditional mental health programs have embraced a "client-centered" approach that maximizes self-determination over safety and early intervention. While creative outreach programs abound, many mental health professionals feel that reacting to crime among the mentally ill is a law enforcement responsibility. Monahan (2001) clarifies the primary concern of the field of forensic mental health, presenting the

simple and disturbing fact that mentally ill persons who remain untreated are five times more likely to commit violence than persons without diagnosable mental illness. Diagnosed persons who abuse alcohol behave violently 12 times more frequently than undiagnosed persons. The low cost and rampant availability of methamphetamine has likely provided the most disturbing statistic increasing the likelihood of violence among mentally ill persons who abuse drugs sixteen times that of undiagnosed individuals (Monahan, 2001). Clearly, Monahan's (2001) findings must compel mental health professionals to take action on behalf of clients whose risk of committing acts of violence is predicted entirely by the acuity of their symptomatology.

"Thus, almost all of the difference in rates of violence between patients and nonpatients could be accounted for by the level of active psychotic symptoms that the patients were experiencing" (Monahan, 2001).

C. Interagency Limitations

Instead of emphasizing a working partnership, law enforcement and mental health professionals failed to work together. The two systems worked side by side, sharing clients, while viewing each other with suspicion and both believing the other to be incompetent. Contacts between law enforcement personnel and mental health providers were perceived as a series of frustrating encounters with few positive outcomes. Fragmenting into disconnected service units, mental health providers focused on long-term care and viewed police as hired muscle for emergencies (Stein, 1998). Despite this dependence on law enforcement as crisis intervention specialists, mental health providers often chastised police for dealing harshly with mentally ill persons or incarcerating resistant clients. Despite the common police frustration with the seemingly fruitless mental health call, officers often did not attempt to educate themselves on mental health issues, and many blamed the clients, misjudging symptoms of mental illness for defiance and addiction.

Within the judiciary of the criminal justice system, a tremendous degree of mistrust and frustration exists. Police officers often criticize the District Attorney's office for failing to file criminal charges when a mental illness exists. Prosecution often accuses defense counsel of exaggerating symptoms to facilitate a release from jail without consideration of the long-term consequences for an untreated client and an unprotected community. Due process regulations and overburdened systems force courts to manage each incident as a discrete episode, minimizing a person's long-term clinical history to adjudicate the current case. Both sides of the judiciary are under tremendous pressure to process cases quickly and cost-effectively, developing a system that is efficient but wholly ineffective for any of the involved constituencies. When clients fail to receive treatment, the severity of their criminal behavior increases predictably until an individual is finally committed to state prison.

D. Law Enforcement Limitations

For many years, law enforcement officers responded to mental health emergencies by placing clients involuntarily into psychiatric emergency centers or defusing situations in the field. Mental health services seemed confusing and ineffective to most officers, and calls for service to mentally ill people who seemed to get worse became frustrating. With a minimum of training and without the proper tools, law

enforcement attempted, without success, to solve the problem through traditional methods of arresting and rearresting the mentally ill homeless (Hails & Borum, 2003). The authors estimate that various agencies spent nearly four hundred thousand dollars booking, housing, criminally prosecuting and medically stabilizing one individual, without success. Since most mentally ill homeless people are arrested for symptom-influenced behavior, a lifetime of jail days can never substitute for effective treatment (Monahan, 2001).

Statistics show that treatment is more likely than incarceration to result in positive outcomes; however, police officers quickly learn that treatment is a suspect process and provides little immediate relief for the problems they are dispatched to handle. Police culture values rapid and decisive problemsolving over long-term solutions. A distrust of the mental health system often leads an officer to arrest an individual rather than attempt to engage the person in treatment through the use of an involuntary psychiatric hold (Patch & Arrigo, 1999). Most officers learn early in their careers that mentally ill people don't get better in a single episode, and some may be back on the street after a trip to psychiatric emergency rapidly enough to continue causing problems on their shift. California's laws provide tremendous discretion to civil hearing officers, and even the most mentally ill person may be returned to the street in a very short period of time. For police, arrest and booking is comfortable, familiar, and rewarded. On a busy shift, booking takes only a fraction of the time and paperwork that an involuntary psychiatric detention requires. Police officers are rewarded for rapid decisions, handling difficult situations and efficiently returning to an available status; therefore, if police officers select the institutionally supported option of booking a mentally ill person, they are more likely to be rewarded and praised by their superiors and their peers. If police officers correctly identify an individual as a mentally disabled person and seek an involuntary psychiatric detention, they risk being considered slow, indecisive, or lacking sufficient courage to autonomously problem solve. This pattern of officers selecting incarceration over hospitalization is institutionally supported by the tremendous cost of a single day of hospital care compared to the cost of a day in jail.

In the absence of effective outreach and treatment, the criminal justice system becomes a reluctant clinician providing inadequate care to mentally ill clients, who are unlikely to remain in treatment outside of a confined setting. Despite the growing number of mentally ill inmates, the criminal justice system continues to specialize in episodic dispositions. Mentally ill persons who are unable or unwilling to enter the appropriate system of care land instead in a system that has neither initiative nor capacity to care for a compromised and forgotten population. As a result, law enforcement and especially jail custody personnel have become reluctant witnesses to a public health nightmare caused by a public policy tragedy.

Michael's Story – Part II

Despite many attempts by law enforcement and mental health workers to speak with Michael about his mental illness, he refused to acknowledge his need for help. On one occasion, Michael confronted a citizen and accused her of following him. During his tirade, he threatened to kill the woman, who immediately reported the incident to the police. Instead of ignoring the incident as another "Michael being Michael" call, the police decided to pursue the matter criminally and sent a report to the prosecutor for review. A San Rafael

Police Department officer met with the prosecutor and expressed a desire to use criminal charges to encourage Michael to accept mental health treatment. The officer also met with Michael's defense counsel to ask for assistance.

While waiting for the case to be reviewed by the prosecution, Michael's behavior escalated. Michael went to the sheriff's department and demanded action on a non-police matter. When the deputies refused to assist, Michael became combative and was wrestled to the ground, handcuffed, and arrested. As deputies brought Michael into custody, he kicked out the taillight of a patrol car. Michael was booked into the county jail, but his behavior was so erratic that he was soon transferred to a psychiatric facility for evaluation. Michael calmed down on a minimal amount of medication and was soon released to the streets. Michael did not attend any follow-up appointments.

Restorative Policing

A. An Alternative Law Enforcement Response

In response to the growing concern among the downtown merchants and citizens about the mentally ill homeless population, the San Rafael Police Department decided to try a innovative approach. The first step was to acknowledge that for many mentally ill people, an arrest without a plan was nothing more than a temporary incarceration and an ineffective use of resources.

In November 1999, San Rafael Police Officer Joel Fay, PsyD, began an innovative program, creating a paradigm shift in modern policing. Dr. Fay's needs assessment of the San Rafael community encouraged an approach that sought to reintegrate mentally ill homeless persons into the community. Dr. Fay developed an inter-agency collaborative specializing in mentally ill persons who frequently contact law enforcement. The effort involved shifting law enforcement's focus from arresting mentally ill offenders to challenging the treatment status quo. The process began by revising the police perspective of the homeless mentally ill. Officer Fay suggested that the mentally ill citizen was a victim of an inadequate service system. Shifting schematic blame from a person to the system began a process of engagement with a severely marginalized population. Dr. Fay's perspective recognized the role of mental illness in maintaining homelessness and criminal behavior.

B. Focusing on a Solution

In Marin, the implementation of Dr. Fay's law-enforcement-driven collaborative provided the required links to engage and treat the community's most difficult clients. Before officers could engage clients, however, they needed to engage the social service system. Dr. Fay proposed a partnership between law enforcement and treatment providers that would allow community service providers to gain the type of outreach and community presence required to intervene with homeless mentally ill persons, while assisting police departments with their most difficult citizens.

Moving toward this solution requires law enforcement and mental health providers to shift their focus away from organizational and fiscal issues and toward treatment goals while helping law enforcement consider a longer view. It should not surprise

police or mental health groups that in the end, they need one another to accomplish their goals.

Dr. Fay named his concepts and methods for working with mentally ill persons “Restorative Policing.” A Restorative Policing Project (RPP) has three basic goals:

1. To maintain public safety
2. To reduce harm to individuals and the communities
3. To restore marginalized individuals to a supportive natural community

To accomplish its goals, an RPP increases community awareness using community outreach and public speaking, encourages clients to use treatment and supportive services instead of criminal justice services, and uses individual advocacy as a primary intervention.

Marin County’s RPP collaborative allows law enforcement to bring cases directly to the mental health system requesting intervention in the life of a client. A synergy of police philosophy, social work, and psychiatry has allowed community mental health providers to successfully treat persons who were previously considered untreatable. This new collaboration with mental health providers has allowed law enforcement personnel to reduce fruitless calls for service, to gain compassion for the mentally ill, and to successfully intervene in the lives of persons they once thought of as bums or vagrants. Clients now see police as concerned public assistants instead of bullies and brutal enforcers. Police build relationships and become compassionately involved in the lives of persons they once felt to be subhuman. Police officers become essential advocates, filling the gaps in a service system that has been divided by maintaining accountability among the mentally ill and the agencies chartered to serve them.

C. Forensic Multidisciplinary Team

Marin’s RPP has two major components. The first is the Forensic Multidisciplinary Team (FMDT). Each month, 20 or more agencies meet to discuss law-enforcement-initiated case management requests under the umbrella of the FMDT. Participants in the FMDT include criminal justice, mental health, and community service agencies. At monthly meetings, FMDT members review law enforcement requests for innovative client services and develop individualized case management plans. Law enforcement officers become substantially involved in the case management of difficult clients bridging a gap between clinic and community once thought to be insurmountable.

The FMDT, which began as cautious collaboration, has developed into a true partnership. Adopting a “never-give-up” policy, the FMDT never rejects a referral and keeps clients on the roster until their cases are resolved. A successful resolution involves transferring the client from criminal justice to effective treatment. A client is removed from the FMDT roster once he or she engages in treatment. The guiding philosophy has developed into a collaborative action-oriented, client-focused workgroup instead of a long-term interagency strategy committee.

Allowing law enforcement to refer cases directly to mental health and community-based organizations may not seem revolutionary. The unique aspect of Marin’s

FMDT is the continued involvement of mental health liaison officers in the care planning and case management of the community's most difficult and compromised persons. The FMDT effectiveness depends on law enforcement officers not only intervening more skillfully in the moment of the crisis, but also following up after the incident to advocate for arrestees or detainees and ensuring the delivery of treatment services that are adequate to prevent further law enforcement contacts. The FMDT is not a treatment team, but a "get people into treatment" team.

D. Mental Health Liaison (MHL) Officers

The second component of the RPP is the Mental Health Liaison Officer Program. To assist the FMDT, each local law enforcement agency assigned an officer who participates in case planning and other project meetings. Using a specialized community-policing model, officers become familiar with the team's clients and their treatment plans. In this role, police assist FMDT members in locating clients and checking in on their placements, thus becoming a visible extension of the treatment plan. Clients and mental health professionals have come to rely on the MHL officers and frequently call on the services of the MHL officers to assist them. Families with a mentally ill member are also aware of MHL officers in their community and frequently ask to speak with these officers when efforts to engage a mentally ill relative have failed.

Michael's Story – Part III

The FMDT met and discussed Michael's situation. It was agreed that the criminal justice system would use jail sanctions to motivate a shift in Michael's behavior, while at the same time the mental health liaison officers and mental health workers conducted coordinated outreach. During these meetings with Michael, the FMDT offered to assist with his criminal justice problems if he accepted treatment in lieu of incarceration. A mental health client trained as a peer provider met with Michael to discuss the experience of life with a mental illness. Michael was given books on mental illness and started to attend a community mental health sponsored group on recognizing symptoms.

Michael's charges were reduced from felonies to misdemeanors, and Michael pled guilty to several charges. He received no additional jail time and was placed on probation. Michael engaged in treatment and began taking medication and participating in counseling. When Michael was unable to find a job, a mental health liaison officer contacted a local job-training program and advocated for Michael's admission to the program.

Michael has never violated probation and remains active in treatment and recovery. He is now in housing and working almost full time while attending school. Today, Michael's contacts with police take place regularly over a cup of coffee among friends.

Replication

The authors initially published their early efforts in *Restorative Policing* in early 2001, when the Marin County based program was the only one of its kind. Since this earlier writing, the program has been successfully replicated in three other

California counties. While the authors recognize that this approach may not be suitable in every community, it has been successfully replicated in communities with different dynamics but similar challenges. Larger jurisdictions may need to divide their communities into smaller segments to ensure the ability to focus on individual clients. The primary barriers to successful replication have been inadequate interagency cooperation and trust. Long standing cultural tensions between law enforcement personnel and mental health providers must be reduced, and successful partnerships must be developed. Organizational structures, which limit the continuity of care, widen the cracks in the safety net by hindering necessary collaboration. Communities interested in developing similar programs should identify primary stakeholders challenging institutional resistance by highlighting clients that illuminate an agency's failure to fulfill its mandates. Including additional agencies occurs naturally during treatment plan implementation as needed resources require expanded cooperation. Some agencies may participate briefly and then withdraw; others will come to depend on the RPP as an essential part of their service delivery matrix. The personality of the team and the critical partnerships develop as stakeholders work together. Participation and team building is best supported by actively involving members in the development of current case plans. As innovative and successful practices develop, previously uninvolved parties will welcome the opportunity to try new approaches and readily join. Eventually, a core group of individuals and agencies will institutionalize the RPP, and efforts to ensure its longevity will follow. It is important to remember that interpersonal and interagency relationships make the system work, and forming these relationships requires risk taking and innovation. The goal is a comprehensive interdisciplinary approach that blurs the traditional boundaries between involved agencies, assisting clients in overcoming traditional barriers to care.

Confidentiality and Conflict-of-Interest Issues

The issue of confidentiality remains an ever-present concern. Under California's Welfare and Institution Code, law enforcement is authorized to be part of a multidisciplinary team consisting of "persons who are trained in the prevention, identification, and treatment of abuse of elderly or dependent persons" (California 15754 WIC). During team meetings, team members are advised that confidential information must not be disclosed to non-team members and that information discussed cannot be used for purposes other than those activities consistent with treatment goals. Despite the institutional history of the RPP, concerns about confidentiality remain and must be constantly revisited to ensure the highest ethical standards. When legal limits about information sharing are present, it is essential that participants declare them, openly educating team members that legal boundaries exist, but partnerships prevail. As an example, a clinician may report at a meeting that he or she suspects that a client is using illegal drugs. A police officer may be aware that drug use is a violation of a client's probation but cannot use that information to arrest the client because of the team's agreement that treatment is the only viable objective. The agreement to share information must be supported by strict adherence to a philosophical understanding that arrest and criminalization will not solve a client's problem any more effectively in the future than it has in the past. Arrests that occur outside of FMDT interventions are incorporated into ongoing plans.

During the two years the described program has been in operation in Marin County, no law enforcement agency has mishandled confidential patient information, and no client has been criminalized because of his or her involvement in the team. Officers carry with them legal release-of-information forms and are encouraged to contact potential FMDT clients, explain the FMDT program, and have the clients sign an authorization for release of information. In our experience, the vast majority of potential clients will sign the release form.

For some individuals (both law enforcement and mental health), the concept of a law enforcement-mental health collaborative is difficult to accept. For some the restorative policing concept is inconsistent with their organization's traditional environment, and they are unwilling to assume the risks necessarily associated with innovation. Active inclusion of law enforcement personnel in a mental health treatment process is likely to be resisted by some mental health professionals on an ideological basis alone. Involved mental health and treatment staff must represent themselves assertively, honestly describing the legal limits that guide their practice. Law enforcement officers must be willing to adopt a new perspective and set aside some of the cultural assertiveness they are trained to rely upon in favor of partnership and problem solving.

"If an idea is contrary to or inconsistent with the traditions of its environment, its life is much more hazardous, its rate of growth is slower, and its chances of growing strong enough to bear first fruit reduced" (Stein, 1998).

Another potential difficulty in developing a criminal justice and mental health collaborative is the issue of conflict of interest. To prevent conflicts, forensic team clients scheduled for discussion are identified at the beginning of each team meeting, allowing team members to identify potential conflicts before the beginning of a client's presentation. Team members whose role or affiliation prevents their participation in a client's review excuse themselves from the meeting or curtail their participation in accordance with their individual professional or ethical mandates. An example of another conflict of interest based on role confusion occurred when one client threatened to shoot a law enforcement team member. This crime resulted in the arrest and prosecution of the client. Some team members were upset that the client was arrested; however, a person's involvement in the team does not protect the individual from prosecution. This situation was handled with honest discussions about the issues among the concerned team members. During the client's adjudication, every effort was made to engage him in treatment, using the arrest as an engagement opportunity in accordance with the team's goals.

Results/Outcomes

To date, the FMDT has treated 99 clients. Twelve clients left the area and have not been located. One client was sentenced to prison. Of the remaining 86 clients, 26 have been successfully diverted to treatment; 14 have been conserved; 18 are living in the community without treatment or police involvement; and two are deceased. The remaining 26 cases are still active with clients in varying stages of their treatment plan. A successful diversion means that the client is no longer being arrested and the primary treating agency is outside the criminal justice system.

Conclusion

Recently, representatives from the California Department of Mental Health came to Marin County to view our programs. After a presentation, we were asked to diagram how the information and cooperation flowed between the various agencies. While the many professionals in the room discussed how to create such a diagram, one of the mental health peer providers commented, "I got it. Imagine a circle—we're all inside it."

We recognize that developing interagency cooperation isn't easy, but over time with appropriate support and recognition and emphasis on common goals, governments can reduce the criminalization of the mentally ill. As one defense counsel stated, "We are both working towards the same goals from opposite sides of the same table."

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Joel Fay, PsyD, is a police officer with the San Rafael Police Department. Joel's primary assignment is working with the mentally ill offender population and diverting them from criminal justice to mental health. Joel is a licensed psychologist and coordinates the department's Peer Counseling and Critical Incident Debriefing Programs. Joel is a member of the American Psychological Association and the California Peace Officer's Association. He is President Elect of the Forensic Mental Health Association of California and President of the West Coast Post Trauma Retreat. Joel is a frequent instructor on forensic mental health issues and a guest speaker at numerous conferences throughout the country.

Miles Kramer, LCSW, is the forensic services supervisor for Marin County Community Mental Health. Miles has worked in a number of settings prior to coming to Marin County including juvenile services, acute psychiatric hospitals, school-based programs, residential treatment programs, and psychiatric emergency. Miles has an undergraduate degree from the University of California at Santa Barbara and an MSW from California State University at Fresno. As a founding member of the Marin County Forensic Multidisciplinary Team, Miles has worked for over two years in Marin County to bridge the gaps between law enforcement, criminal justice, and mental health systems to develop new ways to serve mentally ill offenders. Miles supervises Marin County Jail Psychiatric Services and Marin County's Mentally Ill Offender Grant project, known as STAR or Support & Treatment After Release. Miles has been involved in teaching mental health professionals, criminal justice officials, and police officers innovative ways to solve complex problems throughout the western United States. Miles is a member of the Forensic Mental Health Association of California and has presented at numerous Forensic Mental Health events and conferences.

Law Enforcement Collaboration with Mental Health Agencies: Working Across Geographical and Organizational Boundaries

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

Vladimir A. Sergevnin, PhD, Research Manager, Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board Executive Institute

We must all hang together, or assuredly we shall all hang separately.

- Benjamin Franklin

Introduction

For the last several decades, the mental health system has undergone a tremendous change and has shifted from institutional care to community care and support. Financial and ideological responsibilities for treatment of mentally ill individuals have shifted from the state and federal levels to county agencies. A significant number of mentally ill individuals currently reside in communities where they are engaged in numerous social interactions. As a result, law enforcement agencies have more encounters with them. The focus has shifted to the need to develop effective services through law enforcement and the creation of collaborative agreements with mental health agencies because of public anxiety and concerns related to some sensationalized or inaccurate media reports.

This article examines the collaborative arrangements created by stakeholders from different sectors of the community and their attempts to redesign social services for individuals in mental health crisis; these sectors include law enforcement agencies, mental health providers, and constituencies.

Scope of the Problem

Over the past decade, law enforcement and mental health agencies have been criticized for not being responsive, for being fragmented with many isolated agencies and points of access, for having gaps and parallel services, and for lacking accountability to the overall problem of dealing with people who are mentally ill. The practice of deinstitutionalization has compounded the mental illness crisis because commensurate resources have not been allocated for the medication and rehabilitation services necessary for the people who are mentally ill to live successfully in the community.

Dealing with mentally ill individuals has become a considerable part of law enforcement activities. According to Borum, Williams, Steadman, & Morrissey (1998), mental illness impacts between 7-10% of all police contacts. In Los Angeles County in 1999, around 5.7 million hours out of a total of 18 million hours were

dedicated to mental health calls (Joint Committee, 2000). Individuals with mental retardation, learning disabilities, and emotional disorders are arrested in numbers disproportionate to their prevalence in the general population (Veneziano, Veneziano, & Tribolet, 1987). One specific group of individuals in crisis that appears to have a high rate of arrests is people who are homeless and mentally ill. It is estimated that about 40-50% of the two million homeless Americans have mental disorders (Kondo, 2001). These individuals are twice as likely as other people who are homeless to be arrested or jailed, but most are arrested for misdemeanors (National Resource Center, 2003). Most studies find that even homeless, SMI persons are arrested predominately for nonviolent crimes, but some encounters with mentally ill people end in violence, including the use of lethal force. Studies indicate that the police arrest 20% of mentally ill people before they receive treatment (Bailey, 2001).

According to Finn and Stalans (1995), law enforcement officers held stereotypical images of mental illness and used these to judge the situation. About 53% of mentally ill inmates were in prison for a violent offense, compared to 46% of other inmates (Ditton, 1999). According to Bland and Orn (1986), persons with mental disorders are more likely to be involved in certain types of violence than the general population. Certain subgroups of individuals with serious mental illness are significantly more dangerous than persons in the general population (Lamb, Weiberger, & DeCuir, 2002). An example of this type of violence occurred in 2001 when two officers were killed while dealing with some mentally deranged persons (FBI, 2002). Generally, however, the distribution of offenses for people with mental illness is similar to that of the general population. Most arrests are for misdemeanors rather than felonies (83% for those with mental illness, 75% for the general population). Most of these misdemeanors are for less serious offenses (75% for people with mental illness, 84% for the general population) (Horwitz & Scheid, 1999).

According to McAfee and Musso (1995), the following four factors can explain the overrepresentation of mentally ill people in the criminal justice system: (1) the gullibility of many persons with disabilities, (2) their poor self-esteem, (3) their difficulty understanding concepts about crime, and (4) the situation of many persons with disabilities in high-crime neighborhoods.

Mentally ill persons are also more likely to be victims in the criminal justice system. In 1989, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that it was not unconstitutional to use the death penalty against mentally retarded defendants. Since then, about 30 prisoners with mental disabilities have been executed (Chelala, 1998).

Another aspect of the problem is the "Revolving Door Syndrome." This syndrome describes individuals who are picked up by law enforcement, assessed for mental illness, and released, only to repeat this process at a later time. This cycle is an enormous waste of time and resources to all stakeholders.

Law enforcement agencies involved in collaborative agreements are a small minority of criminal justice institutions. Today, most police departments continue to deal with mentally ill individuals without any collaboration with mental health agencies, consumers' families, the community, or other interested stakeholders.

As the problem of dealing with mentally ill persons has expanded, law enforcement and mental health agencies in some states have attempted to integrate their responses.

The need for collaboration is strong not only because agencies are suffering from budgets constraints but from overwhelming duplication in services. Some consumers are receiving services from three or four different treatment agencies.

Mentally Ill as a Target Population

An individual is regarded to be in mental crisis if he or she demonstrates the inability to think rationally, exercise adequate control over his or her behavior, take reasonable care of his or her welfare, or achieve a balance between circumstances and his or her impulses.

For the purpose of this analysis, we focus on mentally ill persons in crisis and the criminal justice system in general. Several characteristics of individuals in mental crisis can be beneficial in the analysis of collaborative agreements (Bender, Jurkanin, & Sergevnin, 2003):

Psychological	Social	Victimization
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Depression • Anxiety • Experiencing tunnel vision • Cannot maintain usual activities • Deficit of concentration • Insomnia or excessive sleeping • Deficit of personal grooming • Feelings of helplessness, hopelessness • Panic • Hallucinations • Self-destructive behaviors • Suicidal or homicidal ideation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Socially dysfunctional • Isolative • Socially unskilled • Unemployed • Homeless • Criminal history • Chronic misdemeanor • Disorderly conduct (e.g., panhandling, public urination) • Theft • Battery • Criminal trespassing • Alcohol and/or drug abuse • Negative lifestyle choices • Prostitution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stigmatizing • Discriminating • Mental profiling • Criminalizing • Deprivation of dignity • Sexually abused • Financially abused (financial and housing exploitation) • Physically abused • Psychologically abused • Drugs (self-medicating) • AIDS-STDs • Prostitution • Under-reported crime (Mentally ill on mentally ill, caregiver on mentally ill) • Neglected or self-neglect

Some of the factors listed in the table above can increase the difficulties of resolving encounters with mentally ill individuals. Law enforcement and mental health officials frequently encounter resistance from mentally ill persons, and it can be a challenge to direct those persons to treatment. Another concern is the purposeful and active manipulation of the mental health and criminal justice systems by consumers and members of the immediate family in order to avoid the financial and resource burdens associated with caring and treatment. Often, mentally ill persons have no family. Others have exhausted the patience of their family members. Frequently, families don't want them to be released from mental or criminal justice institutions. Significant proportions of mentally ill citizens, especially homeless individuals, come from broken families with limited resources that live in low-income communities.

Although families are the most important care providers for people with mental illness, they generally receive no formal training and very little support from mental health and law enforcement agencies. Primary care physicians rarely evaluate the status of a mentally ill person and are often not effective resources for families. As a result, families are triple victimized: (1) by the mentally ill individual; (2) by the community, which informally blames families for “not taking care of the problematic person”; and (3) by the law enforcement agency.

Some communities have been greatly concerned with the disorderly or criminal behavior of mentally ill citizens. Many people in those communities expect mentally ill individuals to stay in mental institutions and believe they shouldn't be given the freedom to choose their place of residence, work, or pleasure because they might be dangerous to society. Returning to work after receiving treatment for a mental illness or recovering from addiction can be a daunting prospect. It can be even more complicated for the mentally ill individual who has served some time in jail. Communities often treat mentally ill persons as possessing a contagious disease.

Some communities, however, have established programs to monitor the mentally ill (Porter, 1996). A 1999 survey of law enforcement departments in 194 U.S. cities with populations of 100,000 or more found that 78 cities had some type of program for dealing with people with mental illnesses (NAMI, 2001). Governments and communities have a responsibility to these individuals to ensure that every effort is made to implement a full range of relevant and appropriate services. Collaborative efforts in the form of agreements among stakeholders have started a period of redeveloping of mental health care service, on an extended social basis (Priebe & Turner, 2003).

Philosophy of Collaboration

The term *collaboration* has recently become the focus point of law enforcement and mental health partnership initiatives. Collaborative agreements represent a significant shift in collective psychology and philosophy and a new way of dealing with consumers for law enforcement and mental health administrators, providers, consumers, families, and other stakeholders. The partners view themselves as part of a joint effort and believe they can improve the quality of service through their participation in the collaboration. The various roles represented by the collaboration's partners necessitate creating a common mission philosophy. The mission statement of the partners usually expresses the foundation of most collaborative agreements and provides the basis for agreed upon principles and values, as well as general goals of the collaboration.

A fundamental theoretical issue in the philosophy of collaboration is the concept of social contract. According to the theories of Hobbes, Locke, and Rousseau (1762), social contract is the voluntary agreement among individuals by which organized society is brought into being and invested with the right to secure mutual protection and welfare (Webster's, 1996). The tradition of the social contract theory is an effort to enhance the quality of life in free society by requiring continuous efforts of establishing new forms of interactions between individuals, social entities, and government for the benefit of people. The most important implication of the social contract theory is that it opens the search for a form of association “that defends and protects the person and goods of each associate with all the common force”

(Rousseau, 1762). For Hobbes, Locke, and Hume, the fundamental idea of social contract is that individuals establish laws and institutions. For Rousseau, the idea of social contract is that of continuous contracting (Affeldt, 2000). The individual has to continuously search for new forms of common life on the basis of contracting with others. The approach of contracting is more flexible and allows free choice of the forms of collaboration. The most important lesson of the social contract theory is that we acknowledge the role of people in constructing social relationships in new forms continuously.

The social contract theory in the history of Anglo-American philosophy is predominantly viewed as the foundation of an abstract model of an ideal society. Philosophical implications from the social contract theory are not prescriptive. It is useful to view collaboration as an element of social contract. It is advantageous to reassess the philosophy of collaboration on a social contract basis.

Governments favor social contracts and collaborative agreements because they redirect responsibilities and reduce expenditures. Law enforcement and mental health agencies have arrived at an understanding of the need to formally address not only their roles in criminal justice and health segments of society, but also their social roles in the community. An important question arising from this approach is whether these collaborative agreements have the resources for transition from "formal public sector" to the "informal sector" of collaboration and networking. It is useful to make conceptual distinctions between informal collaborative agreements and formal service-giving institutions. The transition from institutional services to collaborative agreements is likely to show systemic patterns, and the collaborative agreements will tend to establish formal contracts.

Although collaborative agreements are a recent development, partnership endeavors involving the criminal justice and mental health sectors have been documented since the 1960s (Gerdes, Yuen, Wood, & Frey, 2001). Early evidence of these collaborations demonstrates the positive impact of establishing collaborative entities like Crisis Intervention Teams (Margolis, 2002). Today, most agreements establish the necessity of partnerships with local and state governments, federal agencies, and private and public agencies in reducing barriers to services and increasing resources and funding (National Resource Center, 2003).

The term *collaborative agreement* has different meanings to various agencies. According to Rinehart, Laszlo, and Briscoe (2002), "Collaboration occurs when a number of agencies and individuals make a commitment to work together and contribute resources to obtain a common, long-term goal."

Also, it can be defined as a system that integrates the resources and delivery of appropriate mental health care services and law enforcement agencies through different processes or techniques in order to control or influence the quality, accessibility, utilization, costs and prices, or outcomes of such services provided to a defined enrollee population.

The vital components of collaboration are the stakeholders' interest in collaboration; a trusting relationship; a shared vision and common goals; expertise; teamwork strategies; open communication; motivated partners; a means to implement and sustain the collaboration; and an action plan (Rinehart, Laszlo, & Briscoe, 2002).

Traditionally, law enforcement personnel and mental health institutions have not utilized a collaborative approach in dealing with the mentally ill. There are ideological, structural, and organizational difficulties that separate efforts of mental health and law enforcement service activities. This results in duplication of some services and gaps elsewhere. The historical social designs of these two institutions are different (Bender, Jurkanin, & Sergevnin, 2003).

	Law Enforcement Agencies	Mental Health Institutions
Mission	Public safety, crime fighting	Diagnose, medical treatment
Focus	Violator with criminal behavior	Patient with mental illness
Methods	Use of force, isolation from community	Medication, adoption to community adaptation
Period of Interaction	Brief contact	Time consuming care

Moreover, the criminal justice system has been described as an ill-equipped primary provider of mental health services (Joint Committee, 2000).

When local agencies are planning to overcome organizational boundaries for collaboration, they are under the pressure of such motivations as “punishment,” “keeping society safe,” and “treatment and care” (Lavender, 2002). Agencies and organizations involved in collaboration are often following their own motivations for using agreements. Nevertheless, their motivations are surprisingly similar: to ensure a cost-effective service system; to efficiently utilize resources; to improve access to mental health care; to promote the idea of redesign and reduce their own responsibility; to ensure treatment instead of punishment. The scope of motivations is dictated by public expectations, which keep collaborative agencies engaged and energized. Mass media is keeping all the partners posted about the gaps and pitfalls of collaboration.

To meet the community expectations and make the collaboration solid, it is important to identify the framework of responsibilities of each agency or stakeholder:

Criminal Justice	Mental Health	Community	Family	Advocacy	Social Services
Rehabilitation Prevention Cross-training Crime management	Treatment Rehabilitation Prevention Cross-training Disease management	Rehabilitation Housing Income Support Job training	Care Rehabilitation Housing Income Support	Representation Protection Cross-training	Rehabilitation Housing Income Support Job training Cross-training

Law enforcement and mental health agencies have been motivated to shift to collaborative agreements in order to centralize and streamline their functions, to exert more control over the process of integration and treatment, and to avoid mass media and public pressure. Once there is an agreement between stakeholders, the public has a strong motivation to require accountability and improve performance.

Collaborative agreements have to be viewed as attempts to re-establish mental health services on the more profound basis of social support from different segments of society and the community-policing approach. With the advent of the community-policing concept, the potential for collaborative efforts has become more promising.

For the last two decades, police and mental health professionals have responded to individuals with mental illness who are in crisis, and they have utilized different approaches with similar guiding principles:

- Consumers are the priority in collaborative agreements and will receive nondiscriminatory service from all stakeholders.
- Collaborative agreements promote safety for consumers, service providers, community, and families.
- All stakeholders are involved in planning and delivery of service.
- One agency should not dominate decisionmaking. The purpose is to enhance the level of coordination among all stakeholders.
- The process should provide accountability to the consumers, community, families, and stakeholders.
- It must prevent duplication of agencies' services.
- It should provide a more centralized and systemic approach.
- The local partnership is a cross-agency cooperation effort.
- New investments and redirecting of existing resources will be required of all partners.

Those principles are based on one general approach: the enhanced communication in the system of agencies that are interacting with mentally ill people is for the purpose of better communications with the community in general and consumers in particular. The majority of collaborative agreement frameworks are seeking to improve the quality of procedures and remove the obstacles, which hinder successful contacts with mentally ill persons. For this purpose, collaborative agreements pursue the following goals:

- Prevent physical harm to persons with mental illness and law enforcement personnel.
- Maintain the dignity of the person suffering from mental illness.
- Encourage provision of long-term intervention and treatment.
- Serve as a government role model for the rest of society, and treat mental illness as an illness (Hoover, 2002a).

- Create an integrated law enforcement/mental health system.
- Implement joint treatment planning, in which all participating agencies decide who pays for what and when.
- Rationalize the use of resources; maximize value of funds; and reduce the cost of mental health services.
- Clarify which agency is responsible for specific services, such as transportation or community-based services.
- Ensure that information sharing and confidentiality issues are implemented by all stakeholders.
- Develop joint protocols to ensure efficiency across systems.
- Break down barriers between agencies.
- Ensure services with the highest standards.
- Emphasize diversion from the criminal justice system, recovery, and rehabilitation.
- Put in place a regional support system for local communities, families, and providers.
- Ensure productive partnership across geographical and organizational boundaries.
- Put in place regional cooperative links to support local communities, families, and providers.
- Set benchmarks for the measurement of further progress and improved services.

The new philosophy, principles, and goals of collaboration led to the development of several models and had implications for the integration of services by mental health providers. Models and “best practices” have identified established programs that are more effective in addressing the needs of the mentally ill.

Existing Collaborative Models

Increasingly, local, state, and federal agencies are seeking to extend the partnership approach to people who have serious mental disorders. Most states have some collaborative agreements and activities that utilize different forms and models. Stakeholders have focused on moving their systems from a crime and punishment model to a philosophy of treatment and rehabilitation involving a wide array of providers.

In April 1985, Los Angeles County and the Los Angeles Police Department, in cooperation with mental health and social service agencies, formulated a

comprehensive agreement and created a 24/7 Mental Evaluation Unit for the purpose of prescreening cases and suggesting various methods of dealing with mentally disturbed persons. The main focus of the agreement was to divert mentally ill persons involved in minor criminal activity from the criminal justice system. In Birmingham, Alabama, a cooperative agreement resulted in using specially trained rotating civilian social workers to assist law enforcement. In Erie, Pennsylvania, a collaborative agreement between the police department and the family crisis intervention service provides specially trained officers to screen arrestees for mental illness (Champion & Rush, 1997). Similarly, in New Orleans, Louisiana, the law enforcement and mental health agencies established a mobile crisis service using trained, nonsworn volunteers to respond to psychiatric crisis (Peak & Glensor, 2002).

One of the premier programs was established in Memphis. The Memphis Police Department Crisis Intervention Team (CIT) was a pioneer program, which 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 also cost-efficient; the mental health professionals provide the training to the City of Memphis at no cost. As a result of this collaborative program, the average wait time that officers spent at the medical waiting center for the person to be admitted for mental health care was reduced from four to six hours to 15 minutes.

Different methods have been utilized to provide teams of police, mental health professionals, or both to respond to individuals with mental illness (Deane, Steadman, & Borum, 1999; Steadman et al., 2001). The Memphis model uses some sworn law enforcement officers who receive special mental health training to serve as liaisons to the mental health institutions. All of these programs have notable differences based on the available resources, program structure, and staff expertise of the respective agencies. Each, however, requires some level of collaboration between law enforcement and mental health professionals. The collaborative efforts allow different agencies and organizations specific areas of expertise, and efforts can be carried out with limited financial resources. There are four basic models of law enforcement collaboration with the mental health community:

1. CITs in which specially trained police officers respond to the situation in which mental illness is involved
2. Mental health professional(s) riding along with law enforcement officers
3. Comprehensive Advance Responses for which an officer would have 40 hours of advanced training

4. Mobile Crisis Teams, which are county-based teams that act as secondary responders (Margolis, 2002)

Regardless of the various forms of these programs, all are based on a nontraditional approach, which requires dynamic, flexible, and customized services. One of the realities of collaboration is that communities integrate or separate services between agencies. Nonetheless, all the models of collaboration pursue partnership and actions in the following main areas:

- Information sharing, screening
- Initial contact with law enforcement
- Diversion from jail
- Pretrial arrangements and adjudication
- Sentencing
- Incarceration
- Transition to the community

Communications and information sharing are the most crucial components of the collaborative agreements between law enforcement, mental health providers, consumers, the community, and families. The following principles have been generally utilized in the development of the information-sharing protocols:

- Priority has been placed on the protection of the consumer's rights.
- Information has focused on care of and service for the mentally ill person.
- Stakeholders agree to conform to national guidelines and protocols concerning confidentiality and sharing information.

Shifting the large criminal justice and mental health systems to a collaborative agreement approach is technically challenging. Sharing information in a timely manner can save a lot of money and efforts; however, information-sharing systems in the public sector are poorly integrated and in many cases out of date. The "system" was never designed to deliver the kind of data necessary to support collaborative agreement activities. Currently, only about 40% of local authorities have adequate systems for sharing information (Mental Health Information Strategy, 2001). In a system that manages both law enforcement and mental health agencies, it is essential that agencies be able to assess the potential threat or problem involving mentally ill individuals, but the confidentiality protocols in the public mental health system are a barrier to using the existing data systems. Similarly, although law enforcement agencies have been concerned with recidivism rates, they have not traditionally compiled data on this problem. Without sharing complete information, it is virtually impossible to develop a collaborative agreement model.

While law enforcement and mental health agencies have strong separate information systems, they are not integrated and were not designed to be compatible. To take advantage of new technology, information sharing systems must be improved and allow access for all the stakeholders.

The main root of the problem has been the fragmentation that has long prevailed among local and state agencies. This has led to consumer IDs, criminal histories, and service codes, which vary among law enforcement and mental health agencies.

Finally, the collaborative agreement stakeholders must develop an information-sharing system that can provide effective performance and outcome analyses. While the information systems of each stakeholder are relatively sufficient, the level of integration is not nearly as high as it needs to be.

Most of the collaborative agreements include some obvious health care components (e.g., psychiatrists, hospitals, outpatient mental health services), along with components that have been associated with law enforcement and the criminal justice system in general (e.g., specially trained officers, CITs, jails, courts), and social welfare (e.g., housing, financial subsidies, vocational services). These collaborative agreements, however, do not extend beyond the mental health and law enforcement agencies in some cases. Therefore, research is needed on collaborative forms and formats that could engage different segments of the community into partnership and demonstrate an ability to address both internal and external barriers to more effective assistance.

These agreements can be effective instruments to generate innovations and promote community and family involvement, rational budgeting, and accountability; however, these collaborative agreements are established locally as politically affordable answers, rather than conceptual. Thus, fragmentation still occurs within these agreements. Integration, in most cases, has produced some controversial consequences.

Positive and Controversial Consequences

Collaborative agreements are imposing dramatic changes for law enforcement agencies and have provided some resistance because of the controversial consequences of the new procedures. The positive consequences of collaboration have received much acclaim:

- Greater access to mental health treatment for all and especially for disadvantaged groups
- Greater responsiveness to demands for treatment
- Close involvement of law enforcement agencies with the communities
- Systemic approaches in mental health care
- Effective diversion, or decreased use of criminal justice institutions
- Reduction in the criminalization of mental illness
- An expanded array of services
- More flexibility in service delivery
- Increased focus on accountability of integrated agencies

These strategies, for example, have decreased the arrest rates from 21% for contacts between nonspecialized police officers and persons who were apparently mentally ill to less than 7% (Lamb, Weiberger, & Decuir, 2002). In Los Angeles, Memphis, and Birmingham, only 6.7% of the “mental disturbance” calls have resulted in arrest (Arons, 2000). Since the collaboration programs began in Memphis, the law enforcement agencies and communities have experienced significant benefits from the collaborative agreements:

- Decrease in arrests and use of force
- Less underserved consumers in the community

- Decrease in consumer violence in ER
- Decline in officers' injuries during crisis events
- Cost savings
- Less "victimless" crime arrests (Memphis Police Department, 2003)

On closer analysis, however, some questions do arise. Collaborative agreements encourage utilizing nonprofessionals (police, family, advocacy, etc.) and paraprofessionals whenever appropriate. Nonprofessionals can fail to identify some specific mental health issues, and this can reduce the quality of mental health care; however, this can be balanced by better delivery of the service.

Another possible consequence of the collaboration can be the decline of police authority. Collaboration can undermine police authority in two ways: (1) by removing some responsibilities from the law enforcement officer and (2) by creating a potential sense of competition between participating police agencies and other mental health partners.

Cutbacks have affected all social services. As a result, a law enforcement agency may deny services that it considers the responsibility of another public agency. Mental health agencies also receive fewer resources and assume that the consumers, their families, and the community are responsible for services. This problem can reduce the amount of services available to consumers and the possibility of collaboration. Thus, officers continue to encounter mentally ill persons in crises at all hours of the night without adequate back up or support from professional caregivers. Since new collaborative networks consume valuable time and resources, they can generate the influx of personnel.

Actions taken by integrated services may focus too much on immediate care and short-term results and neglect rehabilitation that could have significant long-term effects for the patient.

There is a definite lack of uniformity of collaborative agreements between counties regarding the appropriate policies, procedures, and protocols for addressing the needs of consumers and resolving the fragmentation of mental health and law enforcement services. Although the objectives are similar, communities traditionally have been financed and organized differently. Different stakeholders may have different philosophies and concerns regarding procedures of collaborative agreements. As a result, there is no general consensus on what segments of different agencies' activities have to be included in collaborative agreements (Jurkanin, Sergevnnin, & Bender, 2003).

Another problematic issue is that the process of establishing collaborative agreements usually is relatively long. This is because of the complexity of the issues to be addressed and the amount of training and professional input required. In spite of these ongoing issues, collaborative agreements are expanding throughout the nation.

Conclusion

Collaborative agreements represent the current most effective tool that law enforcement and other stakeholders can use to manage individuals in mental health

crisis. Collaboration can improve focus on consumer outcomes and improvements in the quality of service, along with better accountability. The collaborative agreement with its outcome-driven model provides the following four positive results: (1) the integration of law enforcement and mental health with other agencies and community groups, (2) the reduction in duplication of services, (3) improved overall resource management, and (4) enhanced law enforcement image within the community. While the movement to establish collaborative agreements between law enforcement and mental health agencies is progressing slowly, police administrators are improving their connections with mental health care providers and other stakeholders. Collaboration of law enforcement and mental health services may be easier now that advances in training on dealing with the specific behavior have led to a much better understanding of mental illnesses and to more adequate treatments. Because both law enforcement and mental health agencies are now funded poorly, they use similar financing approaches. Collaborative agreements have promoted some integration of funds in order to create comprehensive systems of care for individuals with serious mental disorders. This approach takes agency collaboration to a higher level by merging portions of budgets from two or more funding sources. Integrating resources requires support of the federal government.

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Thomas J. Jurkanin, PhD, serves as the executive director of the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board, a position he has held since 1992. He has 25 years of experience in the policing field. Dr. Jurkanin holds a PhD from Southern Illinois University in education and social justice. Dr. Jurkanin serves as vice chairman of the Governor's Law Enforcement Medal of Honor Committee.

Vladimir A. Sergevnin, PhD, is a research manager at the Illinois Law Enforcement Training and Standards Board Executive Institute. He earned his PhD at the Moscow Institute of Popular Economy in 1986. He has 25 years of teaching experience at Illinois State University; Western Illinois University; and Saint Petersburg University, Vladimir Juridical Institute (Russia). He has published over 57 articles and written six books.

The Tragic Impact of Suicide Among Law Enforcement Officers

Charles Thompson, Lieutenant, Southern Illinois University–Edwardsville
Police Department

Introduction

Suicide is often a quiet killer in law enforcement and continues to be a problem and challenge for law enforcement administrators. Researchers often run into obstacles when trying to gather data on police-related suicides, such as police agencies not documenting, misclassifying, or restricting access to suicide records. Even though there are problems in gathering accurate data, research continues to suggest that police suicides have continued in an upward trend since the 1980s (Violanti, 1995). Although officer safety training has greatly improved over the last several decades, training for police officers to survive the emotional aspects of the job continues to be lacking or nonexistent in many police agencies (Gilmartin, 2002).

Suicide occurs when people believe that their pain will continue and that there are no other options. Suicidal people many times feel a sense of hopelessness and isolation, and because of their distress, they may feel that there is no one to turn to, furthering this sense of hopelessness and isolation. There can be a multitude of problems that leads a person to have suicidal thoughts: a person may encounter psychological problems, poor coping skills, relationship problems, work-related stress, financial problems, a traumatic event, alcohol and drug abuse, and so on. There can be a variety of reasons why someone would commit suicide; but three main themes are often present. "Suicidal people, (1) experience an event that seriously challenges their self-concept, (2) lose control over an important aspect of their life, and (3) suffer severe disappointment in relation to somebody who has emotional significance to them." Men and women, the young and old, educated and uneducated, religious and nonreligious people kill themselves, as well as police officers (Sheehan & Warren, 1999). Suicide affects families, friends, and many others.

The average suicide rate for police officers is double that of the general population (Loh, 1994). Considering that most police agencies have extensive pre-employment background checks, including psychological evaluations and testing of potential police recruits, it is disturbing that police officers have a significantly higher suicide rate than the general population. Research continues to show that more police officers today commit suicide than are killed in the line of duty (Gilmartin, 2002).

Contributing Factors

Studies have revealed several factors related to police suicide. Suicides tend to be more frequent among older male officers and are associated with alcohol abuse, illness, or imminent retirement. Other factors related to police suicide include the easy access to firearms, the higher exposure to critical incidents, the physical and emotional strains resulting from shift work, the inconsistencies often found in the criminal justice system, and the perception among police officers that they work under a negative public image (Violanti, 1995). Another contributing factor is the

high stress associated with police work. When police officers lose their ability to cope with stress in normal ways, they may turn to a final solution to deal with their problems (Violanti, 1995). Another contributing factor that can lead to police suicide is frustration. Police officers consistently enter the career with enthusiasm, idealism, and motivation to help others (Gilmartin, 2002). Years on the job can transform this sense of idealism into cynicism. The roots of frustration originate from the central irony of American policing: "Society charges police officers with the task of regulating a public that does not want to be regulated" (Violanti, 1995). A negative perception of public resentment often ensues, compelling officers to unite in a defensive posture. When police officers feel that they can no longer tolerate the frustrations of the job, and no other coping options are available, suicide may become the ultimate solution (Violanti, 1995).

Depression is a mood disorder that generally affects a person's overall feelings of sadness and hopelessness. During a major depressive episode, which lasts for at least two weeks, a person may experience the following: "changes in appetite or weight; altered sleep patterns and reduced psychomotor activity; reduced energy levels; feelings of worthlessness or guilt; difficulty thinking, concentrating, and making decisions; and recurrent thoughts of death or suicide" (Baker & Baker, 1996). A person experiencing a major depressive episode may plan or attempt to commit suicide. When police officers are performing at substandard levels for extended periods of time, the problem could be connected to a major depressive episode. While anyone can have an infrequent depressing day, people experiencing depression are enduring extensive emotional misery (Baker & Baker, 1996). The nature of the job may possibly bring on feelings of helplessness. A sense of helplessness can be a disturbing insight for police officers that are trained to view themselves as problem solvers. Too often, suicide is a way of dealing with helplessness and emotional pain. The decisiveness of police suicide may be an attempt to reinstate the officer mind-set of strength, courage, and control over the environment (Violanti, 1995).

Alcoholism, also referred to as "alcohol dependence," is a chronic disease that often has four stages of development: craving alcohol, impaired control, physical dependence, and tolerance (Gilmartin, 2002). Craving alcohol is developing a strong desire to drink. Impaired control is the inability to drink in moderation. Physical dependence is the development of withdrawal symptoms when alcohol use is stopped after heavy drinking, and tolerance is the need to increase alcohol consumption to feel the same effects (Gilmartin, 2002). Alcoholism and associated addictions are prevalent in police departments and law enforcement agencies of every size and type. The first thing an officer must do is admit that there is a problem. A major barrier to recognition of the problem as well as to entering treatment is denial, which can take many forms and may be reinforced by forces that are apart from the officer's own denial (Amsel et al., 1999). Alcohol abuse also has been implicated as a significant contributing factor in police suicides. One study documented that 60% of the suicides in the Chicago Police Department involved alcohol abuse (Violanti, 1995).

Suicide is another potential threat as police officers end their law enforcement careers and move into retirement. During years of service, retired police officers may have bonded with other officers, due to common views and perceptions. While a majority of retired police officers view retirement benefits positively, some officers can become fearful and devastated at the thought of separating from the police subculture. Fear, older age, loss of friendships, loss of police officer status, and a loss of self-esteem,

create a substantial risk for suicide for some retired police officers. According to a recent study, there is a ten-fold risk of suicide among retired police officers (Violanti, 1995). Policing involves a continual barrage of boredom interspersed with acts of violence, deceit, and human misery. Police officers are often exposed to critical incidents, which are defined by Jeff Mitchell, PhD, as “any situation faced by emergency service personnel that causes them to experience unusually strong emotional reactions, which have the potential to interfere with their ability to function either at the scene or later” (Critical Incident Trauma, 2002). Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is an anxiety disorder that involves the psychological consequences of a traumatic event that occurs outside the range of usual human experience (Koenen, Driver, Oscar-Berman, Wolfe, & Folsom, 2001, p. 65). PTSD can be acute, chronic, or delayed and can follow a natural disasters such as floods or serious traumatic events that stem from such things as war, torture, car accidents, assault, incest, rape, and so on. The cause of PTSD is primarily the stress caused by the traumatic event. The stress, however, does not produce PTSD in everyone, so psychological, physical, genetic, and social factors may also be contributing factors (Davison & Neale, 1998, p. 147). Suicidal thoughts or actions are not symptoms of PTSD, but there is a lot of evidence that PTSD causes suicidal thinking. It is possible that exposure to death and human suffering produces a numbing effect; that is, death becomes easier to accept as a possible solution to seemingly impossible problems. Suicide can be the significant response to this sometimes-intolerable pain (Violanti, 1995).

Statistics

The research on police suicide is limited. Most of the studies on police deaths have addressed police killings and assaults committed by criminals; however, there is evidence that police officers in the United States commit suicide more frequently than civilians in the general population. The available studies on police suicide generally focus on the number of suicides, the methods employed, the impact of having service weapons readily available, and the occupational factors that seem to contribute to the high suicide rate among officers (Violanti, 1995). An ongoing study in the United States reveals that 95% of police suicides involved the use of the police officer’s service weapon (Violanti, 1995). During the last decade (1990s) in the United States, an average of 69 law enforcement officers died feloniously per year, but during the same period, an average of 300 police officers committed suicide per year, according to the POLICE Suicide Foundation (Gilmartin, 2002). During 1994, the New York City Police Department experienced two police officers killed in the line of duty compared to 11 police officers that committed suicide (Baker, 1996). During the period of 1991–2001, the Chicago Police Department experienced 14 police officers killed in the line of duty compared to 33 police officers that committed suicide (Powers, 2002). The Fraternal Order of Police reported a rate of 22 suicides per year per 100,000 members. This is an 83% increase over the national rate of about 12 per 100,000 (Gilmartin, 2002). The FBI had 18 special agents who committed suicide between 1995 and 1999, putting the rate at 26 per 100,000, which is a 115% increase over the national rate (Amsel et al., 1999). According to one study, during the period 1950–1979, a sample of 2,662 officers averaged one suicide every 2.5 years. During 1980–1990, the rate increased to one suicide every 1.25 years. This study indicates that police suicides may now be occurring at two times the rate they did in the past. Additionally, research confirms that males, who predominately comprise the police work force, have an elevated risk for suicide (Violanti, 1995). Forensic psychologists are now referring to police suicide as an epidemic and are

now becoming more concerned. According to Cindy Goss, a forensic psychologist from New York, the following is a typical profile for a police suicide: “a male, white, 35, working patrol, abusing alcohol, separated or seeking a divorce, experiencing a recent loss or disappointment” (Loh, 1994).

The study of police suicide, as mentioned, is often quite difficult. Researchers often find that either police officer suicide records are not collected or police agencies restrict access. In addition, police suicides may routinely be misclassified as either accidental or unknown. The police represent an extremely organized subculture in which members tend to “take care of their own” (Violanti, 1995). The desire to protect fellow victim officers, their families, and their departments from the stigma of suicide may cause detectives to deliberately ignore evidence during the classification process. One study of police suicides in the Chicago Police Department estimated that as many as 67% had been misclassified as accidental or natural deaths (Violanti, 1995). Another ongoing study of police suicides shows preliminary results during a 40-year period that nearly 30% of police suicides may have been misclassified (Violanti, 1995). Another problem with police suicide research is that most of it focuses on large cities; very little is known about suicides in small or rural departments (Violanti, 1995).

Signs and Symptoms

The following ten steps leading to police suicide was published by the National POLICE Suicide Foundation:

- Step 1: “Idealistic” graduate—new cop
- Step 2: Frequently exposed to high stress—murder, rape, danger, etc.
- Step 3: Keeps emotions to self . . . doesn’t want to burden or worry spouse or family; Doesn’t want peers to think he or she can’t handle the job or his or her emotions
- Step 4: Starts drinking with peers after work to unwind
- Step 5: Becomes “cynical” . . . mistrust for anyone outside of profession
- Step 6: Doesn’t trust administration—deals with internal stressors and political pressures
- Step 7: Tries to maintain “Macho” image . . . doesn’t feel he or she can share problems with fellow cops because they might think that he or she is “weak”
- Step 8: Drinking increases; pressure mounts. Job performance begins to drop off.
- Step 9: Problems with relationships . . . marital problems that lead to separation or divorce; long-term relationships begin to fall apart.
- Step 10: SUICIDE

Identifying police officers that are at risk for suicide is the first step toward intervention and prevention. Many suicidal people have mixed feelings about dying; approximately 75% give some kind of notice of their intentions (Baker, 1996). There are usually numerous problems that plague suicidal police officers, so fellow officers and supervisors should look for a group of warning signs. These signs might include a recent loss, sadness, frustration, disappointment, grief, alienation, depression, loneliness, physical pain, mental distress, and/or mental illness. Police training sections need to incorporate education about suicide warning signs as a standard part of a police department's mental health program (Baker, 1996).

The following list of common predictors and commonalities of suicide was taken from an article written by Scott W. Allen (1999).

Common Single Predictors of Suicide

1. Depressive illness, mental disorder
2. Alcoholism, drug abuse
3. Suicide ideation, talk, preparation, religious ideas
4. Prior suicide attempts
5. Lethal methods
6. Isolation, living alone, loss of support
7. Hopelessness, cognitive rigidity
8. Being an older white male
9. Modeling, suicide in the family, genetics
10. Work problems, family pathology
11. Marital problems, economics, occupation
12. Stress, life events
13. Anger, aggression, irritability
14. Physical illness
15. Repetition and co-morbidity of factors 1-14 and suicidal careers

The Ten Commonalities of Suicide (Shneidman, 1987)

1. The common purpose of suicide is to seek a solution.
2. The common goal of suicide is cessation of consciousness.
3. The common stimulus in suicide is intolerable psychological pain.
4. The common stressor in suicide is frustrated psychological needs.
5. The common emotion in suicide is hopelessness/helplessness.
6. The common cognitive state in suicide is ambivalence.
7. The common perceptual state in suicide is constriction.
8. The common action in suicide is aggression.
9. The common interpersonal act in suicide is communication of intention.
10. The common problem in suicide is with coping patterns.

Interventions

Typically, when police officers experience serious emotional problems that can lead to suicide, two reactions occur that encumber the intervention process. First, affected officers, friends, coworkers, command officers, and administrators initially ignore or deny that a problem exists. Second, even when a problem finally is recognized, the affected officers often refuse to accept help for fear of losing their jobs, being

demoted, or having their personal problems exposed for ridicule (Baker & Baker, 1996). Furthermore, police officers do not want to appear weak or susceptible in front of their coworkers. Individuals who perceive themselves as problem solvers often have immense difficulty admitting that they have problems of their own (Violanti, 1995). These common universal reactions must be overcome before any successful intervention can take place. The police subculture, police officers and supervisors, often have protected those officers experiencing depression and denied the existence of any problems (Baker & Baker, 1996).

Education on depression and suicide should be implemented for all police department employees. Police officers who are better educated on the subject matter may even develop into more effective officers. Police officers should be informed that seeking assistance does not mean an end of a career, but the beginning of improving their career. The foundation of any prevention program is to instill the perceptual foundation that asking for help signals strength, not weakness. A suicide prevention program can work only if members of the department feel free to take advantage of it. Police administrators and supervisors must play a nonpunitive role. They must communicate to officers four clear messages: "(1) Seeking help will not result in job termination or punitive action, (2) all information will be respected and kept confidential, (3) other ways exist for dealing with a situation no matter how hopeless it seems at the time, and (4) someone is available to help them deal with their problems" (Baker & Baker, 1996, p. 26). Police training and departmental policy, as well as the everyday examples set by police leaders, must communicate these four messages consistently. Fortunately, many police agencies have developed successful counseling programs for their police officers, and these programs have helped remove the disgrace of admitting problems; however, these prevention programs for police officers have mainly been implemented in larger and more progressive police agencies. These intervention programs should be implemented in every U.S. law enforcement agency (Violanti, 1995). One such progressive department, the Miami-Dade Police Department, has developed a training program that provides an extensive overview of the suicide process to every member of the department. Before the start of this training program, which was coordinated through the department's training bureau, the whole training process was negotiated among the department's command staff, police fraternal organizations, and the psychological services section. All parties agreed upon a mandate stipulating that "no employee of the Miami-Dade Police Department would be terminated from employment solely as a result of a crisis hospitalization, inclusive of suicidal ideation, intent, or attempt" (Allen, 1999).

Agencies must move beyond the morbidity of the subject to develop effective suicide countermeasures. Perhaps the best way to prevent police suicide is to train officers to cope better with professional and personal problems. This provides them with the means to recognize and avoid the psychological and behavioral wrong turns that eventually can lead to suicide. In addition, training supervisors to recognize the warning signs of suicide can afford agencies an opportunity to intervene before it is too late (Violanti, 1995).

Supervisors should schedule interviews with officers who appear depressed, sad, hopeless, discouraged or officers who demonstrate any other signs of depression. During this interview, the supervisor should check the officer's body language, look for depressing facial expressions, and be alert to a hopeless mood. The officer

might complain of feeling depressed, not having any feelings at all, or being uneasy. Physical complaints about bodily aches and pains might be reported to cover the officer's accurate feelings. There is a high risk of suicide when feelings of both hopelessness and helplessness are present. Whenever police officers think and speak in these terms, they feel that their lives are hopeless, or they see themselves as unable to significantly do anything about their situation. When they reach this point, they often commit suicide. Suicidal officers might have negative influences in their personal lives as well. Supervisors should look for histories that might include suicidal behavior, mental illness, chronic depression, multiple divorces, and alcoholism. Physical and social losses can generate the destructive feelings of hopelessness and helplessness. Problem officers want to be rescued but do not want to ask for assistance or know what specific assistance to request. This state of confusion actually works to a supervisor's advantage because suicidal officers want a strong authority figure to direct their emotional feelings and make sense of the bewilderment; therefore, supervisors should swiftly assure suicidal officers that support and assistance is available. The situational leadership style that applies here is one of directing and telling. Officers in a suicidal state of mind are open to suggestion and are likely to respond to directions. Supervisors must use their positions of authority to tell officers what action they expect. Furthermore, supervisors should demand that officers respond to their directions. It is important for supervisors to ask specifically whether officers are having thoughts of self-destruction. Many find it difficult to ask such a basic question, but it must be done. Officers who indicate that they are having suicidal thoughts must be monitored. All indications of suicidal thoughts must be taken seriously. Supervisors should plan their intervention so that it leads to a professional referral. The specific methods of intervention must be thought out as carefully as possible in order to avoid violence directed inward or outward at other employees. Supervisors should refer officers to a certified mental health professional, even setting appointments and making arrangements for the officers to be there. Supervisors should monitor the situation to ensure that officers are evaluated and receive continued support and counseling (Baker & Baker, 1996).

As is factual with any suicide, it is the survivors who must cope with the aftereffects of a police suicide. In addition to the emotional suffering and feelings of fault that generally trouble family members subsequent to a suicide, other difficulties often face police suicide survivors. Because suicide is perceived as "dishonorable," families may not be afforded the full honors of a police funeral. Additionally, police departments often break contact with surviving family members after one or two weeks. Law enforcement agencies should assist the families of all deceased police officers, including those who commit suicide. Law enforcement agencies should help family members move through the grieving process by offering assistance with practical matters, such as finances and pension rights (Violanti, 1995). Police peers are also survivors of police suicide. A grieving process often strikes police agencies after an officer commits suicide. In some cases, there is a lasting negative effect on the morale and work quality of surviving officers. For this reason, law enforcement agencies should arrange for psychological debriefings after the suicide of any officer (Violanti, 1995).

Critical incident stress debriefing (CISD) can be used by police agencies to help survivors in the aftermath of a suicide. The following characteristics and steps of CISD were taken from a website written by Robert Loo (2002):

- CISD typically uses a single session, a half or even full-day session, although survivors may be referred to health service providers, clergy, or other sources for additional assistance if required.
- CISD usually uses a group session (10–12 survivors) partly so the various survivors have the opportunity to share their common grief and provide mutual support and partly for efficiency given the likely limited number of experienced health services professionals readily available for this purpose. The group session can be seen as a “decompression” session in an emotionally safe and supportive setting for survivors.
- CISD should occur within one to three days of the suicide so support can be provided in a timely manner to ameliorate the distress of survivors.
- A secluded and safe location is used to provide privacy and confidentiality.
- The selection, training, and experience of a facilitator or group leader are critical to ensure that the CISD process is conducted effectively. The facilitator should be a health services professional with extensive training and experience in CISD, PTSD, suicide studies, and the grieving process. It can be helpful to have a survivor act as co-leader if a survivor has the personal characteristics (e.g., emotionally stable, empathetic, effective interpersonal communications skills) and leadership qualities (e.g., can keep the group focused) to facilitate the process.

Steps in Critical Incident Debriefing

- The facilitator describes the process and sets the ground rules for the session, particularly the need for confidentiality and a mutually supportive environment.
- Participants need to express their feelings about the suicide and the perceived reasons for the suicide. The results of such sharing in a safe and supportive group session should be emotional decompression and sense making about the suicide.
- The facilitator or group leader should be able to use the group discussion to draw out the multitude of signs and symptoms of distress as well as the grieving process for the group to examine and then move on to the important actions that help manage distress and grieving. Such actions could include continuing to meet as a self-help group to continue providing one another with support, linking to community services, conducting a stress self-assessment, techniques to improve open communication about suicide among family members and significant others, and performing deep muscle relaxation exercises to overcome muscle tension and aid sleep.
- An after action report should be prepared and disseminated to the police department and health professionals not simply as an administrative procedure but as a means of sharing points learned and pitfalls to avoid in future CISDs.

Conclusion

Suicide leaves survivors upset and looking for answers that may never be found. Police suicide can devastate the morale of entire police agencies and leave fellow police officers with strong feelings of guilt, remorse, and disenchantment. Suicide is an act of desperation, initiated when there appears to be no other adequate options available. The negative impact it has on survivors underlines the need to prevent suicide among police officers. Most studies suggest that law enforcement officers are at a heightened risk for suicide; therefore, police agencies should ensure that effective intervention programs are available for their employees to save lives and safeguard police agencies from the devastating effects of suicide. The first and most important step police agencies need to recognize is when a problem exists. With more research, innovative prevention programs, and proactive training, police officers' lives can be saved. All U.S. law enforcement agencies need to establish nonstigmatizing and nonpunitive policies related to managing the emotional well-being of the employee, including confidentiality during hospitalization and nonjudgmental return-to-work policies and procedures.

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Charles Thompson has 17 years of law enforcement experience. He started his law enforcement career in 1986 as a police officer with the Caseyville, Illinois Police Department. In 1989, he was hired as a police officer with Southern Illinois University–Edwardsville Police Department where he currently works. In 1991, he was promoted to the rank of sergeant, and in 2001, he was promoted to his current rank of lieutenant. His current assignment is commander of the Uniform Patrol Division. He is an investigator with the Major Case Squad of Greater St. Louis. He received his basic police academy training at Southwestern Illinois Police Academy when he worked for Caseyville Police Department and the Illinois State Police Academy when he started working with SIUE PD. In 1996, he served as a supervisor for Recruit Class #400-56 at the Illinois State Police Academy. He has had numerous hours of law enforcement inservice training. He is a 2003 graduate of Northwestern University Traffic Institute’s Executive Management Program. He currently holds instructor certificates in Firearms Training and Standard Field Sobriety Testing. In 1986, he received an associate of applied science degree in the administration of justice from Southwestern Illinois College. In 2001, he received a bachelor’s degree in liberal studies with a minor in psychology from Southern Illinois University–Edwardsville.

Utilization of a Systems Training Model to Enhance Community Policing with Seriously Mentally Ill Persons

Tony A. Barringer, EdD, Assistant Professor, Department of Justice Studies,
Florida Gulf Coast University

Patricia A. Washington, PhD, Professor and Director, Division of Social
Work, Florida Gulf Coast University

Introduction

The purpose of this article is threefold: (1) to emphasize the role of community policing as an important component in community support for seriously mentally ill persons (SMI) residing in the community, (2) to analyze current training initiatives for law enforcement officers (LEOs) interacting in the community with SMI persons, and (3) to present guidelines for implementing policies and procedures to increase the effectiveness of community interactions and reduce potentially violent incidents between LEOs and SMI persons. Community policing is defined by Meese (1993), and Moore & Trojanowicz (1988) as the use of sophisticated investigative problem-solving techniques while interacting cooperatively with community institutions (e.g., families, schools, neighborhood associations, merchant groups, social service agencies, and mental health agencies) to create safe secure communities.

LEOs have become an extension of the community support system for SMI persons residing in the community. Often, LEOs are the only crisis unit available 24 hours a day, 7 days a week at no direct cost to the community (Teplin, 2001; Steadman, 2000; Washington, 1997). When LEOs are contacted, the SMI person has usually exhausted the good will and support of families, significant others, and neighbors. Once these supports are exhausted, LEOs are contacted to intervene.

An increasing number of persons are moving to Lee County in Southwest Florida and residing year-round. As a result of this significant increase in population, the number of calls to LEOs to respond to requests to intervene in a potential crisis situation with vulnerable SMIs continues to increase. Furthermore, the closing of two mental health facilities in Southwest Florida (G. Pierce Wood Hospital and Charter Glade) has resulted in increased reliance upon LEOs as an important component in the community support network. When there is evidence that an SMI person is behaving in a manner that causes him or her to be perceived as a threat to him- or herself or others, intervention by LEOs may be of critical importance.

Rationale

Law enforcement officers are seen as part of the community crisis support team for intervening with vulnerable and unpredictable SMI persons. Effective intervention by LEOs requires an understanding of SMI persons as individuals, . . .

. . . overwhelmed or burdened by life conditions, circumstances and events. The problems are stressful because they are chronic and persistent . . . frequently

exacerbated by an individual lack of internal resources and external supports or both. (Gitterman, p. xvi, 2001)

According to Cordner (2000), LEOs as members of the continuum of community support can improve the quality of services that they deliver in situations in which officers come in contact with people with mental illness and reduce the risk of tragedies, through such straightforward remedies as training based upon an ecological systems theory and strengths perspective. This theoretical perspective will provide insight on the complex relationships between SMI persons and their environments, permitting the officers to conduct a balanced intervention and appropriate placement while reducing the threat of injury to either SMI persons or themselves. Officers would also benefit from specialization, better information systems, and enhanced less-than-lethal technology. LEOs must be knowledgeable about the resourcefulness and resilience of these individuals. Through increased emphasis on collaboration, partnerships, prevention, and problem solving and by empowering beat officers who really know their communities and constituents, police agencies may more effectively achieve the ideal of justice and safety for all.

Literature Review

Review of Related Literature

This review of related literature will establish a conceptual foundation and provide background for research. This literature review relates mental health and law enforcement issues that are taking place throughout the United States and briefly examines the issue of law enforcement officer training.

Nationwide source literature was used because there appears to be a scarcity of State of Florida Literature relating to law enforcement training and mental illness. The literature search revealed that this area is one with little documentation, once again making this study very intriguing—intriguing in the sense that it is touching in an area that has become more visible in Southwest Florida due to a number of unfortunate incidents involving law enforcement and the mentally ill. Since this area of study is one that has received little attention in the past, the researchers had to become creative in connecting all of the different areas relating to this study. One fact that was noted by the researchers while the review of the related literature was being completed was that most of the efforts and/or initiatives were still in the implementation or the evaluation stage. This limitation created a literature review based on infancy-type programs. Another point noted by the researchers was that most of the literature focused on individuals who were already incarcerated but not the interaction between the arresting officer and the mentally ill inmate. This project will add to that body of knowledge that is so critical in understanding the entire interface between law enforcement officers and the mentally ill. Even with the above stated limitations, the researchers are confident that the following review will provide a rational conceptual foundation and background for research.

Related Literature

A large number of individuals with mental illnesses are in jail or prison today. Osher, Steadman, and Barr (2003) predict that almost all inmates with mental illness will leave correctional settings and return to the community. The authors suggest

that inadequate transition planning puts jail inmates who entered the jail in a state of crisis back on the streets in the middle of the same crisis. Their research makes clear the outcomes of inadequate transition planning. The outcomes include the compromise of public safety, an increased incidence of psychiatric symptoms, homelessness, and re-arrest. The researchers of this present investigation are very much concerned about the outcomes that the above authors noted. The current researchers see the re-arrest of the mentally ill as a continuous vicious cycle that could have easily been handled more efficiently if the coordination between law enforcement and mental health providers was more defined and cooperative. This would include training the officers to do ongoing counseling for the mentally ill.

A study conducted in Los Angeles by Maloney, Ward, and Jackson (2003) exposed the neglect that mentally ill inmates receive as a result of undertrained officers. The study concluded that more than one in every 14 jail inmates suffered from serious mental illness. The authors of the study noted an increase in the number of inmates with mental disorders in local jails. The study also revealed that the neglect takes place at a number of stages in the criminal justice system. The initial screening should take place with the arresting officer, but it is not conducted the majority of the time. The study suggests that the front line officers are often ill equipped to handle the situations properly. The officers show a lack of training as being the primary obstacle to providing adequate service. The authors of the study made the suggestion that jail mental health screening procedures must identify inmates who currently manifest symptoms of mental disturbance requiring immediate treatment, as well as those inmates who are at risk of developing such problems during the course of their incarceration.

Woolf and Rudman (1977) examined the level of cooperation by law enforcement and social service agencies and concluded that officers will use a social service program if they can help plan it and if they view it as an adjunctive service that is ready and available when needed. The authors also asserted that communities would provide financial support for a social service program that improves the efficiency of law-enforcement operations and allows community problems to be dealt with in the appropriate system. This assertion by the authors basically supports a comprehensive, systems approach.

In 1980, Parkinson found that when it comes to cooperation between police and social workers, the biggest barrier to that cooperation is one of sex-role stereotypes. The author suggested that the solution to the problem of the lack of interagency cooperation lies in the social organization of a capitalistic society. The author proposed that the agencies offer training in order to inform the others of their roles and duties and also that the two agencies be more accepting of their limitations and boundaries. Lastly, the author suggested that stereotypes be abandoned between the agencies in order to foster cooperation.

Roberts (1976) examined the history of police social workers and revealed that police social work had a promising start in the early decade of the 20th century but then faded, largely as a result of adverse publicity and sexist misconceptions. The article implied that the history of police social work lends support to the view that social workers can make a significant contribution to broadening the role of police departments as human service agencies, especially in crisis intervention work. The author suggested that police officers need training in human relations and mental

hygiene; they need sensitivity training; and they need to know how to recognize personality disorders. According to the author, officers need training not so that they could take the place of experienced social workers, psychiatrists, and psychologists, but so that they are able to provide immediate crisis intervention when emergencies arise and the other professionals are not available.

Additional Stances

The fact that present-day police on patrol spend most of their time performing social work activities has been well documented in the literature.

According to Hageman (1985), the present-day role of agents in the criminal justice system mandates variety and flexibility. The argument should no longer be between those who demand “real police work” (as in concern for control) and those who have concern for people and their civil rights. Rather, the emphasis needs to be on when it is appropriate and beneficial to develop police-social work or other professional teams to handle community problems.

In other areas of interaction, however, people have different perceptions. A department, therefore, needs to be involved with the communities in order to define their role and gain support for that role. Hageman (1985) suggests that community policing involves three important aspects: (1) informing, (2) persuading, and (3) integrating people with people. It is also believed that officers have to be sensitized to the needs and concerns of the persons with whom they work, perhaps permit some of these individuals to be involved with the working of the agency (e.g., training, establishing policy, and so on) as much as possible.

Although the role of police is primarily a legal one in terms of crime, police agencies today, as they did in the past, perform a variety of community services (Hageman, 1985). Some researchers have noted that the community’s political culture can also define or structure the police role (Wilson, 1968). Other researchers have suggested that what a police officer does is the result of how that person was trained or socialized into the occupation (Skolnick, 1977).

In order to answer the question concerning what kinds of expectations publics have, it is important to remember that for centuries, people have believed that home rule and democracy are important. It is not that the arresting of offenders is not important. Rather, those activities should not occur at the expense of violating civil rights or the common standards of decency to human beings (Hageman, 1985).

Methodology

A qualitative research method was used to analyze the nature and contextual experiences of law enforcement officers who had received training that focused on working with SMI people. A qualitative method was used in order to provide a rich description of law enforcement officers’ experiences and their training. Bogdan and Biklen (1992) defined qualitative research as being “rich in description of people, places and conversation,” which are “not easily handled by statistical procedures,” stating that qualitative researchers are concerned with understanding behavior/experiences from the subject’s own frame of reference” (p. 2). Consequently, analyzing the training and experiences of the law enforcement officers is more

easily understood utilizing qualitative research because this approach permits the in-depth exploration of the experiences of a group of people in their own voices.

Participant Selection

The population studied consisted of 12 law enforcement officers who had received training that focused on working with the mentally ill. The officers represented eight law enforcement agencies in Southwest Florida. Interviews were conducted with the 12 officers, and notes were taken on their comments/experiences.

An attempt was made to include a range of experiences and orientations in order to examine the full spectrum of the nature and contextual factors that condition the officer's training experience(s) and to examine the interface of officers and the mentally ill in working through the problems and issues that occur in community policing when mental illness is involved. This group included officers representing various ranks within the law enforcement agencies. The officers interviewed for the study had been in law enforcement for at least three years.

Research Design

Prior to the beginning of the study, the training supervisor in each law enforcement agency was contacted, given a brief description of the study, and asked to participate. The supervisors were asked to provide a list of officers who had received training on mental illness and who worked in the community. A list was composed to serve as a reference sheet when the interviews were to be conducted.

Each of the potential participants was called by telephone in order to explain the study in greater detail and to arrange for interviews. The primary method of gathering data for this study was through semi-structured, open-ended interviews and program analysis. The program analysis consisted of reviewing initiatives/programs geared at law enforcement and mental illness that are being attempted throughout the United States.

Participants were generally asked to describe their training experiences, as they related to mental illness and share their experiences working with the mentally ill. They were asked to describe their view of seriously mentally ill persons prior to and after becoming an officer. They were also asked to describe their view of seriously mentally ill persons after receiving training for working with the mentally ill. In addition, they were asked to provide an assessment of the extent and quality of the mental health training that they had received, describe their worst experience, describe any uncomfortable or challenging experience, and discuss the techniques used to deal with these experiences.

As the interviews progressed, probes were used to encourage the participants to illustrate their reflections with specific examples and experiences; however, tangential topics and questions evolved, and the investigators pursued what Spindler and Spindler (1992) refer to as a flexible format, encouraging interviewees to speak freely about concerns and, in the process, answer questions that had not been asked.

The interviews usually lasted about 30 minutes, although some of them were longer. Notes were taken during the interviews and later served as a means for data analysis.

Data Analysis

There is a unique relationship between the data and the analysis in a qualitative study. As the data is collected, "units" emerge that suggest further data needs to be collected and suggest categories of information. Typically, the data is coded according to these categories and analyzed to explore meaning and interrelationships (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992).

Coding

Coding is the process by which data are ordered. Three forms of coding, open coding, axial coding, and selective coding, occurred simultaneously with the data collection to permit the researchers to identify relationships among the variables.

The line-by-line examination of each transcript to identify emerging concepts expressed by the study's participants, initially did open coding. Axial coding was used to review experience areas and hypothesize relationships. Selective coding for core arenas was conducted systematically to identify codes with a significant relationship that could be used for additional data collection (Strauss, 1987).

As the researchers interviewed the officers, they noted similar terms, phrases, and experiences that emerged. The terms, phrases, and experiences were carefully examined, resulting in the development of two key experience areas: (1) social and (2) intellectual. The experience allowed the researchers to gain a sense of the participants' situational perspective. Within the social arena, there are the experiences of the officers interacting with the community, especially mentally ill people. The intellectual arena includes such experiences as knowledge (the training process), perception, and reflection.

Results

Community Interaction

In regards to community interaction, ten of the twelve officers (83%) reported very negative experiences with persons in the community. The negative experiences ranged from verbal abuse to physical aggression. The physical aggression was usually in the form of resisting arrest and the showing of officers; however, four (33%) of the officers reported situations in which individuals attempted to use non-lethal weapons against them. Another aspect of community interaction addressed by officers was community trust. All of the participants voiced a concern about the lack of trust exhibited by members of the community towards them. The officer suggested that the citizens see them as the enemy rather than as a protection and service agency. The officers voiced the concern that citizens continue to call them as a last resort, usually after the situation had escalated to a dangerous/life-threatening level.

The officers all agreed that responses for assistance with SMI persons could change quickly from a routine call to one that could become either dangerous or life-threatening. The officers attributed this fact to their lack of training as well as their lack of understanding about the SMI persons. Nine of the twelve officers (75%) voiced concerns about the relationship that their department had with social service, especially mental health agencies. The officers reported a great divide in the agencies knowing the full range of duties by law enforcement agencies and law enforcement knowing the full responsibilities of the social service agencies. The officers suggested that there is still a great deal of stereotypes present in regards to what these different entities do. The officers basically see too much separatism between law enforcement and social service agencies, which hinders the joint success that could be enjoyed by these agencies. The officers suggested that an improved relationship could improve their services, as they would be more aware of what is available to the citizens that they encounter.

Training

In regards to training, all of the officers reported that they believed they had received inadequate training for intervening with SMI people. Their perception of inadequate training is based upon the fact that their mental health training was less than one hour. The officers also reported that mental health training is not required at their agencies and that inservice training provided by their respective agency deals mostly with sociological issues not mental illness. All officers stated that dealing with SMI people had become so routine that mental health training should become mandatory and ongoing. They also proposed that mental health training be considered as important to their training as cultural diversity.

Furthermore, the officers also suggested that more emphasis should be given to improving human relation skills because the ability to listen to people and respond in a sensitive manner is essential to good police work. Lastly, the officers suggested that mental health professionals become part of the training process of law enforcement. The officers advocated a seamless system that would provide opportunities for social service professionals and law enforcement officers to become knowledgeable about the services provided by each agency and members of the same team, not competitors.

Conclusion

This study assessed the status of law enforcement and mental health in Southwest Florida. The study reviewed related issues and examined the experiences of 12 law enforcement officers in Southwest Florida. The findings of the study revealed a number of gaps that exist between the law enforcement agencies and the mental health agencies. The gaps include poor community relations, poor training in mental health, community distrust, and a lack of commitment by the different agencies. The study also highlighted the perceived dangers that SMI persons present to law enforcement officers as well as how important training is in assuring quality service to not only the mentally ill but to society at large.

After considering the findings of the study, the researchers offer the following model as a workable, systems approach to law enforcement and mental illness.

Systems Model: Six Vital Steps

1. All law enforcement recruits should receive extensive training on mental illness while in the academy: Intensive training would be no less than eight clock hours. The training would be conducted by qualified mental health professionals (e.g., psychiatrists, psychologists, counselors, and etc.).
2. In addition to the academy training, all officers will be required to attend refresher courses on an annual basis. This training will be offered as inservice training conducted by a trained mental health professional.
3. Officers, who excel in their training and/or show an extraordinary commitment to this area, would be allowed to attend additional training and become part of a crisis team for that agency.
4. The crisis team would consist of trained law enforcement officers as well as social service personnel that would be housed at the agency. The crisis team would be on call 24 hours per day in order to assist officers that need crisis intervention.
5. The law enforcement and mental health agency should become involved in cooperative education, which would allow each agency to become more fully aware of services available to the public. This initiative would enable law enforcement personnel to make appropriate decisions in regards to diversion, etc. The mental health agency would benefit by being able to service individuals who truly need mental health services.
6. Both agencies would get the public involved by offering workshops and seminars (free of charge) to the community and prepare pamphlets and brochures that would be given to citizens who have mentally ill family members and/or friends. The literature would explain the process of dealing with the mentally ill as well as list numbers for assistance. It is believed that the above effort would help gain the trust of the citizenry.

Consequently, the researchers suggest that the above model could improve the training of law enforcement officers who are spending a significant amount of time engaged in community policing with seriously mentally ill persons.

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Tony A. Barringer, EdD, is an assistant professor in the Division of Justice Studies at Florida Gulf Coast University in Fort Myers, Florida. Dr. Barringer teaches in the division of justice studies and has 15 years of experience in the areas of law enforcement, courts, and corrections. Dr. Barringer has authored papers for publication and presentation in the area of criminal justice and in the area of African American offenders and female offenders. His primary areas of research pertain to minorities and the criminal justice system.

Patricia A. Washington, PhD, is a professor and director of the division of social work at Florida Gulf Coast University in Fort Myers, Florida. Dr. Washington has published articles and conducted research in the areas of mental health/ corrections, women offenders, and elderly offenders. She is currently conducting research for the Mental Health Court Southwest Florida.

Police and the Mentally III: The McLean County Experience

Keith Gehrand, Captain, Illinois State University Police Department

Over the last several years, increased attention has been given to the interaction between persons with mental illness and the police. In some incidents, persons suffering from mental illness have been killed by the police, and in other incidents, police officers have been killed by persons suffering from mental illness. The Federal Bureau of Investigation, in their study of *Law Enforcement Officers Feloniously Killed or Assaulted from 1991 to 2000*, found that 1.2% of the 644 officers killed were killed by assailants classified as “mentally deranged.” Additionally, 1.5% of the 603,070 officers assaulted were assaulted by persons of the same category. There can be little doubt that persons with mental illness can lead to physical dangers for police officers. While police officers may be in danger from persons with mental illness, they are just as likely to be the victim of crime as the perpetrator of criminal acts.

The police are often called upon to assist with persons exhibiting mental illness or to control persons having psychotic episodes because of their mental illness. While citizens may believe persons suffering from mental illness are not going to receive the psychiatric help they desperately need from the police, they still call upon law enforcement to bring the situation under control as other options are often not available. The reliance upon the police to solve such problems is caused by a number of factors.

One factor that influences the public’s call to the police is the fact that the police are the only government agency generally available 24 hours a day, seven days a week that will respond to complaints by the citizenry. The police have historically been the first government agency contacted for a variety of problems not just for crimes in progress, but any time citizens need assistance and they do not know who to call, mostly because the police are the most visible and accessible of all government agencies in American society. Secondly, the police are the only government agency that is vested with the authority to use force to restrain persons from hurting themselves, others, or property. When citizens become alarmed or are in fear of someone who is suffering from mental illness, they contact the police for assistance. Often, the public accepts the police are not the most therapeutic assistance they can call; however, they know the police will protect them from the person experiencing mental illness, and they have the authority to use all necessary force, including deadly force when required. Given the availability of the police 24 hours a day, seven days a week and their authority to use force, why does the number of calls to public safety agencies about persons with mental illness seem to be on the increase?

In November 2002, the Illinois Law Enforcement Standards and Training Board (ILETSB), through its Executive Institute, held a statewide summit to examine the nature and extent of police and mental health professional interaction and cooperation in finding solutions to dealing with persons having mental illness. During the three days of the summit, professionals from both the law enforcement and mental health fields came together to discuss common concerns, problems, and potential solutions. In the final report of that conference, it was reported that in 1955,

there were 560,000 persons hospitalized in psychiatric facilities in the United States. By 2001, the total number of persons institutionalized in psychiatric hospitals was reduced to approximately 60,000 persons.

What would explain such a reduction in the population of mental health facilities when the nation's population, the number of crimes reported, and prison population are all increasing? Several factors have influenced this dramatic reduction in hospitalized and institutionalized persons with mental illness. First, based on improved methods of research, there was a greater understanding and increased knowledge about mental illness and its causes. In the last half of the 20th century, there were tremendous strides in research conducted on persons with mental illnesses and understanding of the causes of mental illnesses. As late as the 1960s, persons with mental illnesses were routinely institutionalized with little thought towards their future or retuning them to mainstream society. Rather than a focus on treatment and returning them to the community, persons were placed in institutions and medicated to control their behavior. In short, they were removed from society and locked up for the rest of their lives. Secondly, as part of the improved knowledge base and understanding of the causes and extent of mental illness, there have been monumental improvements in medications and therapies to assist in the control of mental illness. Treatment for mental illness has evolved from the era of institutionalization and shutting society's doors to treating the behaviors associated with mental illness, providing therapy to improve coping skills, and providing medication to control those behaviors that cannot be controlled through other methods. The focus is now one of returning people with mental illness to society rather than locking them away. In addition, there is a concerted effort on the part of mental health professionals to return persons with mental illness to the community and allow them to become productive members of society rather than be dependent upon society. Part of the treatment plan includes bringing persons with mental illness out of the institutions and asylums and allowing them to learn how to cope with their condition and become productive members of society. Another final factor that has led to the increased number of persons with mental illness in society today is severe budget cuts and the closing of facilities where persons with mental illness were once hospitalized.

Despite the advances in the understanding, treatment, and medications for persons with mental illness, some persons were hospitalized in the best interest of the patient and society as a whole. Unfortunately, in recent years, many state facilities are being closed as a budget reduction measure. Regardless of how careful mental health professionals are in screening people before they are released, it is possible that persons who should continue their institutionalization are being released to communities unprepared or incapable of dealing with their problems. The question is how much of a problem for police are persons with mental illness being back on the streets?

During the ILETSB summit, it was stated that 5% of the nation's population is suffering from some form of severe mental illness. Other sources suggest that nearly 25% of the population of the United States has a diagnosable mental illness. Further supporting the position that police often are called upon to deal with the problems of the mentally ill is that 20% of persons who should be receiving treatment are arrested by the police before they are able to receive treatment. Data further suggests that 16% of the inmates in the nation's jails and prisons have some form of

diagnosable mental illness. It has also been demonstrated that the Cook County Jail holds more persons with mental illness than any other hospital. Consequently, the evidence suggests that rather than treating persons with mental illness as persons with an illness, they are secured in a different state facility—the jails and prisons of our nation. The criminal justice system is often utilized to deal with persons with mental illness. Equally problematic is the issue of police dispositions of persons they encounter, who are suffering from some form of mental illness. In a utopian society, police would be well-trained in dealing with mental health issues and be able to immediately spot mental illness in whatever form it may present itself. They would initiate services from the mental health system to provide treatment and services for the person suffering from mental illness. Of course, all this would be accomplished within minutes of arrival, and the officer could immediately return to patrol to respond to other calls for service. Unfortunately, police officers seldom have such advantages, and this simplistic solution is not realistic and seldom happens in a police officer's life.

Police have traditionally been trained in the traditional methods of policing. Their mission is the overall safety of the public and fighting crime by responding to crimes, identifying suspects, and locking them up. They have traditionally been trained to deter crime by identifying violators with criminal behaviors and placing them in the criminal justice system for punishment. Police, when necessary, can use the force necessary to control persons with mental illness and remove them from society. Interaction with the public is only when necessary and often brief in duration. Traditional policing methods, in addition to being questionable in their effectiveness in deterring crime, are far from efficient when dealing with the mentally ill.

Mental health professionals have the mission of diagnosing mental illness followed by establishing and implementing a treatment plan. Their main focus of attention is the person with mental illness, and their treatment plan would allow the person to be a productive member of society. Mental health professionals use medication in conjunction with therapy to help people learn how to control their illness and adapt to the community. In contrast to the brief interaction with police, mental health professionals spend many hours in working with their clients. Since the early 1980s, the law enforcement community has sought out new and better methods of deterring crime. Traditional policing methods have been found to be ineffective in dealing with crime, and new methods of dealing with criminal behavior had to be developed. Crime rates continued to increase; prison populations grew; and the public demanded more effective police protection.

Traditional police methods—that is those methods that embrace reactionary response to crimes, paramilitary organization, and “professionalism” of police—were not working. Two new concepts of policing were developed and implemented: (1) team policing (TP) and (2) problem-oriented policing (POP). Both methods of policing incorporated a team of officers working with the community to address problems in a specific area or with a specific problem. Under the TP concept, a group of officers would be assigned to a specific district or area and would be responsible for delivering police services to the community. This “team” would operate in addition to, and outside of, the patrol functions of the rest of the department. In the POP concept, officers and citizens would join together to identify problems or specific concerns, and a team of officers would then be assigned to specifically address those problems. In POP, the officers who participate in the problem-solving efforts are

a select few within the department, and they would operate in addition to other police patrols and functions.

There has been some discussion on both sides of the issue as to whether or not TP or POP would be successful where they were implemented. The controversy is based on whether the concepts were flawed, poorly organized and administered, or sabotaged by middle management as a way of protecting their positions within the department. Regardless of why TP and POP are no longer in practice, the concept of community-oriented policing (COP) evolved out of the era of TP and POP. In the COP model, police and the community unit attempt to find specific solutions to specific problems experienced by the community. Rather than being providers of services within traditional policing methods, the police become part of the process that finds long-term solutions to problems within the community. They work with the community to establish solutions to problems. Another one of the many characteristics of COP is that the model involves a department-wide philosophy of working with the community as a team. In both TP and POP, only specifically selected officers would interact and work with the community to address problems in a specific section of the community. In COP, the entire department is engaged in working with citizens to improve the community. Officers are trained to incorporate problem-solving strategies to work with the community and develop action plans for solving those problems. Initial evaluations of COP programs provide some support for the position that COP is effective. Even the staunchest detractors of COP have to acknowledge, at the very least, that COP has a direct impact on the attitudes of persons and their perception of safety in the community. COP has brought the police and the community together to address problems, which has a direct impact on the overall community.

As Sir Robert Peel, the father of modern policing initially proposed in the 19th century, "the police are the community and the community are the police." COP may take on a variety of forms and have a multitude of shapes, all being dependent upon the specific makeup of the community. In dealing with persons having mental illness, COP is a truly effective mechanism to deal with problems of the mentally ill. The full resources of the community can be focused on the issues associated with persons having mental illness, whether that be as victims or perpetrators. During the summit held in November 2002, the participants identified five goals which law enforcement and mental health professionals have identified: (1) Prevent tragedy or physical harm to person with mental illness; (2) Prevent tragedy or physical harm to law enforcement personnel as well as inappropriate release of persons who subsequently harm themselves or others; (3) Encourage referral for long-term intervention and treatment; (4) Maintain the dignity of the person suffering from mental illness; (5) Serve as a government role model for the rest of society, and treat mental illness as an illness. While collaboration is the most efficient use of the resources both in the law enforcement and mental health fields, there are a number of obstacles that have been identified for law enforcement.

The first obstacle is the "revolving door" approach to persons with mental illness. The cycle of detention and release followed by detention again appears to most officers as non-ending. Not only has the person with mental illness not received necessary treatment but also the repeated interactions with the police deplete valuable police resources quickly. A second obstacle is the personal risk to police officers in dealing with violent persons suffering from mental illness. The

unfortunate truth is that persons suffering from mental illness are often treated like anyone else with whom law enforcement officers have contact. Those persons with mental illness may not comprehend that the police are there to help them and may perceive the police as threats to their safety. The police may not fully understand the actions of the persons suffering from mental illness and often misinterpret their actions as threatening. Often, police officers perceive hesitation to directions as threatening, when in some mental illnesses the person needs to process what they are being told to do, and therefore do not respond to the officer's directions. This is not to minimize the constantly present danger that anyone, with or without a mental illness, poses to police officers. Officers must respond to the behaviors exhibited by persons with whom they have contact. A thorough understanding of the basics of mental illness may assist the officer in making more accurate judgments about the threat a person with mental illness presents, thereby increasing the officer's safety in dealing with the public. A third obstacle that has been identified is the tendency in traditional policing practices towards short periods of interaction with the public. Officers must often go from assignment to assignment, and many times, they are not allowed to provide a more time-consuming intervention. This lack of adequate time to fully implement the emergency psychiatric services of the community may lead to less-than-effective intervention by the police. These obstacles are universal and may affect police intervention in any community in the nation.

In central Illinois, however, a unique collaboration between mental health and police professionals has been in place since before COP was the new trend in policing. The McLean County Center for Human Services and the law enforcement agencies within McLean County have built a unique working relationship that has lasted for years. The McLean County Experience—The McLean County Center for Human Services is the community mental health center for McLean County. The office is located in downtown Bloomington and is funded by the State of Illinois Department of Human Services, Office of Mental Health in addition to local community funding (e.g., United Way, local health department, local contracts) to serve individuals who experience mental illness. The center's mission statement indicates that the agency exists to assist persons in McLean County who are in need of mental health services. The agency provides services to children, adolescents, and adults through a variety of programs and services. In addition, it provides intensive services to adults with serious and persistent mental illnesses utilizing both case management services and residential programs.

These services are designed to fill the gap created by the deinstitutionalization process that began in the 1950s, as described previously, with the implementation of antipsychotic medication. Due to this process, long-term hospitalization is not a viable option for many clients, and crisis intervention services are increasingly in demand. Individuals having serious and persistent mental illness are now treated so as to function in communities and are expected to lead independent lives as much as possible. Case management and residential programs in particular help individuals with mental illness maintain their independence within the community. Unfortunately, mental illness is like any other illness in which symptoms ebb and flow between functional and non-functional.

The Emergency Crisis Intervention Team (ECI) treats the current symptoms (in contrast to long-term therapy) of persons with mental illness and assures their safety and well-being. In essence, ECI functions as a mobile psychiatric rescue

squad for persons suffering from psychotic episodes. ECI is a seven-member unit of mental health professionals who are available 24 hours a day, seven days a week, 365 days a year. For each activation of the ECI, the team is represented by two professionals available to respond to any psychiatric emergency within McLean County. These mental health professionals are well-versed in responding to mental health emergencies and the Illinois State mental health code (laws) in addition to various mental illnesses and their treatment. It has been found to be very advantageous to have two mental health professionals responding to each psychiatric emergency. One individual can gather information, and the other can work with the individual in crisis to help promote a safe and therapeutic disposition as efficiently as possible. This team approach creates an environment in which the mental health professionals can consult with each other and assess a situation to promote the most effective disposition for the individual experiencing a crisis. This two-person ECI team approach is unique to McLean County and has been found to be beneficial to both the ECI members and the client. ECI is also unique in the variety and depth of connections to available resources it has within the community. ECI dedicates daily staff time to providing services for both the local mental health in-patient unit and within the McLean County Detention Facility. This is a priority service in that it allows ECI team members to assess and link individuals with mental illness to the appropriate services in an attempt to decrease the involvement of the legal system and local or state psychiatric hospitals. This positioning within the detention facility and local mental health unit provides ECI with the opportunity to develop relationships with the individuals we serve so that we might be better able to assist them in times of crisis.

The working relationship between ECI and law enforcement has been a long-standing positive experience when working with individuals who may be suffering from mental illness. The relationship is simple; ECI depends on law enforcement professionals to thoroughly and safely do their job, and law enforcement professionals have learned to utilize ECI to deal with individuals who may be suffering from mental illness. This working relationship is based on professional respect and positive working interactions. ECI relies on law enforcement to provide a quick response and to secure a scene. Law enforcement depends on ECI to advocate for the individual, and if need be, navigate the officers through the mental health system to meet the client's needs. This approach has worked effectively in McLean County for several decades and will continue to do so in the future as long as law enforcement and the mental health system do not lose sight of the mutual interests they share.

The easiest way to demonstrate this collaboration is through an example. This is a fictitious example based upon many experiences, but it demonstrates the strengths of the relationship between law enforcement and the mental health system in our community. In our example, we will involve the police, ECI, the local hospital emergency department, the in-patient mental health unit, and the Center for Human Services. We will follow the individual from first contact with the police to discharge from the mental health center and follow up with the community mental health center.

Police are dispatched to respond to a white male ("Billy") in his early 20s who is chasing cars in a local grocery store parking lot and screaming bible verses. Upon arrival at the scene, officers see Billy yelling and chasing after cars, and at

one point, Billy attempts to jump on the trunk of a moving vehicle. When police approach Billy, he is cooperative but continues to recite bible verses. At this point, the officer notifies dispatch to contact ECI. Within thirty minutes, ECI is on the scene and are meeting with the police. Prior to the arrival of ECI, the police are able to identify Billy and verify that there are no active warrants for his arrest. There are no current criminal charges against Billy. ECI has had previous contacts with Billy and is aware of Billy's condition and knows that he has not been on his mood stabilizing medication for the past three weeks. After talking with Billy, ECI finds him agreeable to go to the emergency department. Police transport Billy to the emergency department where ECI continues to conduct their evaluation. After evaluating Billy and having him medically cleared, ECI suggested to Billy that he be psychiatrically hospitalized to stabilize his mood. Although reluctant at first, Billy becomes agreeable to hospitalization, and ECI makes the necessary arrangements. Because Billy has agreed to be hospitalized, there is no need for the police officers to prepare a petition for involuntary admission. If Billy had refused to be admitted, the ECI team would assist the patrol officers with the completion of the petition, and the emergency room physician would have made a decision, based on the personal observations of the officers and the doctor, on whether or not to involuntarily admit Billy.

During his course of treatment on the mental health unit, Billy is restarted on his medication and screened by the ECI worker on the unit for case management services. Within two days, Billy shows great improvement with his mood, and the religious preoccupation is diminished significantly. He is agreeable to receive case management services from the Center for Human Services. Prior to his discharge from the mental health unit, the ECI worker on the mental health unit makes arrangements for Billy to meet his case manager and set up a time to meet after discharge. Billy and the case manager agree to meet the day of discharge, and Billy is willing to allow the case manager to transport him home upon leaving the mental health unit. Billy is discharged from the mental health unit after five days. After six months, Billy remains medication compliant and has remained out of the hospital since this hospitalization.

This example demonstrates a good interaction between law enforcement and the mental health system. In this example, law enforcement is dispatched to meet with an individual with a probable mental illness. Rather than being placed in a situation in which they are forced to be mental health professionals, the officers contacted ECI to evaluate the subject. It is this resource, having a mobile mental health team to respond to psychiatric emergencies, that allows law enforcement to remain available for other calls for service and not be tied to one call for an extended period of time. In addition, this example demonstrates the appropriate treatment plan for the individual based on individual needs. ECI was aware of Billy's condition and instability and was able to facilitate appropriate treatment in the least restrictive environment. By initiating an appropriate treatment plan, the ECI members were able to prevent an additional burden on the criminal justice system. This example also demonstrates the necessity of mental health professionals linking the individual to the necessary and appropriate services. The ability of the ECI worker on the inpatient mental health unit to facilitate the connection to appropriate services has allowed Billy to remain in the community without any further inpatient hospitalizations or interactions with law enforcement.

We could modify this scenario to exemplify a few other concepts. Assume that Billy refuses to cooperate with the police and/or ECI. According to the Illinois Mental Health and Developmental Disabilities Code (5/3-606), “a peace officer may take a person into custody and transport him to a mental health facility when, as a result of his personal observation, the peace officer has reasonable grounds to believe that the person is subject to involuntary admission and in need of immediate hospitalization to protect such person or others from physical harm.”

In this scenario, the officers witnessed Billy attempting to jump on the trunk of a moving vehicle, thus demonstrating a potential risk to himself and others. The act of trying to jump on the vehicle, Billy’s refusal to cooperate with the police and/or ECI, and his religious preoccupation led the police to believe that they had reasonable grounds to take him into custody and transport him to the local emergency department at the hospital. Upon arrival to the emergency department, ECI would assist the police in accurately and correctly completing the petition for involuntary admission. ECI would list themselves on the petition as witnesses to the events that are described on the petition (witness to any events that occurred once ECI arrived on scene). It will be at this point that law enforcement personnel are able to back out of the call, and ECI will either complete the first certificate or assist the emergency department physician to complete the first certificate for involuntary, psychiatric hospitalization. If the scenario continues to be complicated and Billy remains uncooperative and meets the criteria for involuntary hospitalization, the psychiatrist will complete a second certificate. The certificates will be filed with the circuit court, and a court hearing will be set within five days (excluding weekends and holidays). The advantage in this situation is that the police officers are not required to attend the commitment hearing. The State’s Attorney’s office uses the testimony of ECI members for the hearing leaving law enforcement out of the scenario and focusing on law enforcement duties rather than mental health issues. If Billy is found to meet criteria for court commitment to mental health treatment, Billy will be transferred to a state hospital for further treatment.

Once stabilized at the state hospital, Billy will return to the community with the appropriate services in place, including something as intensive as court-ordered medication compliance. Another twist that can be added to this scenario would be the exclusion of ECI at the scene and the police officers arresting Billy and transporting him to the McLean County Detention Facility. Once at the detention facility, the ECI jail counselor would attempt to assess Billy and determine the level of care he requires. If Billy is willing to accept treatment, the detention facility has a contract with one of the psychiatrists at the McLean County Center for Human Services, who can restart his medication, and the ECI jail counselor can reestablish the necessary services for him. If Billy were to remain uncooperative, the ECI jail counselor would have several options. The jail counselor could petition Billy for involuntary hospitalization. The detention facility could issue an I-bond for the charges. Another option is to wait for Billy to appear in front of the judge and have the State’s Attorney request a personnel recognizance bond on the criminal charges from the judge release in order to involuntarily hospitalize Billy in the local inpatient mental health unit.

The difficulty with charging Billy with a crime is assessing whether or not this is the best approach to treat his mental illness. Another complicating factor is the charges that may be filed against Billy. If felony charges are pending, it is not possible to

civilly commit a person for inpatient psychiatric treatment. If the charges are felony charges, the ECI jail counselor would contact the State's Attorney's office to review the case in an attempt to reduce the charges to misdemeanors so that ECI could proceed with an involuntary hospitalization on the inpatient mental health unit to stabilize Billy's symptoms. This would not only relieve the already overcrowded criminal justice system, but would allow Billy to receive the treatment necessary to rejoin society as a productive member. We are hoping to use this article as a demonstration of why it is imperative for law enforcement to work jointly with mental health professionals when dealing with individuals who are suffering from severe symptoms related to a mental illness. Police are not trained to deal with mental health issues, and mental health professionals are not trained to deal with matters involving police intervention. As is demonstrated above through the collaboration in the "McLean County Experience," it is the responsibility of the mental health arena, not law enforcement to provide the appropriate services for individuals who are in some sort of mental health crisis. This working relationship in McLean County is enhanced by the commitment of law enforcement and mental health to do the right thing for the client and the community as a whole.

Keith Gehrand is a captain and patrol division commander with the Illinois State University Police Department. He has been in police work since 1980 and has worked in both the rural and university setting. He has experience in patrol, investigative, and administrative positions. He is active with a number of University and community groups, including being a member of the Center for Human Services Board of Directors. He has been on the Center for Human Services Board of Directors for nine years and in that time has served in a variety of capacities including president.

Captain Gehrand currently holds a bachelor's degree from Illinois State University and is currently completing his master thesis in criminal justice sciences. He is a graduate of Northwestern University's School of Police Staff and Command. He is also a member of the Advisory Board for Mobile Training Unit 8, Law and Justice Commission, Illinois Law Enforcement Standards and Training Board. In addition, Captain Gehrand is an instructor in Police Response to Persons with Mental Illness.

Overlapping the Actual with the Academic: The Education-Training Continuum

Anthony Pesare, MPA, JD, Dean, Roger Williams University
Robert McKenna, MS, JD, Assistant Dean, Roger Williams University
Chris Menton, EdD, Assistant Professor, Roger Williams University
Robert Engvall, JD, PhD, Associate Professor, Roger Williams University

Abstract

“The academy is contested terrain in contemporary society. Much of this conflict is over the boundaries between the academy and society and over the scope and authority of the academic disciplines themselves” (Brown & Schubert, 2002, p. 1051).

As policing becomes ever more complicated and police officers must subsequently be ever more vigilantly educated and trained to deal with the complexities that face them individually and collectively on a daily basis, there becomes a greater need for collaboration between traditional educational outlets and police training endeavors. The need for the police to more freely and fully access the university and the need and the ability of the university to assist in both the education and the training of police officers would seem to be a logical response to problems that arise in which society laments what are perceived by many to be “poorly trained and/or poorly equipped” officers.

If police officers reflect the society we share, then perhaps better utilization of the assets of our society could better prepare police officers for a changing world. Equipping police officers with the intellectual tools and cognitive skills necessary to most effectively handle an always more diverse population would, again, seem logical in a society that truly values diversity and seeks appropriate treatment of all of its citizens.

Universities and colleges are equipped to effectively contribute to their communities in many ways, academically, socially, culturally, economically, and beyond. Still, by and large, they are underutilized assets, with the capacity to assist police organizations, as well as other social service agencies, more comprehensively. Full utilization of educational assets is vital if we are to seek better ways of addressing a myriad of social problems that often culminate in individual contact with the criminal justice system. Integration of programs and cooperation among professionals is more important than ever as we address social problems that seem to be ever widening in their scope. This article attempts to illustrate how one program has been and continues to make attempts at the type of full integration that might strengthen both academia and professional practice.

Introduction

Whenever there is an attempt made to increase collaboration between and among “real world agencies,” like police departments and academic enterprises, there is always tension. How we might best alleviate much of that tension and bring about positive collaboration is the focus of this article. To accomplish the ends we seek, we must first develop a basic understanding and appreciation of the general systems theory. Scott (1992) determined that “all systems are characterized by an assemblage or combination of parts whose relations make them interdependent” (p. 77). Systems are composed of multiple subsystems, and systems are themselves contained within suprasystems (p. 85). Systems theory, then, among other things, informs us of the need to view organizations as entities that are both interdependent with other organizations and other subsystems within organizations and that have independent aspects as well. The justice system, for example, is comprised of three basic parts: (1) law enforcement, (2) the courts, and (3) corrections. Each of these subsystems has independent aspects common only to them. Each also is dependent upon the other two in order to function at their highest potential levels. To deny that each subsystem is dependent and interdependent and that each might only succeed as far as the others allow them to succeed is to deny reality. Reality, for academia, involves the realization that our greatest successes will come with recognition that cooperation between “traditional academics” and professionals in the field will lead to our greatest potential for success as we attempt to address a society in which a variety of social problems continue to mount.

The justice studies program, at Roger Williams University, where the authors of this article are employed, attempts to continually resolve the inherent conflicts between the traditional academy and the “practice in the field” through a variety of means. The rhetoric concerning collaboration between the “practice” and study is powerful. Most colleges and universities (ours included) make grand proclamations concerning their “unique” abilities to bridge the gaps between “traditional” knowledge and “real-world” experience.

Internship programs are one example in which students (and patrons) are convinced that a given academic environment might effectively deliver traditional “book learning” with practically and vocationally necessary “real-world experience.” Whether such proclamations match our genuine ability to deliver such a combination is sometimes open to debate. The debate over the effectiveness of internships, however, does not diminish the fact that internships have now become an integral part of nearly all programs in criminal justice. Whether these programs fully “integrate” the student into the “real world” and whether these programs truly increase the ever expanding knowledge base of college students is, again like the successes real and perceived of most programs, open to some debate. What about other methods of integration between traditional academia and the “real world”? Might there be other avenues in which programs with two seemingly contradictory goals converge to the benefit of both?

Perhaps the initial question should be, “How is the involvement of a university with a ‘research and training institute’ part of the educational and/or academic enterprise?” Should a university focus upon teaching and research in the university setting and leave space between itself and the larger community? The answer, it seems, even more today than in the past, is that universities not only should integrate

themselves more fully into the community, but they must do so. A movement is emerging in which university presidents are placing community partnerships higher on their agendas (Maurrasse, 2001, p. 1). These partnerships are forcing universities and their faculties to think more fully about the purpose of higher education.

Integration of the university with the community, however rhetorically appropriate, is not without its critics. "Traditionalists" within academia, who are reluctant to give up the historic separation that has always existed between higher education and "the real world," often tend to view integration less as any expansion of knowledge and/or service and more as a ceding of educational standards to practical ends.

This article focuses upon integration or cooperative coexistence of traditional academic programs and a criminal justice training and research institute. How might we capitalize upon, rather than merely tolerate, the many differences between these two camps? Most specifically, how might we in "traditional academia" use the training and research institute for the benefit of our students, and how, conversely, might those of us in the training and research institute use "traditional academia" for the benefit of our target audience?

The boundaries that can sometimes limit the usefulness of one's knowledge must be broken down in order for successful and lifelong learning to occur. Hoover (2002) lamented the barriers that sometimes stand in the way of genuine integration of learning and, ultimately, of knowledge. "Most academic disciplines have developed boundaries that limit the usefulness of our knowledge to those outside and that blind us to the wisdom that could be found among nonacademics" (p. 1135).

On some levels, there can be no argument concerning the distinction between "training" and "education." Noble (2002) delineated the distinction thusly: "In essence, training involves the honing of a person's mind so that it can be used for the purposes of someone other than that person. Training thus typically entails a radical divorce between knowledge and the self. Education is the exact opposite of training in that it entails not the disassociation but the utter integration of knowledge and the self" (p. 27). Understanding these distinctions and the recognition that both have a positive role to play in a university setting might go some distance toward more effective collaboration between and among participants in each.

Integration of Traditional Academia with Professional Practice and Preparation

How might "traditional academia" use a training and research institute for the benefit of undergraduate and graduate students, and how, conversely, might those in a training and research institute use "traditional academia" for the benefit of the target audience in the criminal justice system? Perhaps the answer lies in the belief that there is a symbiotic rather than adversarial relationship between education and training in the criminal justice arena.

Universities typically proffer several core values that drive the institution, such as the following:

- Learning for its own sake as an intrinsic value
- Preparing students for professions and further study

- Making available opportunities to conduct research
- Serving the larger communities
- Developing a global understanding and perspective
- Maintaining a caring community with respect for each individual (Nirschel, 2001)

These core values do not distinguish between academic programs and the rest of the world, rather they reflect the interrelationship between what occurs within the walls of the academy and its impact on the greater society. The challenge, then, is to bring life to the core values.

The model suggested to implement this process consists of three distinct but inextricably related components and can be represented by a three-legged stool. The legs correspond to the undergraduate criminal justice and legal studies programs, the graduate criminal justice program, and the justice system training & research institute respectively, while the seat corresponds to the educational institutional entity as a whole.

According to the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (ACJS) Minimum Standards for Criminal Justice Education (1998), . . .

. . . The purpose of higher education programs in criminal justice is to educate students to be critical thinkers who can communicate their thoughts effectively in oral and written form, as well as to instill a comprehensive knowledge of the field. Programs should strive not only to familiarize students with facts and concepts but, more importantly, teach students to use ethical behavior in applying this knowledge to related problems and changing fact situations. The development of critical thinking, communication skills, and the ability to conceptualize ideas should be a primary objective of all criminal justice courses . . . Criminal justice programs shall not offer collegiate courses nor award academic credit for vocational training courses designed for specific job preparation or advanced job training. These courses are characterized by training for specific job skills, rather than education involving conceptual learning. (p. 3)

Additionally, the ACJS Minimum Standards for Criminal Justice Education (1998) direct that, . . .

The broad scope of criminal justice should be reflected in the baccalaureate curriculum, as should a balanced presentation of the issues of the field. Substantively, all programs should have required core courses that focus specifically on the areas below:

- *Criminal justice and juvenile justice processes* (law, crime, and administration of justice)
- *Criminology* (the causes of crime, typologies, offenders, and victims)
- *Law enforcement* (police organization, discretion, subculture, and legal constraints)

- *Law adjudication* (criminal law, prosecution, defense, and court procedures and decision-making)
- *Corrections* (incarceration, community-based corrections, and treatment of offenders)

Graduate level programs are often more specialized in their focus and emphasis, and students from a variety of backgrounds often pursue graduate work in criminal justice. Nevertheless, measures should be taken to insure that all students completing graduate degrees in criminal justice have an adequate understanding of the five substantive areas listed above. (p. 6)

Although the standards were drafted to advise undergraduate and graduate criminal justice programs, the essence of the standards can be utilized as a guide for formulation and implementation of a training and research component. Does it not seem appropriate that after the development of critical thinking skills and conceptual learning, the individual should be presented with the opportunity to apply those attributes in the “real world”? Does it not also seem appropriate that the “real world” should inform the academic study? Often, those in academia fully understand and appreciate the fact that their value can and should be transferred to professional practice, but tend to be wary of whether professionals practicing in the field might appropriately transfer their knowledge to academics and their students. Effectuating the transfer of knowledge in each direction, rather than merely in one direction, is among the values that a training and research institute working in cooperation and in combination with the traditional academic program brings to the university.

To some extent the ACJS Minimum Standards recognize this relationship through the declaration that, . . .

Internships provide a useful mechanism for students to assess their interest and apply their classroom knowledge in an area of criminal justice. All programs should have elective internship opportunities available to upper-level students. Measures should be taken to insure internships are meaningful, relevant, and related to educational objectives. In that regard, the internship programs are designed to introduce the undergraduate student to the application of critical thinking skills and conceptual learning based problem solving.

The strengths of the Roger Williams University internship program have been noted in an ACJS study of regional criminal justice programs commissioned by the Massachusetts Board of Higher Education. This internship experience is designed in such a way as to compel students to bring the academic experience they have gained with them for use in their field placement. The students’ task is to reconcile their education with the art of the practice in the field. To do this, students must develop within themselves a self-directed learner’s approach. The internship program supports the development of such an approach. Students, through the use of a journal, are asked to analyze the circumstances and their reflections of observations and actions in the field. Other program requirements are structured in such a fashion as to urge students at all possible times to engage in the decision-making process and to take subsequent action. This set of approaches can be seen in the guidelines for the internship final report.

Internship Report Guidelines

The internship report requires students to outline both the nature of the activities in which they were engaged in the “field,” as well as to reflectively examine the quality of those activities.

A series of questions are put to the student intern including the following:

- What was your motivation to pursue an intern placement?
- What steps were involved in securing the placement?
- What were your expectations upon starting the placement?
- How were your studies helpful to your internship? Note this includes any course work or other liberal arts higher education activities.
- How has this placement informed you? What lessons will you take away from the experience?
- How has this placement influenced your future plans?
- How have you changed during the course?
- What were the emotional responses required for this placement?
- What are the emotional responses needed to do this kind of work?

Both the thrust of the internship program and the work of the University’s Justice Studies Institute for Research and Training are consistent with Donald Schön’s (1983) theory of reflection-in-action. This approach guides academic interactions with field practitioners. Support of self-directed learners continues with support for field practitioners. In the case of field practitioners who, by necessity, are self-directed learners, the institute functions to refine the learner’s focus and to provide a broad range of information. Both focus and additional information serve to guide the self-directed learner toward the habits of what Schön calls a reflective practitioner. Developing the habit of informed reflection echoes John Dewey’s (1916) value of targeted development of habit. By prompting reflection in action as a major component in training, the training program curriculum has a closer link to the practitioner’s input and issues.

The Training and Research Institute is able to adapt the internship concept by offering a venue for practitioners to connect to the academy in a supportive manner. Student interns take their academic skills and conceptual learning to the real-world while in the Training and Research Institute setting; the practitioners bring their experience-based knowledge to the classroom.

The relationship is fostered through the use of academically trained instructors within the institute. This includes university faculty as well as subject matter experts from the field. The goal is to truly blend the academic and the practical within the same class setting. The institute should endeavor to utilize faculty from a university’s other schools including Justice Studies, Law, Business, and the College of Arts and Sciences, as well as leaders in the field. Such an interdisciplinary approach is essential for practitioners who will formulate and manage justice system policies in the new millennium.

Faculty, including adjunct faculty, provide their expertise in the development and delivery of specific subject matter seminars through the institute. Programs on wide-ranging topics such as criminal procedure, civil liability, legal research, domestic

violence, Law Enforcement Officer's Bill of Rights, ethics, grant writing, and women in law enforcement may be presented through the efforts of university personnel. The topics address an attempt to blend conceptual learning and pragmatic advice for practitioners. With respect to those and other seminars and conferences, the institute relies on anecdotal as well as specific evidence of need in the criminal justice community.

The institute has established and must continue to establish partnerships for mutually beneficial initiatives with local, state, and federal criminal justice agencies in the development and implementation of training and research. These partnerships present undergraduate students with a network within which to satisfy the ACJS internship standard cited above. The faculty and administrators within the university likewise share in the network as a means of enhancing academic program delivery.

Additionally, the network presents faculty, undergraduate students, and graduate students with an opportunity to conduct applied research in a variety of areas, including policing, the courts, and corrections. Faculty serve as principal investigators and have considerable expertise in the areas of data collection, survey research, questionnaire development, data analysis, and interpretation.

Additionally, the faculty may agree to coordinate a joint research project undertaken by graduate students to glean a law enforcement training needs assessment. The results of the assessment will assist in the further development and implementation of training seminars for the criminal justice community.

The institute provides a venue to conduct applied research for faculty and other independent researchers. Funds from a federal discretionary grant may provide stipends for research, the writing of publications, and the presentation of data. A summer visiting faculty fellowship may be utilized. Those responsible for formulating social policy within the justice system require reliable empirical data about social phenomena in order to develop effective methodologies and programs. Increasingly sophisticated systems, programs, and training are required to address the complex challenges facing the justice system. The precise nature of the data that is needed to support the justice system varies significantly according to the types of phenomena being studied and the purpose of the study. An institute should be capable of providing accurate information to social policy makers, utilizing various types of research methodology, including the following:

- Survey research
- Experimental research
- Quasi-experimental research
- Longitudinal research
- Focus group research
- Program evaluation
- Policy analysis for social agencies

The research conducted by the institute should focus on the U.S. and regional justice systems and should . . .

- Provide task analysis and needs assessment surveys for justice system agencies.
- Provide high-quality education and training for justice system personnel.
- Apprise justice system personnel of recent developments in the law.
- Analyze crime data for justice system agencies.
- Provide research and technical expertise for justice system agencies.
- Provide quality computer education and training for justice system agencies.

As previously suggested, the typical university core values do not distinguish between academic programs and the rest of the world; rather, they reflect the interrelationship between what occurs within the walls of the academy and its impact on the greater society. Have we infused the core values with life? Are the various facets of the educational, training, and research process at a training and research institute effective to that end?

The core value of “learning for its own sake as an intrinsic value” overlays quality undergraduate and graduate programs and is exemplified by the symbiotic relationship among the individual components of the university’s delivery system. Student internship programs within the criminal justice community combined with academic training fulfill the value related to “preparing students for professions and further study.” Applied research conducted jointly and severally by faculty and students related to policing, corrections, and courts issues work toward “making available opportunities to conduct research.” “Serving the larger communities” would be evidenced by the numerous and diverse training and research partnership endeavors with local, state, federal, and institutional entities as well as through the initiation of faculty fellowships within the criminal justice community. “Developing a global understanding and perspective” is fostered through the utilization of research in understanding and designing additional research and training proposals. The collegial environment of the faculty, staff, students, and criminal justice community as a whole serves as the example of “maintaining a caring community with respect for each individual.”

Summary

Within a university setting, there can sometimes exist an undercurrent tension between “careerists” and the more “traditional”-minded professors. Embracing the “middle” status that encompasses both traditional academia and careerism allows for a positive coexistence for both “sides” for the benefit of our students and, hopefully, larger society. The three-legged stool we’ve mentioned before is an apt description of the way in which we’ve sought balance between support for the “intellectual” and the development of reciprocal relationships with practitioners in the field. Training supported by a university creates better research opportunities for traditional academia as well as fulfills the needs of our field agencies within the criminal justice realm.

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Anthony Pesare, MPA, JD, is dean of the School of Justice Studies at Roger Williams University in Bristol, Rhode Island. Prior to his tenure at Roger Williams, Mr. Pesare was the executive officer of the Rhode Island State Police.

Robert McKenna, MS, JD, is assistant dean of the School of Justice Studies at Roger Williams University. Prior to his tenure at Roger Williams, Mr. McKenna was a lieutenant with the East Providence, Rhode Island Police Department where he served as director of the planning and training unit.

Chris Menton, EdD, is assistant professor of justice studies at Roger Williams University. Prior to his tenure at Roger Williams, Dr. Menton served as a correctional officer for the Massachusetts Department of Corrections.

Robert Engvall, JD, PhD, is associate professor of justice studies at Roger Williams University. Prior to his tenure at Roger Williams University, Dr. Engvall practiced law and was a judicial magistrate in the state of Iowa.

Assessment of Training as a Change Mechanism and Action Plan for Modification: Incorporating an Associate's Degree in Applied Science into a Police Training Program

Allison Chapman, Commander, Frederick County Law Enforcement Academy and Training Program, Frederick County Sheriff's Office, Frederick, Maryland

Background and Significance of the Change

The Frederick County Sheriff's Office (FCSO) is the primary full-service law enforcement agency in Frederick County. Frederick City is now the second largest city in Maryland. The county, encompassing the city, has a population of approximately 200,000 people and is 645 square miles in area. Our agency is growing at the rate of approximately 10 to 15 deputies every year for the past five years, and we anticipate maintaining this growth rate for several years in the future. Our current authorized strength is 160 sworn deputies. The FCSO will be moved into a new multimillion dollar state-of-the-art facility. In addition, plans are underway for a police academy wing to be added to the existing public safety facility in July 2004. Currently, the FCSO Law Enforcement Academy shares facilities and partners instructors and equipment at the public safety facility with the fire and rescue services.

The rapid growth of the county and need for qualified and professional personnel presented a unique academy and training development unit challenge. The training unit was faced with a decrease in qualified recruit applicants, partly due to the lucrative job market in 2000. Our first identified objective was to increase recruit numbers. Our second objective was to offer a program utilizing existing job benefits to attract professionally qualified recruits. Our third objective was to manage the current accumulated college credit hours of our recruits and veteran deputies in a meaningful way that would result in a college degree, rather than meaningless hours scattered throughout several disciplines or accumulated wholly as "electives." Our final objective was to retain our personnel.

The impact on the FCSO was clear. In order to professionalize our agency at a rapid rate of growth, attract qualified personnel, offer recruit incentives, and retain these recruits, the FCSO had to look at nontraditional alternatives available within our own agency and community. Without achieving these goals, the FCSO would fall behind in filling current vacancies and hire less-than-qualified personnel. Existing personnel would continue to aimlessly accrue college credits, and we would continue to fight high attrition rates.

Looking first at the recruiting issue, the FCSO in conjunction with Frederick Community College (FCC) agreed to explore developing a program to incorporate an associate's degree into the existing police academy program in order to recruit the

best possible candidates available and to retain these candidates within the agency throughout their careers. It was central to FCC's mission to provide affordable, flexible, quality programs that promise student opportunities for educational success and occupational placement. In doing so, we established our first partnership within the community toward recruiting qualified personnel and adding a professional dimension to our personnel. In other words, once the changes were identified, we looked at the questions "What's in it for us?" and "What's in it for them?" (Maurer, 1998).

Traditionally, deputies receive 15 hours of college credits for their academy training based on the length of the academy. The FCSO Academy ran six months and was awarded 20 college credit hours; however, these credits were not articulated. In other words, they were not transferable hours into specific courses and did not have a grade point average (GPA) assigned to them. Deputies also received college credits for professional courses; however, these credits were not managed into a system that would result in the awarding of a college degree. Theoretically, a deputy could end up having 100 college credits without any degree in sight.

Looking at other college "incentive" programs, including "distance" learning, we found that several colleges entered into agreements with the Maryland Police and Correctional Training Commission (MPCTC) to offer college credits for the academy in "elective" or "core course areas" but did not offer a degree at the conclusion of the academy. This was up to individuals to pursue on their own time or by utilizing department benefits (annual leave, compensatory time). Then, students would have to "enroll" either at a local college that would accept part of their accumulated credits or in the issuing college program via the Internet and pay for a minimum number of college credit courses in order to be awarded their degrees. Over time, these "Internet colleges," University of Phoenix, El Salado College, etc., progressed into offering and accepting articulated courses from the police academies so that a transcript would display specific courses and course hours but no GPA other than for the courses taken through their own programs. These courses were seldom accepted or transferable to any institution other than the initiating college.

The FCSO and FCC began developing a program that would offer transferable course titles, credits, and a GPA resulting in the awarding of an associate's degree in applied science in police science, which would be transferable to a four-year college program. We utilized the county's generous educational reimbursement program by submitting a proposal comparing the costs of a deputy pursuing his or her college degree by individual course compared to the college's offer to enter into a contract charging the county only 21 credit hours of general education credits for courses taught by faculty staff at the police academy. The Board of County Commissioners was also presented the program and agreed to waive the one-year probationary employee requirement allowing the deputies to receive their educational benefits while in the academy. The academy program incorporating the FCC curriculum would cost \$1,600.00 compared to pursuing the same program independently through the county at a cost of \$6,000.00. Yearly educational entitlement to county employees is \$2,000.00, thereby saving the county \$400.00 a year and allowing for a student surplus of monies.

We also compared the loss in man-hours to the agency for deputies utilizing annual leave, compensatory time, and sick leave to attend courses on their own.

We presented the program to the MPCTC and received approval. We then prepared a proposal to the Maryland Higher Education Commission, Maryland's Higher Education regulatory body, and again, won approval of the program curriculum.

Our goal to offer incoming recruits a manageable program of college credits with an end result of the awarding of a college degree was not yet complete. We further wanted to offer the recruits a means of pursuing their education locally toward a baccalaureate degree. Having conducted the AAS program for four academies, we built a target population that could appeal to a four-year institution. But what about the "veteran" officers who had already obtained their AS degree in police science or in criminal justice and who were struggling to flex hours and monies to pursue their education without incentives? We appealed to Mount St. Mary's College and developed an accelerated program offering a BA degree in criminal justice. Mount St. Mary's College has accepted the FCSO/FCC AAS. The program offers any officer within the county holding a two-year AAS or AA, or who has been a sworn law enforcement officer for two years and has 30 credit hours, an opportunity to pursue his or her BA. This proposal was lucrative enough to the college to make it financially feasible. A survey was sent to all law enforcement officers in the county soliciting interest with overwhelming response, so the population base has been established. This has given our deputies and officers of the county a direction in managing their college credits toward a specific goal, that is, obtaining an advanced degree from a local institution with hands-on learning and offering them promotional potential points within the agency for retention purposes. Without costing any additional monies, these programs will cause the officers to invest their time and loyalty to the agency by offering them a cost-free education, promotional potential, and an opportunity to plan for their future based on their accomplishments.

The FCSO now offers its recruiting program an incentive to encourage applicants to enter the profession in addition to traditional salaries and benefit packages by offering a cost-free opportunity to complete an associate's degree in police science to recruits who might not otherwise have the time or finances to do so. FCC can offer this program for the same reasons in its recruiting efforts and further meet its mission to offer flexible programs to the student population. Mount St. Mary's can take advantage of this target population by offering an accelerated program and accepting the course work already completed through this program and individual efforts. The commissioners of the county receive professional and qualified personnel in their county force at no additional costs. The community receives a highly trained and *educated* police enforcement agency sensitive to different socioeconomic and diverse populations. It is the FCSO training philosophy that "Training teaches you to react" and "Education teaches you to think."

In constructing the program, it was necessary to examine all of the lesson plan objectives and seat time hours of the police academy and all of the lesson plans, requirements, seat time hours, and core learning objectives of FCC. To maintain the integrity of the FCC program and the MPCTC-mandated requirements, staff from FCC and the FCSO, had to ensure that all requirements of each discipline were incorporated into the program. Where the learning objectives of the academy and the core learning outcomes of the college, in addition to seat time hours, were met, duplication was eliminated. Areas that were not incorporated into the police academy, like theory, math, and science, were added. These additions resulted in the extension of the police academy by six weeks. The academy staff tested the hours and

objectives that met both the FCC core learning outcomes, and the MPCTC learning objectives were assigned GPAs. The FCC faculty assessing their classes tested general education courses. Both grades were then averaged into a GPA. The program result is that recruits are awarded their AAS in police science at the academy graduation. The AAS transcript represents 21 general education course hours, broken down by course and 41 core courses, broken down by course. Individual courses under the FCC curriculum were listed, credit hours assigned, and a GPA displayed. Books were obtained through private donations and grants and assigned to the academy rather than to the individual student so that they could be used in future academies until such times as the editions were revised or updated. All amenities offered to full-time FCC students were available to the academy students—student union, library, computer lab, free tutoring, etc. All classes were taught on the academy grounds to ensure academy discipline and focus. The training staff consisted of Maryland Police Corrections and Police Training certified instructors for all nongeneral education classes. FCSO staff members who were trained in specific areas of expertise taught specialized areas of instruction. FCC faculty taught the FCC general education classes on the academy grounds. Class size was limited to 24 recruits each, and as an approved academy with the MPCTC, we can train recruits from anywhere in the state of Maryland, in addition to our own recruits.

The Mount St. Mary's Program will offer upper level core courses once a week for seven weeks. Each class will be four hours in length. The classes will be held off-campus at a central location in Frederick City. The program should take approximately two years to finish.

Our efforts to evaluate these highly trained deputies are ongoing. We have developed data collection tools to measure their progress in terms of retention and performance compared with nondegreed personnel with the same level of experience. We utilized all field training reports, which are submitted on a daily basis. We are reviewing their bimonthly personal evaluations completed during their 18 months of probation. We are also examining their conviction rates in criminal cases and quality of their prosecutorial reports. Lastly, the area in which we have noticed the greatest difference is their ability to make decisions. Traditionally, recruits on probation after having completed the academy are conditioned to doing exactly as told. We then put them on the street to work alone after 12 weeks of field training. We have observed and learned through discussions with supervisory staff that the students who achieved their AAS degree are able to make good sound decisions without being told or prompted. They appear to think their way through the situation, are articulate in their reports, and display much more confidence in carrying out their assignments. We are currently conferring with FCC faculty and the training development unit/academy staff to measure these observations.

The FCSO cannot yet measure long-term retention, as the program is less than three years old. Traditionally, because of the counties lower-than-average salaries, we have lost personnel to surrounding jurisdictions. To date, we have not lost any of the approximately 40 recruits completing this program thus far, which is encouraging. We will be looking at these recruits' longevity, commitment to the agency through their investment in the AAS program in terms of time, and whether or not this influenced their commitment and loyalty to the agency. Lastly, we will be looking at how many recruits actually take advantage of the Mount St. Mary's accelerated program, whether they continue to pursue their education and promotional potential

as a result of these opportunities offered through the agency, and how much their investment influenced their career decisions.

Several methods were utilized in the development of the program. First, a needs assessment was accomplished. Secondly, financial feasibility and the best way to utilize all available resources within the agency and within the community were determined. Lastly, its development and implementation was initiated successfully. We intend to continue to develop programs along these lines because of this initial success and our commitment in believing that education does and will assist law enforcement personnel in today's society to become more successful, safe, committed to their career and community, and skilled and educated to affect change in their diverse professional field. Re-evaluation is ongoing in relation to the program and officer performance. Support from command staff and the agency is an integral requirement of successfully implementing these programs. A needs assessment and financial analysis is crucial to obtaining this support as well as looking outside your own back door for solutions and alternative ways to resolve situations facing modern law enforcement, both financially and operationally. Our goal was to integrate two separate and distinct institutional programs and combine the resources of both, utilizing the least amount of funding, in the shortest amount of time, to achieve an atmosphere of professionalism resulting in educational opportunities that would, in turn, result in recruiting of new deputies and retention of new and veteran deputies. The changes were expected to contribute to the organizational culture of the agency by preparing more professionally trained and educated officers. Based on emerging research, educated officers are showing a distinct decrease in the number of citizen complaints, and an increase in prosecutorial success and conviction rates, promotional achievement, agency commitment, integration, and interaction with other professionals in their communities. This is the first academy in the United States to award an AAS at the academy graduation.

Conclusion

In Maurer's (1998) Cycle of Change theory, the first stage, random incidents, indicated a need for change in the way we have traditionally conducted our academies. The fragmentation of assigning college credit hours and lack of tying in academics with rote reaction was not filling all the gaps needed to produce the best possible candidate. There was a lack of cohesiveness and consistency in instruction methods, which left opportunities untapped.

In the second stage, recognition, the changes needed were identified and affirmed, and a program was developed for approval. My agency and I saw this as an opportunity to make significant yet beneficial changes to a traditional approach to academy training. The third stage, initial actions, included the development of support, contracts, alternative plans, and lesson plans, financing, etc. The command staff was now able to see the program as it was developed and gain full understanding of its concepts and potential.

The third stage, implementation, again involved planning, budgetary approvals, a time line that was flexible (in order for the program not to be forced and therefore haphazardly administered), and still gaining support as it was being developed.

The forth stage, integration, is where we are now. The program has been accepted and based on its cost effectiveness, academic credentials, acceptance, and adoption by several agencies nationwide; it is “business as usual” for us.

The last stage, waning activity, is being anticipated by our agency. Although there are no plans to change the current academic requirements of the program, we are directing our staff’s energies toward improving the “traditional” curriculum of the “police training” portion of the academy program. In other words, it is time to move on from the academic focus to improving what and how we train in the police arenas. For example, physical training has always been a key component of police training; there are no standards or state regulatory objectives for this, yet we spend hours of academy time running our recruits around the block. After graduation, recruits will always know how to run, but will they remember their defensive tactics training, which consists of half of the time of their physical training? We would like to move into the future, reversing this “traditional” trend and put our emphasis on what the officers will actually use on the street, using physical training as a progressive support program to defensive tactics—again, beginning the cycle of change.

Lastly, I wanted to address the resistance experienced in the program described in this article. The greatest resistance came from the veteran officers, all of whom felt that since they too completed a police academy, they should be awarded their AAS. Both my office and FCC were flooded with calls, initially, calling for their degrees to be issued. As the first calls began to come in, we saw that a change was needed here to address their concerns, hence, the Mount St. Mary’s program, coupled with an explanation of the academy curriculum. This relatively simple issue was addressed by giving these officers “something in it for them” as well as an explanation, which quelled the potential conflict between new academy graduates, veteran officers, and organizational culture. Today, many of the newly graduated officers are assisting the veteran officers in the pursuit of a goal-oriented BA degree. I also found that having a plan and an alternative plan, listening to the training and educational needs of the command staff and officers, and being flexible and not argumentative and protective of the original ideas aided the success of this program tremendously.

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Source Review

Sources utilized for this project consisted of examining the following:

- Police academies currently offering college credits as a source of recruiting and incentive
- “Distance” learning programs in criminal justice or police science
- Resources within our own community such as FCC and Mount St. Mary’s College
- Frederick County personnel office
- The Board of County Commissioners
- Maryland Higher Education Commission
- Maryland Police and Correctional Training Commission
- Published documentation related to recruiting, educating, and training qualified staff

Allison Chapman is the Commander of the Frederick County Law Enforcement Academy and Training Program with the Frederick County Sheriff’s Office in Frederick, Maryland, a full-service law enforcement agency. She has been with the department 22 years and worked for 18 months in Bosnia and Croatia immediately following the demilitarization of the area. Captain Chapman has an MA and is working on a second master’s degree through the Johns Hopkins University Police Executive Leadership Program.

Practical Community Policing for Smaller and Rural Police Departments

Robert Doepp, Chief, Greenfield Police Department

Community policing is *the* major direction in police reform as we enter the 21st century. There are almost as many definitions and descriptions of community policing as there are governmental bureaucracies and police agencies. Each is a product of the function or purpose of the agency and the perceptions of its leadership. This diversity is not necessarily a bad thing; although, sometimes it makes it difficult to obtain funding when agencies try to define community policing too precisely. For the purposes of this commentary, I will use Robert Trojanowicz's definition:

A philosophy of full-service personalized policing, where the same officer patrols and works in the same area on a permanent basis, from a decentralized place, working in a proactive partnership with citizens to identify and solve problems. (Woods, 2002)

This seems to capture the essence of the community-policing movement as it is portrayed and practiced today; although, decentralization does not apply in small departments.

The bottom line objectives of community policing are reducing crime and disorder, calming fears about public safety, and reducing the public's feeling of alienation from social institutions (police) (Mastrofski, 1999). The realization of these goals is predominantly found in the perceptions of the citizens. When the public perceives a reduction in crime and disorder, fears are reduced. When fears are reduced, people begin to live their lives in a way that makes the community less attractive to criminal elements. When the people of a community perceive the police as allies and partners, they feel less fear of government and are empowered to take an active role in improving their community. As is obvious, each objective is dependent upon the other objectives, and perception is one of the keys to success. What Stephen D. Mastrofski calls "policing-for-people" seems to be the heart and soul of community policing. Its success depends upon perceptions, and I believe it can be the cornerstone in community policing in smaller or rural police agencies.

The basic characteristics of policing-for-people are those that denote good service. The elements of good service are attentiveness, reliability, responsive service, competence, manners, and fairness (Mastrofski, 1999). Attentiveness demonstrates the commitment to serve the community. Reliability makes people comfortable in knowing that they can expect needed services. Responsive service is demonstrated when police take a little extra time with citizens to fully understand the problem and follow through to the solution or make a good-faith effort and explain the reason why the police cannot fulfill a citizen's request. Competence is important as it is perceived by the public. Police must understand that this perception is totally different than that of the police community. Police must understand, or at

least be aware, of the public perception of competence and educate the public as to limitations. Civilians make judgments based upon watching officers work and get the job done without regard for crime statistics or efficiency studies. Manners are almost a universal sign of respect or, perhaps, the lack of manners a sign of disrespect. A majority of the time, the practice of good manners is returned in kind increasing mutual respect. Fairness is likely the most important factor in the public perception of police (Tyler, 1990). Nothing inspires confidence and respect from citizens more than their knowing that they will be treated fairly and equally by police.

Smaller communities and rural police departments today find it very difficult if not impossible to support community-policing programs as they were envisioned in the mid-1990s. The financial resources are decreasing in many cases, while operational costs for equipment and personnel continue to grow even without the additions needed to fully implement community-based policing programs. Dedicated community police officers are a luxury that small departments cannot usually afford. Many officers hired with COPS Grant funds were never really deployed in the intended capacity on a full-time basis, and most who were deployed as full-time community service officers during the time frame of the funding are not retained in that capacity. These officers may have done a good job while it lasted, and if they did it right, they can now be a major force in instilling the spirit and philosophy at the core of community policing throughout their departments. Community policing cannot be considered a success until its principles permeate the department from the chief to the probationary clerk. This is entirely possible in any size department with little or no expense.

Saturation patrol in marked police vehicles has little effect on crime as demonstrated by the Kansas City Preventative Patrol Experiment (Research Brief, 1999a). Foot patrol does not reduce crime either as was shown by the Newark Foot Patrol Experiment, but it does reduce citizens' fear of crime (Research Brief, 1999b). This reduction of fear is important in that it is one of the core objectives of community policing, and I believe that some decrease in crime would have been realized if the experiment were to continue for several years. In the smaller communities and rural areas, neither saturation patrol nor foot patrol are feasible as the primary approach to policing. In the absence of dedicated full-time community service officers, incorporating mixed patrol activities such as automobile and foot or bicycle (weather permitting) patrol, with each officer spending no more than 60% of each shift in an automobile as a general rule, is very effective in promoting cooperative relationships and trust between police and citizens. In these smaller communities, the importance of permanent assignment of officers decreases with the population served (Ziembo-Vogl & Woods, 1996a). Most people tend to know or know of one another in smaller communities. Rural patrol areas present a slightly different set of circumstances that can be addressed with a program of routine informal contacts with citizens. Each officer randomly stops at rural residences, introduces him- or herself and engages citizens in conversation about their concerns and how officers can be of help to them. Foot or bicycle patrols are not viable options.

Any strategy of increasing nonconfrontational public contact is only as good as the people implementing it. The selection process for police personnel has traditionally sought out flexible individuals. Today, flexible is not enough. We need to recruit "agile" people. Flexible people can adapt and change to react to situations. Agile people possess the flexibility but are proactive and seek to master problems rather

than react to them. This agility is one of the major traits now sought out by the United States Army Special Forces, whose people skills are at least as important as their military skills (Clancy, 2001). Personnel must be hired that have superior people skills. Once employed, they must be trained to improve their people skills even more. This can be a difficult and complex task. Basic public relations and sensitivity training programs at the training academy level can be a start but must be continued on the job. Continuing classroom training including a great deal of role-playing is often valuable. Mentoring is almost always helpful. Debriefing of real incidents and incorporation into role-playing scenarios works wonders in improving people skills. Sometimes external training programs may be used. This is especially effective with personnel who were already employed before community policing or policing-for-people was implemented as a policy. In my own experience, Dale Carnegie public relations training has been invaluable in private sector, police patrol, investigations, and management duties. Many other worthwhile programs are also available.

Police management, of course, is where the application of policing-for-people begins and ends. The philosophy and goals must be defined, refined, and written into formal policy. Although this sounds simple, it must be a complex and inclusive process to be successful. Police executives, upper level managers (captains and lieutenants), line supervisors (sergeants), patrol officers, detectives, support services, dispatchers, clerks, etc. will all be responsible for success. Their input not only aids in developing a workable policy, but also gives them a sense of ownership of the agenda. Once the basic tenets have been explained, representatives from all departments and levels of the agency are included in committees to develop formal policy. Additionally, local government officials and municipal or county departments (e.g., street department, code enforcement, public health department, etc.) must be informed as policy is developing, and their input should be included in the end product (Ziembo-Vogl & Woods, 1996a). The aim is that the operational policies of all nonpolice public service agencies will be instilled with the same basic values and good service for people.

Once the policy for the police agency is in place, operational police behaviors and public perceptions have to be monitored for many purposes. Police personnel activities must be scrutinized for competence, compliance with policy, and integrity. Line supervisors are the primary evaluators in this process and have to cooperate with one another and middle and upper level managers to ensure complete and objective evaluations. Full commitment to the philosophy and policy by all managers at all levels is essential. Evaluations by management can identify strengths and weaknesses of individual employees, groups, divisions, etc. Analysis of the evaluations can be used to reward exemplary performance, trigger remedial training, instigate modification of the entire training program in relation to policing-for-people, and be the basis for modification of the departmental policy. The operational details of a policing-for-people or community-policing policy cannot be stagnant any more than arrest or pursuit policies that must evolve with case law and experience. Our people policy must evolve and be a living document to ensure that it remains effective.

Since perceptions by the public are the predominant factor in attaining the goals of community policing, they must be assessed constantly. It is easy to evaluate contacts with victims and arrestees through traditional means, but they are only a small part of the picture. Citizen complaints about personnel are also easy to track but only

measure failures. Everyday informal contacts with the public that are abundant by the very design of the policy may be the best available measure of the success or failure of our mission.

Recording, tracking, and evaluating everyday public contacts has not been done in most departments except when investigating a problem employee. It usually involves a special effort to identify contacts and interviewing participants. This approach is too expensive in terms of manpower and not compatible with the spirit of our philosophy. If we have no confidence in the integrity of our officers, how can we expect it from the public? One means of recording, tracking, and evaluating informal public contacts is based upon a simple tool that has been in use for years—field contact cards. Officers have been filling out these cards under many circumstances for over 30 years.

Citizen contact cards (for lack of any better name) can be handed to citizens whenever officers speak with them. The card can be post-card size and contain a bar code for tracking (simple in this day of in-car or personal computers with bar-code readers). Information on the card can be as simple as check boxes for the citizens' evaluations of the officers' performance in relation to attentiveness, reliability, responsive service, competence, manners, and fairness. Additionally, the same questions may be asked about the citizens' perceptions of the police department as a whole. Comments, optional name, address, and telephone number, and a request for a conference with a supervisor may all be included. The card is to be filled out and mailed (postage prepaid) after the contact with the officer has ended. To ensure that these cards are a viable tool, there simply has to be a record as simple as a radio transmission and number assignment for the contact.

The citizen contact cards returned can provide valuable feedback about public attitudes and perceptions. Also, the lack of returned cards from specific areas or individuals may identify problems that otherwise might not be readily identified and addressed. Besides being used by the police department to evaluate and direct our efforts, these cards as well as all measures of our success or shortcomings should be evaluated by impartial outside sources to show the true picture of the relationship between police and citizens, and the results must be made public (Mastrofski, 1999). The media can become an integral part of changing attitudes and perceptions.

When community-policing or policing-for-people policies are in place and are fully implemented; evaluation mechanisms are functioning; new personnel that began their police careers in the new environment are a majority; all of local government subscribes to the paradigm; citizens are taking an active role with government in improving their neighborhoods, we may not recognize the original community-policing concept, but we will be able to conclude that it was a success.

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Robert Doepp was a police officer in the Chicago area in the 1970s and then went into the electronics industry (two-way radio) for over 15 years before returning to full-time police work. The private sector management experience provided a somewhat different perspective when he returned to police work and leading a department.

He is currently serving as police chief in Greenfield, Illinois.

“ABC” Curriculum Development

Peggy M. Schaefer, Training Manager, North Carolina Justice Academy

Introduction

As trainers, we are responsible for assessing our agency’s training needs, researching information, and developing curriculum to correct deficiencies and/or modify behavior. As training managers, we are also responsible for ensuring that these tasks are completed by our staff in an efficient manner. This may be difficult at times. I routinely observe a “deer in the headlight” stare while describing lesson plan expectations to my staff. My trainers cringe when given these assignments. The demands may seem daunting and complicated as a whole, but when divided into “bite-sized” morsels, staff members find them easier to swallow, digest, and ultimately understand.

The Development Process – The “ABCs”

So let’s simplify this process by creating a “to do” list for our trainers (see Appendix A). Draft your own check off sheet with task completion dates following each activity. Many times creating a list provides needed focus. Naturally, the curriculum development process begins by identifying and/or differentiating between a training “need” and a training “want,”* but for the purpose of this article, assume your training section/agency has decided on a clear subject, topic, or tactic and now is ready for your staff to develop materials and conduct the training.

Analyze the specific tasks associated with the subject matter, and prioritize the tasks to be taught in the lesson plan.

Let’s assume that your agency has chosen to teach “vehicle stop tactics” for your next inservice training session. Your first task as the training manager is to assemble a group of seasoned, “expert” officers to determine what individual tasks or behaviors are associated with conducting a safe traffic stop. The expert panel should dissect each specific segment of a traffic stop and create a matrix to determine which behaviors or movements should be considered in the training lesson plan. Examples of tasks to include in the matrix are as follows:

- Identify the traffic violation (i.e., reason to stop the vehicle).
- Mentally prepare for the vehicle stop.
- Communicate effectively on the police radio, and correctly operate equipment.
- Position the patrol vehicle during known and unknown vehicle stops.
- Verbally and physically control vehicle occupants.
- Safely stop vans, tractor-trailers, and motorcycles.

* Austen-Kern, L. (1999, November/December). Training needs assessment. *The Law Enforcement Trainer*, 53.

The group might also choose to include tasks associated with vehicle approaches (driver/passenger side), communication skills (verbal and nonverbal) with motorists, vehicle searches (consent/incident to arrest), and appropriate documentation procedures. More importantly perhaps, is to capture specific tasks that you want to see addressed in the training block.

The next part of this task identification is to create a matrix that highlights “critical or essential” tasks (see Appendix B). Matrix tasks fall under five criteria ranging from *most important* to *not needed*. A *not needed* category should be included because the expert panel may believe (or know) officers are satisfactorily performing that task. Think of it this way; suppose your officers transmit radio ten-codes properly with little or no error. Specifically, they are able to advise the telecommunicator of their exact location, and vehicle/suspect/offense descriptions are clear. The panel may then decide not to cover this particular task during your overall vehicle stop training. The value of knowing this will enable your trainers to devote more time discussing and demonstrating vehicle approaches or safely arresting offenders.

The expert panel should list tasks in the order to be taught. It certainly makes sense to build on previous material and to make sure that skills training tasks are delivered in a chronological order. The matrix example outlines mental preparation to be taught before vehicle positioning. Obviously, officers should be mentally prepared before activating their blue lights to stop a motorist.

Who should complete the matrix? You get to decide who to include, but I recommend that in addition to your expert group, you solicit input from patrol supervisors and other officers in the field. Other officers will give you feedback that will identify what they specifically want or need in your topic area, and supervisors will pinpoint deficiencies they have observed in their officers.

How much matrix input do you need? A sample size of 20 should provide a good indication of which tasks are the most critical, but you can have less or more. Allowing multiple-officer responses sends a powerful and positive message to the troops—It does matter what they say when it comes to training that directly affects them.

When matrixes are returned from the field, you or your staff can evaluate responses to make a clear determination as to which specific parts of stopping a car need to be addressed in training. Appendix C illustrates how simple it is to compute the matrix and determine which tasks require attention. From these results, the responses clearly indicate that vehicle stops training should consist of mentally preparing the officer to stop a car, the actual physical positioning of a traffic stop, and the physical and verbal control of the individual throughout the stop.

Build your lesson plan.

After deciding which tasks to teach, your training staff or assigned trainer is ready to begin building the lesson plan, or part B of our ABC process.

Drafting actual lesson plans begins with the process of writing training objectives that support the tasks. As you will see, identifying the tasks beforehand makes the development of objectives much easier. Your training objectives should be clearly

written to include information that supports the performance, the condition, and the criteria or the standard in which the officer will be evaluated. Using the tasks from our matrix, here are some examples of training objectives that could be used in a vehicle stops lesson plan:

- Prepare for the inherent dangers in a vehicle stop by mentally rehearsing the correct tactical response to a variety of situations.
- Demonstrate appropriate radio communications throughout a vehicle stop without error.
- Position a patrol vehicle for known and unknown vehicle stops in a practical exercise environment without causing injury to the officer or other responding officers.
- Verbally and physically control vehicle occupants during vehicle stops in a safe manner.
- Tactically conduct vehicle stops involving vans, tractor-trailers, and motorcycles in a role-play scenario.

Once objectives are clearly in place, the next development task involves conducting a literature search or review. Searching for information that supports your objectives can be easy or complicated, depending on how much has been written on the topic. Encourage staff members to spend several days searching for *everything* on the subject matter. This includes, but is not limited to the Internet, magazine articles, books, older lesson plans, and academic journals. It can be a time-consuming process but a valuable one. Ideally, lesson plans should reflect the current literature or training trends. The training supervisor must ensure that trainers are teaching the most up-to-date tactic or information possible. Clearly, a good defense attorney will conduct this same literature review. What will he or she find that conflicts with what your instructors are teaching? Don't let another person's search be more thorough than your own.

Within a couple of days, trainers will be bombarded with information they have collected. Synthesizing and determining which sources provide the best and most accurate information related to your training objectives is the next step. Try not to use sources older than ten years, when possible. In the tactical arena, this might be difficult since many police tactics have been the same for two decades; however, recent articles addressing the same maneuver, but written from a different perspective, can be cited in your lesson plan. Again, your local consummate defense attorney will question and criticize an "older" tactic, especially in a "higher-risk" topic area.

All collected sources should be listed in the chronological order they will be taught, and then trainers can begin drafting the lesson plan. Trainers should also paraphrase or directly quote key concepts. As these articles and books are used, trainers should cite sources by using a small numeral at the end of the section or sentence to indicate where the information was obtained. This allows the reader (i.e., student to see the exact source and know that it was not "made up," and that it is current.) Citing these items will also save hours of later research time when the lesson plan is

revised, recycled and/or used again. Correctly citing sources is a valuable aid to other instructors too. How many times have you delivered another's lesson plan and wished they had written more in a specific area? If sources are cited properly, articles or page numbers from books can be retracted quickly. It is an excellent tool to use to show that an appropriate literature review has been completed.

After asking my trainers, "Where are your cites and endnotes?", I'll sometimes see "the stare" because a few will have elected to cut corners and not do them. This can be irritating because for the most part, the books and articles and sources used are all around us—on our desks, floors, and computer tables. It is so much easier to simply cite the information while the article is opened to the page, then to go back and try to find it. Imagine trying to locate the same page, article, or book four years later while defending your training in court. It would be like trying to recall a DWI suspect's statement four years later by memory. Without notes, the case is lost. Also, trainers may not be able to differentiate their original work from a documented source. Many of us have seen lesson plans in which the lines have been blurred. Which do you think carries more credibility on the witness stand? Statements and/or ideas from a trainer's "personal beliefs" or a magazine article from a nationally read and reviewed journal? Both have merit, but the latter can increase a trainer's credibility, especially when holding a lesson plan on the witness stand with many references and correct citations.

The last duty concerning curriculum development is ensuring that your trainers create an instructor version of the lesson plan that includes notes indicating when to use specific audiovisuals and/or *PowerPoint* slides. Again, it is easier to draft the lesson plan, including the AV materials, while it is developed. When writing a lesson plan, visualize the best method to deliver the materials, and determine which AV medium is the most appropriate. Knowing exactly when to ask pointed questions, refer to handouts, or facilitate a practical exercise is crucial to the development process. Don't scrimp on information provided in the "instructor" lesson plans. Many of us train using lesson plans drafted by others. How can we ensure that we all teach the same lesson plan consistently? A detailed instructor lesson plan provides the foundation to ensure that this happens.

Conclusion

We are all aware of the arduous task involved in drafting lesson plans and are acutely aware of how difficult it is to encourage our staff to do a thorough job. Trying to simplify the process by creating a task list that trainers can follow will certainly help them clearly see the facets of the project and help you as their manager track where they are in the development process. Utilizing the task matrix should help to ensure that all of the important behaviors in a topic area are addressed in a logical, chronological sequence as the lesson plan is built. Certainly, the importance of citing sources must be stressed in this very litigious environment. Remembering your curriculum development ABCs will keep your trainers writing professional, well-researched, and detailed lesson plans.

Peggy M. Schaefer is a training manager at the North Carolina Justice Academy where she supervises six instructor/coordinators. The trainers in her section are responsible for developing and coordinating instructional materials involving firearms, subject control/arrest techniques, SWAT, physical fitness, specialized sheriff's inservice issues, detention officer certification, telecommunicators, and general instructor training courses. She has taught at several ASLET seminars and is currently a sworn reserve officer with the Fayetteville, North Carolina Police Department.

Appendix A

“ABC” Curriculum Development Check Off Sheet

Development Tasks

Date Completed

A. Analyze the specific tasks associated with the subject, and prioritize when the tasks will be taught in your lesson plan.

1. Select expert panel for matrix brainstorming session. _____
2. Conduct meeting, and select tasks for matrix. _____
3. Complete matrix, and disseminate to respondents. _____
4. Collect matrix, and quantify results. _____

B. Build the lesson plan.

1. Write coherent, measurable, concrete objectives. _____
2. Conduct literature review—magazine articles, books, journals, Web. _____
3. Synthesize the gathered materials; select the best sources that support the training objectives. _____
4. Make first draft of lesson plan, paraphrasing or directly quoting the sources collected. _____
5. Complete all instructor notations to include AV, student questions, and practical exercise guidelines. _____
6. Develop audio-visual slides, *PowerPoint*, and/or handouts. _____
7. Create student lesson plan. _____

C. Cite the sources.

1. Correctly endnote key terms/concepts. _____
2. Complete the bibliography, correctly citing all the references that were used in the lesson plan. _____

Appendix B

Vehicle Stop Tactics for Patrol Officers Skills Inventory

Using the following scale, indicate which of the following skills/tasks are most important for our next inservice training segment concerning vehicle stop training. Also, please indicate any other tasks associated with traffic stops in which you or other officers may be deficient that should be a part of this training block of instruction.

Task	Most Important	Somewhat Important	Neutral	Not Very Important	Not Needed
Identify the traffic violation (i.e., reason to make the stop).					
Mentally prepare for the vehicle stop.					
Communicate effectively on the police radio, and correctly operate equipment.					
Safely position patrol vehicle for known and unknown vehicle stops.					
Verbally and physically control vehicle occupants during vehicle stops.					
Safely stop vans, tractor-trailers, and motorcycles.					

Appendix C

Vehicle Stop Tactics Task Matrix

N=20

Task	Most Important	Somewhat Important	Neutral	Not Very Important	Not Needed
Identify the traffic violation (i.e., reason to make the stop).	8 (40%)	2 (10%)		1 (5%)	9 (45%)
Mentally prepare for the vehicle stop.	15 (75%)	4 (20%)		1 (5%)	
Communicate effectively on the police radio, and correctly operate equipment.	2 (10%)	3 (15%)	2 (10%)	7 (35%)	6 (30%)
Safely position patrol vehicle for known and unknown vehicle stops.	18 (90%)	2 (10%)			
Verbally and physically control vehicle occupants during vehicle stops.	16 (80%)	3 (15%)		1 (5%)	
Safely stop vans, tractor-trailers, and motorcycles.	6 (30%)	12 (60%)			2 (10%)
Others?					

The Impact of Continuous Professional Education on Law Enforcement Training

Terry M. Mors, EdD, Assistant Professor, Department of Law Enforcement and Justice Administration, Western Illinois University

Continuous professional education (CPE) has long been recognized as a means of updating and maintaining professional competence. The current approach to law enforcement CPE is ineffective. For nearly a century, the field of law enforcement has not changed in terms of educating its officers. Only since the social unrest of the 1960s has law enforcement made any real impact on the way in which police perform their job. More money is being spent on law enforcement education today than at any other point in the history of law enforcement (Ramirez, 1996). Yet, even in the new century, police education and training remains ineffective. Despite all of the training available to police, the field of law enforcement continues to conduct business as usual.

A major problem of law enforcement is its inability to move the profession forward because it does not lend itself well to the principles of CPE or human resource development (HRD). Law enforcement has been mired in tradition and isolation and has no friends outside of law enforcement. It is an anomaly that refuses to let the outside world in, and it refuses to go to the outside for help.

Education has been an important topic in law enforcement during the last decade. More and more police officers are returning to school. New recruits entering the field are better educated than their veteran counterparts (Stevens, 1999). Police agencies are adopting a prescribed level of education as an entry-level requirement. The one area of law enforcement training that seems to be most inadequate is that of inservice training.

Killacky (1991) conducted research on law enforcement inservice training to determine why learning was not occurring in law enforcement training. Although Killacky identified a number of barriers to learning, he concluded that the method of instruction was the key to the assimilation of new knowledge and transformation of new learning. This suggests that Killacky's research did not go deeply enough into criminal justice professional education to reveal all of the reasons why transformation of new knowledge was not occurring. Killacky focused on classroom instructional delivery methods. While certainly that is a key component to learning, he either failed to identify the underlying bureaucratic policies and procedures that hinder criminal justice CPE or did not examine them.

The author posits that much of whether learning actually takes place is up to the actual learner. Learning is such a complex process that there cannot possibly be only one reason why learning does or does not occur. There are multiple realities for whether or not learning occurs. There have been several studies in the last two decades on CPE (Cevero, 1988; Curry & Wergin, 1993; Houle, 1980; Schon, 1983); however, none of those studies focused on law enforcement.

The police have been termed the “thin blue line” between social order and chaos. Police transactions are vital to society (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990). It only stands to reason that police officers should be at least as educated as the citizens with whom they interact. The public expects and demands a certain level of service from the police. Never in history have police been held more accountable.

CPE is a means to achieving the goal of keeping pace with change. In fact, many “true” professions require continuing education and relicensing (Cervero, 1988). That raises the question: Is law enforcement a profession? There seems to be a great deal of conflict when it comes to defining a profession. Cervero cited the “static approach” in the definition of a profession. This view holds that a profession has to possess certain characteristics in order to be labeled a profession. The characteristics include a minimum body of knowledge, certification, self-organization, a code of ethics, professional associations, and altruism. This is called the static approach because objective criteria discriminate between those occupations that are “inherently” an occupation and those that are not (Cervero, 1988).

If a goal of society is to truly benefit its members, then the focus needs to be on end results and not status. To that end, the author favors Houle’s “process approach” to defining a profession (Houle, 1980). Houle claimed any occupation can turn itself into a profession. He claimed occupations exist on a continuum of professionalization. An occupation can move up or down on the continuum of professionalization. The question then becomes not “is this occupation a profession?” but “how professional is this occupation?” By putting things in this perspective, there exists a rationale for continuous improvement.

The focus should not be on what is a profession but on how to improve the profession. Adult continuing education is the answer. Training is paramount to continuous improvement. Any total quality management program involves training (Drucker, 1994). Whether an organization utilizes inhouse training or outsources training, education is still the vital link. For learning to take place, educators must identify the needs and learning styles of their audience (Merriam & Cunningham, 1989). Education fosters personal growth and development. As Taylor so appropriately stated nearly one hundred years ago, the workers are “vital machines” that must be cared for (Stoner & Freeman, 1980).

Malcolm Knowles (1975) is credited with refining the development of the principle of andragogy that was pioneered by French, German, and Yugoslav philosophers. Knowles believed that an adult is psychologically different from a child and that adults learn differently. Children are taught primarily to prepare for life. The method of instruction has traditionally been instructor-centered and authoritarian. The instructor imparts new knowledge to students in the manner Paulo Freire (1996) called “banking education.” The analogy Freire used to describe banking education is that of opening up the heads of the students, pouring in knowledge, and closing up the heads.

Andragogy is based upon five characteristics that Knowles (1988) believed adults possess: (1) self-concept, (2) prior experience, (3) readiness to learn, (4) learning orientation, and (5) motivation to learn. Knowles argued that adults, as opposed to children, are self-directed. Self-directed learning refers to having control over learning and learning variables (Merriam & Cunningham, 1989). In his view, children only become adults when they no longer think of themselves as dependent personalities

but as self-directed individuals. Knowles believed that adults, being self-directed, want instruction that is learner-centered and/or problem-centered as opposed to content-centered (Knowles, 1975, 1988).

Knowles' perspective was based upon three assumptions. First is the assumption that adults' basic ability to learn remains essentially unimpaired throughout life. The second assumption is that educators' main thrust in modern adult education is towards inventing techniques that will involve adults in deeper self-diagnosis of their own needs for continued learning. Finally, Knowles assumed that adults' ability to learn improves if certain conditions are provided in the environment of the educational program (Knowles, 1975, 1988).

Knowles believed that the adult's life experience was the most important part of learning. The shared experience component is a key concept of the andragogical model. Learning is not independent from life or learners' life experiences. Learning is actually constructed through adults' experience. In addition, Knowles believed that learning is more subjective than objective and that the emphasis is on the individual's own interpretation, integration, and transformation of knowledge (Knowles, 1975, 1988).

It is absurd to think people stop learning once they leave high school or college. According to Knowles (1988), learning is a life-long process. People cannot help but learn. A person cannot isolate him- or herself from learning. In going on through life, people are bombarded with new experiences and knowledge. Quite often learning is incidental.

The difference is the way adults learn from children and where that learning takes place. Too often learning is mistakenly equated with formal education. According to Mezirow (1991), learning is the assimilation of new knowledge, which can occur anywhere and at any time. With children, the emphasis is on preparing them for life. Teaching children is traditionally done in the classroom; however, adults are past that point. They are already experiencing life. Knowles' theory assumes two basic principles. First, knowledge is assumed to be actively constructed by the learner and not passively received from the environment. Second, learning is an interactive process of interpretation, integration, and transformation of one's world (Pratt, 1988).

The way in which adult educators envision professionalism, training, and competence within their own ranks shapes their teaching strategies (Collins, 1991). In order to move forward, educators must critically reflect on the past. In fact, learners and educators alike must critically reflect on the past in order to understand why they have attached specific meaning to reality (Mezirow, 1991). Critical reflection is developed through the process of discovering the answer, not from the answer itself (Merriam & Cunningham, 1989). A pedagogical approach may be acceptable for specific skills training, but it does not lend itself well to problem solving, which requires deep analytical thought (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Critical reflection is an essential part of problem solving, and police officers are problem solvers. Yet they are not taught to think critically. Police officers are expected to conform and follow orders.

Most secondary school teachers teach through expository methods. Law enforcement trainers do the same. They define concepts and characteristics, provide examples, and test for understanding. The method is popular because it allows teachers to cover a

vast amount of material in a relatively short period of time (Smith et al., 1990). This type of instruction is popular among inservice trainers because it has the advantage of speed; however, it lacks the critical reflection component that is necessary to learning. According to Smith et al. (1990), the practice has four major flaws:

1. It is likely that a number of students will achieve only a marginal, if any, understanding of the material. Without critical reflection, it is difficult, if not impossible, to assimilate the new knowledge to students' particular application. That is to say how that new knowledge will directly affect them in the workplace.
2. The instructor has no way of knowing just how much the student has learned. The instructor usually finds out how much the student has learned at the post-test; not necessarily a true indicator that learning has occurred. Some students memorize material and repeat it at test time without actually understanding the material.
3. The process often results in the acquisition of inert knowledge that is difficult to use. Knowledge that is not used soon becomes forgotten.
4. The process does not teach students how to conceptualize new knowledge. Learners must be able to conceptualize on their own. They must be able to think critically in order to make meaning (Smith et al., 1990).

Synetics is a way of making meaning from new knowledge. It is the use of metaphorical images and parables to capture the essence of a complex idea (Smith et al., 1990). Synetics allows students to reflect back on the known and conceptualize material in a way that is familiar to them. Synetics is paramount when learning is complex and abstract. The key to making meaning from the complex and abstract is to make the strange familiar to the student. This is done through the use of metaphors that the student can reflect upon and correlate to the new knowledge.

According to Schon (1983), much of the learning that takes place in a person's profession is in direct response to the profession itself. Schon stated, . . .

The high, hard ground of professional education and training on which the techniques and theories are learned soon gives way to the swamp in which practice usually occurs.

The meaning here is that despite new knowledge gained in the classroom, professionals may soon revert to "business as usual" once they return to the workplace. Schon (1983) stated that practitioners are constantly in ambiguous, ill-defined, or conflicting situations. He claimed that theories and models do not adequately prepare practitioners to deal with those situations. It is during those times that practitioners rely on practical experience, intuitive knowledge, and reflection-in-action; however, it is not enough for workers to think critically about how new knowledge affects them and the way in which they do their jobs. Management must also be reflective.

Past experience is critical when it comes to gaining new knowledge. Mezirow (1991) claimed that one is never free from the past. He found that adults filter new

knowledge through past life experiences, which include formative learning and socialization. When people are presented with new knowledge that is inconsistent with prior experiences, the tendency is to reject that new knowledge (Mezirow, 1991). Thus, learners validate new learning against the past.

Similarly, Schon (1983) claimed that individuals all have certain meaning schemes that they use to filter new knowledge. A meaning scheme is the particular knowledge, beliefs, values, and feelings that become articulated in an interpretation of new material. Meaning schemes are our perceptual filters. They are derived from culture, class, gender, family, religion, and paradigms (Schon, 1983). When adults are presented with new information, they filter it through meaning schemes made up of past experiences, education, values, and beliefs. If the new information fits with past experience, it is readily accepted. If the new knowledge is in conflict with past experience, the new knowledge is either questioned or rejected.

Habermas (1987) claimed there are two domains of learning: (1) communicative and (2) instrumental. The purpose of communicative learning is to understand what others mean and to allow others to understand through communication. Communication may take the form of speech, written words, television and radio, movies, the theatre, and the arts. Habermas asserted that communicative learning is the most significant domain in adulthood, as it involves describing values, ideals, and morals, as well as social, economic, and political issues. Communicative learning is not validated through empirical testing or analytical analysis but through discourse. With the vast amount of experience possessed by students in most law enforcement training classrooms, discourse is an invaluable learning tool. Shared life experience is a means to making meaning of new knowledge; however, because consensus can be reached through manipulation, validity is difficult (Habermas, 1987).

Instrumental learning involves determining cause and effect relationships and learning through task-oriented problem solving. Knowledge is acquired through the testing of a hypothetical meaning scheme. Instrumental learning is empirically verified. It always involves a prediction about observable things or events (Habermas, 1987).

Making meaning is central to what learning is all about. In transformative learning, the learner reinterprets old experiences in light of new information and points of view through a dialogic process resulting in what Mezirow (1991) named perspective transformation. It is the process of becoming critically aware of how and why assumptions have come to constrain the way learners perceive, understand, and feel about the world. It also involves changing the structures of habitual expectation to make possible a more inclusive, discriminating, and integrative perspective (Mezirow, 1991). Perspective transformation involves an empowered sense of self, a more critical understanding of how one's social relationships and culture have shaped beliefs and feelings, and more functional strategies and resources for taking action (Mezirow, 1991). According to both Schon and Mezirow, a change in meaning perspective relates to a significant change in behavior. Transformative learning is fostered through androgogy (Suanmali, 1981).

Transformation is about change, and transformational learning is the process of learning that leads to change (Clark & Wilson, 1990). This process is critical to learning, and current law enforcement training focuses on content as opposed to

process. It is the job of instructors to provide opportunities for critical reflection. Law enforcement training instructors must recognize that most officers will perceive things from their own paradigm. Instructors will have to challenge students in order for transformational learning to occur. It is simply not enough to stand in front of a class and disseminate information. Instructors need to facilitate discussion. Discussion with other law enforcement colleagues is critical for true transformation to occur in the law enforcement training classroom; as students apply new knowledge in the field, their assumptions will be tested and validated or reframed.

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Terry M. Mors is an assistant professor with the Department of Law Enforcement and Justice Administration at Western Illinois University. Dr. Mors received a BGS degree from Roosevelt University, an MA in law enforcement and justice administration from Western Illinois University, and an EdD degree from Northern Illinois University in 2002. Having worked for the Gurnee, Illinois Police Department in numerous positions ranging from patrol officer to commander, Mors possesses over 17 years of law enforcement experience. Professor Mors also has experience in teaching at the collegiate level including numerous presentations worldwide on various topics in law enforcement.

Budgeting: The Roadmap for Success for Any Law Enforcement Executive

Thomas Weitzel, Lieutenant, Riverside Police Department

Executive Summary

Budgeting is the roadmap for success for any potential law enforcement executive. This report outlines four basic budgets: (1) line item budgeting, (2) zero-based budgeting, (3) performance-based budgeting, and (4) the planning programming budgeting system. The budget process for the Village of Riverside is also discussed. The adopted budget is a contract between the unit of government and the police agency, and the police executive is responsible for the use of the funds that have been appropriated for the department's use. Unfortunately, many police departments fail to seriously plan and utilize the results of planning (budgeting) in their daily operations.

It should be remembered that budgeting is the primary management technique used to ensure that the department's activities are achieved. Contained within this report is a recommendation for a budget process change for the village.

Introduction

The Village of Riverside was incorporated in 1869 and is headed by a village president. In addition, the village has six trustees who are elected village-wide and a village manager who runs the day-to-day operations. The fiscal year runs from January 1 to December 31. This was instituted this year. It used to run from May 1 to April 30.

The planning and budgeting are the roadmap for success for law enforcement executives. Like all other organizations, police agencies will only grow and prosper with proper planning. The chief needs to look at where the department is, where it should be, and how it's going to get there. Strategic planning should involve input from many different sources—department personnel, the village manager, elected officials, and the public. Within the police agency, all department members who wish to contribute should be included, from top to bottom, allowing them to buy into the future of the organization. The community's support is also needed. In Riverside, the budget process is publicized and involves other members of the criminal justice system, business groups, clergy, homeowner associations, neighborhood groups, and other influential persons.

The village uses a line item budget. In addition to the line item budget, the department has a Capital Improvement Projects (CIP) budget. The CIP budget is for long-range projects or capital improvements. It usually is a five-year projection. The total village budget is 6 million. The current police budget is 2.1 million. Due to severe budget constraints during this current budget year, the police department had to cut \$468,125 from its total operating budget. This reflects a 22.3% cut in our budget.

Line Item Budgeting

The line item budget was first used in 1906, and emphasis is on control. It requires no special skills and focuses on resource consumption (spend the money). The main question of a line item budget is what is needed, and the cycle is for one year. Usually, a line item budget contains nine sections including transmittal sheets and justification packages.

The advantages of a line item budget are as follows:

- Adequate control
- Ease of use
- Excellent fit in government accounting
- Representative participation

The disadvantages are as follows:

- Emphasis on inputs (money) and not outputs (efficiency)
- Emphasis on group goals over those of the organization
- Inadequate time available for planning
- Tendency to pad line item budgets by managers

The Budget Process

The actual budget process in Riverside works as follows. The actual expenditures (line-items) for the current and previous years are the starting point for both the chief and the finance director/administrator. The chief has to justify any changes based on known cost increases, projected cost increases, and possible additional programs. In early May, the budget process begins; however, in reality, budgeting is a year-round process. The chief and his staff prepare a budget based on the above criteria. All department heads then meet in a budget workshop to discuss their individual budgets with the village manager and finance director.

A perennial argument is whether or not to inflate the budget requests. The argument for an inflated budget is that the government entity (Village of Riverside) will cut the budget anyway, and by inflating the initial request, the chief will end up with the financing he or she wanted. The opposite argument is that an inflated budget destroys credibility with the village manager, finance director, and village board. The police chief in Riverside would argue that by being consistent and reasonable, sooner or later, the department would obtain what it needs. If the chief has a reputation for fair, accurate, consistent, and honest requests, it will pay off in the long run. If a chief is known to consistently inflate requests, then he or she can gain a reputation for not being serious in department requests, and the department may suffer more drastic cutbacks.

Given that 90-95% of the police budget in Riverside is allocated for personnel expenses, there is not a lot of cushion for agency operational cost. The budget process has three major purposes.

1. **Financial Control**

This is the traditional purpose of a budget. This sets actual dollars aside for various activities. The financial allocations also indicate dollar resources, which have been assigned to implement various legislative mandates.

2. **Management Information**

This budget will provide an understanding of resources (e.g., financial, equipment, and personnel), which have been allocated to carry out legislative mandates.

3. **Planning and Policy Implementation**

This budget will indicate the funds that have been allocated to carry out policies developed by legislation and provide a means of deciding whether enough resources have been allocated to various activities.

The Riverside Police Department budget for fiscal year 2001 is 2.1 million. The line-item budget contains numerous categories, and some examples are as follows:

- Salaries
- Overtime
- Holidays
- Health and Life Insurance
- Office Supplies
- Uniform Allowance
- Equipment Purchases
- Training and Education
- Vehicle Maintenance
- Investigations
- Crime Prevention
- Patrol
- School Safety

Some line items were eliminated in the current budget due to mandated budget cutbacks. The budget is a controlling device/tool intended to assure that expenditures follow along the plan of operation and are made in accordance with the purpose for which the appropriations were allocated.

The police department is headed by the chief of police, appointed annually by the village president with the advice and consent of the board of trustees. The department is currently staffed by one assistant chief of police, one operations lieutenant, four sergeants (three patrol, one detective sergeant), twelve patrolmen, one community service officer, four full-time communications personnel, four part-time communications personnel, six crossing guards, and one executive secretary to the chief of police.

The police department is divided into six programs or cost centers to which expenditures for the budget are allocated. It includes administration, patrol, communications and records, training, crime prevention, investigations, school safety, and emergency response.

The Village of Riverside uses the line item budget because the board feels it is the easiest and most straightforward of preparing their particular budget. The budget

is presented to elected officials who prefer line item budgeting for its simple easy-to-read format.

Performance-Based Budgeting

Another type of budgeting process is the performance-based budget. This budget process was used in the 1900s, and the main emphasis on the budgets was results. It required analytical skills and focused completely on outputs. The cycle for this budget could be one to two years.

The advantages of performance-based budgeting are as follows:

- Focus is on results instead of money.
- Job descriptions and task analysis are important.
- Management is given a good picture of what they are doing.
- Past history is not a factor.

The disadvantages are as follows:

- Complexity and time spent on budgeting
- Subjectivity inevitable
- Tasks not necessarily measurable
- Adaptability to long-term projects not easily accomplished
- Few agencies with the personnel or time to use this method

Zero-Based Budgeting

Zero-based budgeting is based on analysis of the effectiveness of individual programs and basing cost approval on the effectiveness and efficiency of that program. Additionally, zero-based budgeting requires each “program” to be developed from scratch and analyzed according to its impact on the entire operation; ineffective programs are not continued.

The advantages of zero-based budgeting are as follows:

- Integrates the planning, controlling, and operational decision-making functions
- Allocates resources according to effectiveness and efficiency of programs and whether those programs meet departmental objectives
- Drops programs that cannot be justified based on cost and effectiveness

The disadvantages are as follows:

- Requires highly technical skills to prepare and administer
- Takes much money, time, training, and participation to begin
- Results in a large amount of information to be reviewed by managers with limited time available
- Takes three or more years to implement

Planning Programming Budgeting System

I do not personally agree with the line item budgeting process. While it is certainly the easiest way to prepare a budget, I believe a wise police administrator makes his or her budgeting a year-round endeavor and is ever watchful for the opportunity to make a suggestion and plant the seed for future projects, activities, departmental needs, and budget items. With this in mind, I would prefer to use the planning programming budgeting system. Program budgeting goes beyond line item budgeting and the narrow focus of carrying out specific tasks efficiently. As an example, the cost of a hostage situation causes direct cost impact to the patrol division and the investigation division; however, the cost to the other divisions, (i.e., administration and training) are more difficult to capture using the line item budget process. Planning programming budgeting system will capture the costs of the program or project and account for the resources from all other operations by program. Personnel services from all divisions in support of the program are then accounted for and attributed to that program. Managers are better able to determine costs and benefits of each program from the total department perspective.

The planning programming budgeting system combines two management techniques. They are *program forecasting* and *system analysis*. Program forecasting involves focusing on goal-oriented programs rather than on expenditure objects and then projecting both inputs needed and outputs expected in the future. System analysis requires the study of outputs by means of quantitative methods and a model that allows policy makers the option of comparing alternative courses of action.

The one major weakness in this type of budgeting is the rigidity, which in many cases has led to the abandonment of this type of budgeting system. Even taking this into consideration, I feel that the planning programming budget system is superior. I believe that its purpose is to provide accountability to the legislative branch by clearly establishing what accomplishments could be expected under the budget appropriation. The work plan itself would be included in the appropriation ordinance.

Conclusion

The complexity of modern police operations exceeds the ability of the police administrator to intuitively make all of the right decisions. A police administrator today must use his or her intuition in conjunction with a problem-solving methodology. The goal of having an effective and economical police organization is worthy of the best management concepts available. It is for this reason that I strongly support the planning programming budgeting system. This management concept is based upon two important principles of good management: (1) management by objective and (2) management by exception.

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www.Riverside-Illinois.com

Thomas Q. Weitzel, lieutenant and detective commander, currently heads the Riverside, Illinois Police Department's Criminal Investigations Unit. He has been on the Riverside Police Department since September 1984. Before coming to Riverside, he served as a patrolman for the Chicago Zoological Park Police at the Brookfield Zoo.

Lieutenant Weitzel has held various positions within the Riverside Police Department including crime prevention coordinator, evidence technician, public information officer (PIO), MCAT member (Major Crime Assistance Team), field training officer, and internal affairs supervisor.

Lieutenant Weitzel holds a master's degree in criminal social justice from Lewis University and is a graduate of the Illinois Law Enforcement Executive Institute's Executive Management Program.

He is also a graduate of the Northwestern University Center for Public Safety School of Staff and Command. He served as vice president of Class 115. Lieutenant Weitzel also holds certificates of graduation from The Institute of Police Technology and Management; the University of North Florida; the National Crime Prevention Institute in Louisville, Kentucky; and the Law Enforcement Executive Development Association (LEEDA) FBI. Additionally, Lieutenant Weitzel is a recent graduate of the Southwestern Law Enforcement Institute's Center for Law Enforcement Ethics in Richardson, Texas. He is a nationally certified ethics instructor through the Southwest Legal Foundation.

Lieutenant Weitzel is a member of the Fraternal Order of Police, Police Benevolent Association, Illinois Police Association, Northwestern University Alumni Association, International Association for Identification, and Illinois Crime Prevention Officers Association. He is currently vice-president of the Midwest Homicide Investigator's Association and serves as the president of the West Suburban Detective's Association in Cook County, Illinois.

Minority Recruitment: The Response of the Springfield, Illinois Police Department

William J. Pittman, Assistant Chief of Police, Springfield, Illinois Police Department

Executive Summary

The topic of this case study is the recruitment of minorities into law enforcement. Particular attention was paid to the efforts of the Springfield Police Department to recruit qualified minority candidates.

The Springfield and National branches of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) sued the City of Springfield, Illinois Police Department in federal court under Title VII of the U.S. Code. The suit alleged discrimination in the hiring practices employed by the city in the hiring of minorities into the Springfield Police and Fire Departments.

A literature review revealed that although this problem seems fairly contemporary, it has been a problem for law enforcement since the 1960s. While the national trend has been to hire more minorities, Springfield had only hired a small number. This trend appears to have changed, however, with the adoption of a comprehensive recruitment plan by the department.

The recommended course of action for the department was to implement a three-part plan to remedy the minority recruitment problem.

1. Demonstrate a strong commitment by the chief of police to minority recruitment to include a strong message that racism will not be tolerated either internally or externally.
2. Develop a written strategic plan for recruitment that has the strength of policy.
3. Adopt legislative change to the civil service code for the City of Springfield barriers inherent in the current hiring process that discourages minorities from applying and from being successfully accepted.

The process in Springfield is still evolving, yet it is demonstrating success in that over the past couple of years, the city has successfully settled the Title VII suit and attracted numerous qualified candidates for the police service to the testing process.

Issue Description

On May 16, 2002, the Springfield Branch of the NAACP filed a lawsuit in the Federal Court of the Central District of Illinois alleging that the City of Springfield has engaged in discriminatory hiring practices prohibited by Title VII of the Civil Rights

Act of 1964. Specifically, the suit alleges that the city, through its hiring practices, has denied an equal opportunity for members of minority classes to become Springfield police officers and firefighters. The suit sought both injunctive and punitive relief from the defendant[s]. Named as a third party defendant in the suit were the labor organizations representing the rank-and-file members of the various city agencies; the Police Benevolent and Protective Association, Unit #5; and the International Association of Firefighters, Local 37. Both organizations were listed as third party defendants because through their collective bargaining responsibilities, they negotiate hiring and promotional conditions with the employer, the City of Springfield. The NAACP represents mostly black minorities; however, the suit was targeted to ensure equal opportunity for all protected minorities.

The NAACP alleged that the city discriminated against minorities and women by not applying the resources to recruitment of minorities that it does to white applicants. They also alleged that the hiring process itself was biased in that it favored white males over women, blacks, and other minorities.

The City of Springfield and the NAACP settled the suit out of court by the city entering into a voluntary consent decree, which is essentially a legal statement that verifies an agreement between disputing parties. The consent decree provides that the city must continue its efforts to boost the number of minority and female hires in the police and fire fighter ranks (Piscia, 2001).

This article will be limited in scope to the issue of minority recruitment by the Springfield Police Department. With this research, I hope to learn how to avoid future allegations of discrimination by looking at the best practices in the field addressing minority recruitment. I will then present a snapshot of the present policy and practices of the Springfield Police Department that were implemented in an attempt to remedy the situation.

Literature Search

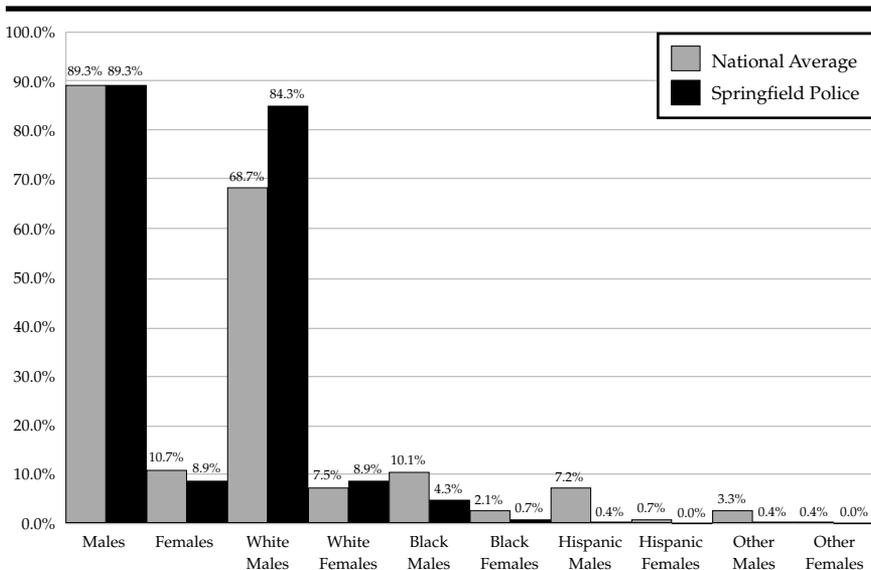
For this research, I reviewed several sources found in the library, on the Internet, the local newspaper, and department policy to develop my conclusions. What I found was that although many perceive this issue to be a new one for law enforcement, it actually has been a problem for the last three decades. In 1967, the President's Crime Commission Report recommended that more minorities be hired and that they receive opportunities for advancement. In 1968, following rioting in the Watts neighborhood of Los Angeles, the 1968 Kerner Commission Report identified the under-representation of blacks in law enforcement as a serious problem. That report recommended improved hiring and promoting policies and procedures for minorities. The Kerner report even went so far as to conclude that racism by white members of the law enforcement community played a large part in precipitating the civil unrest not only in Los Angeles but nationally (Shusta, 1995).

Reviewing data published by the U.S. Department of Justice (2003), I discovered the following:

- There were an estimated 750,825 sworn law enforcement officers employed by local departments in either a full- or part-time capacity.

- From 1997 to 2000, minority representation among local police officers increased from 21.5% to 22.7%.

Figure 1
Hiring of Minorities



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Census 2000

The BJA report clearly demonstrates that the Springfield Police Department was not following the national trend in hiring minorities for law enforcement jobs.

What I also found in the literature search were three common themes. The first is that in any effort to recruit minority candidates, the chief executive of the agency must clearly reiterate that the agency will not tolerate racism in any form either internally or externally. The chief executive must demonstrate the commitment to hiring, promoting, and retaining minorities and women (Shusta, 1995). The literature stresses that failure to ensure that the agency is deeply committed to an ethnically diverse workforce will make even the best recruitment efforts fail. Chief executives cannot do it alone, they must be supported 100% by senior command officers.

The second common theme is that in order to be successful, the agency must have a plan that demonstrates how it intends to accomplish the recruitment of minorities and women. The plan must detail the strategies involved. Such tactics may include the use of job fairs, contacts with educational facilities, mentoring projects, cadet programs, etc. Whatever tactics are developed, they must be tailored to identify and encourage the best and the brightest to become law enforcement officers. The budgeting of adequate resources to recruiting efforts along with the proper training of recruiters are important considerations. An action plan commits the objectives, goals, budget, accountability, and timetables for the recruitment campaign to paper (Shusta, 1995).

As part of this action plan, agencies need to make a determination on what they believe are the appropriate job-related qualifications and skills needed by applicants to the department. Many agencies have determined that because of the complexities of the law enforcement profession today, a minimum qualification for employment would be completion of a minimum number of college credits or a degree. This research will not attempt to determine whether this is proper or not. There are many arguments concerning this issue. In any event, a determination needs to be made on this as well as many other issues when considering what skills you want your law enforcement officers to possess.

The third theme is the process used to hire law enforcement officers. Many agencies use a rigidly structured hiring process that in many cases is deemed discriminatory by members of protected classes. The source of the discrimination is what surprises many chief executives and active-duty law enforcement officers. It seems simple to say that applicants must take a written exam to ensure that they possess at least a certain level of intelligence. Great amounts of money have been spent by police agencies ensuring that the written tests that they administer are based on job-related standards. What they are surprised to find out is that in some cases, members of minority classes may have no trouble with the intelligence part, but they get in trouble because of the time restraints when taking these exams. Changes to testing procedures need to be made that allow all applicants the opportunity to use their skill sets to the best of their ability based on realistic standards, not arbitrarily established time limitations based on convenience rather than job-relatedness. Efforts must also be made to shorten the time frame from application to appointment. Many good candidates are lost to the private sector because the process may take anywhere from one to three years in an ordinary agency. This may appeal to a hometown applicant starting early in his or her career, but it virtually assures difficulty in attracting qualified minority candidates committed to being law enforcement officers.

A study was done on whether or not background investigations disproportionately affect minority candidates. The result of the study was a recommendation that departments revise the criteria used in background investigations. The authors suggested that minority applicants are more likely than white applicants to have some record of minor violations; having a criminal record per-se should not automatically disqualify an applicant from the police force. Criminal records should be examined to ascertain the nature of the offense, the date of the offense, and the evidence of acceptable conduct since the violation (Free, 1996).

The literature also pointed out a couple of myths that are applied to the recruitment of minorities. The first one, salary levels in law enforcement, does not match up to the salary levels being offered in the public sector. This myth is far from the truth. It may be more accurate to compare salary levels between different agencies to get a more realistic indicator of why an agency cannot attract qualified applicants. According to a 1990 study, the average starting salary for 12 common occupations that require a college education to enter the field was \$21,892. This included teaching, accounting, computer sciences, and marketing careers. The average starting salary for local law enforcement officers during that same time period was \$24,850. Put to rest myth number one.

Myth number two is that there are few college graduates interested in careers in law enforcement. According to the same 1990 study, the enrollment of minority students

in criminal justice programs was two times the average enrollment of minorities in other academic disciplines. Additionally, the enrollment rate of minorities in criminal justice programs has been increasing at approximately 5% annually—more than double the rate of any other single discipline (Carter & Sapp, 1991).

Best Practices

To begin any successful recruitment program, I again reiterate that it must begin at the top. To be successful, the chief executive must make it absolutely clear that recruitment of minorities is a top priority for the department. I believe that the City of Springfield took a significant first step in the right direction when the city council renewed the employment contract of the chief. In the contract, it clearly articulates that the recruitment of minorities is a goal on which his performance shall be judged. This made it virtually guaranteed that the chief would ensure that this goal became a policy, which was supported through the ranks of the department.

Next, the department needs to start addressing the issue of racism. Racial intolerance cannot be permitted either internally or externally. The department and the Police Benevolent and Protective Association need to sit down and jointly develop a recruitment plan. This plan should be based on the premise that the rationale for minority hiring should not rest on current legal requirements of affirmative action; rather, the key justification is that it results in more effective policing (National Crime Prevention Council, 1995).

Departments across the country have developed many creative solutions to minority recruitment. Miami's Metro Dade Police Department has started targeting minority youths for recruitment by airing ads on audience-specific radio stations. They also attend cultural festivals and send minority officers into areas of the community that have high concentrations of minorities to develop a mentoring relationship with them in hopes of deterring gang activity and ultimately developing a pool of potential police recruits.

Some states, such as Minnesota, have passed laws that require all police officers hired without prior experience to possess a criminal justice degree from an approved community college or university within the state. Immediately, the minority communities challenged this as effectively denying minorities the opportunity to be police officers; however, some cities, such as Minneapolis, addressed the problem by creating a recruitment program that targeted minorities who had graduated college with majors other than criminal justice. Minneapolis concluded that by identifying graduates dissatisfied with their current careers, they may be able to encourage them to become police officers by agreeing to pay their tuition to return to school to finish a criminal justice degree. All that was required was a commitment to the department to become a police officer (Hoffman, 1994). This program initially had trouble attracting candidates because the reality is that potential candidates still had families to raise and bills to pay. To address this concern, the department created a police cadet program, in effect augmenting the candidates' ability to attend classes with a \$1,000 per month living stipend. The Minneapolis Police Department (MPD) has also targeted recruitment campaigns at military bases where military personnel are assigned prior to being discharged. College athletes are another favorite of MPD recruiters. They encourage them to major in criminal justice so that they can become police officers if professional sports do not work out for them.

Tulsa, Oklahoma and Sacramento, California both use the nonsworn position of Community Service Officer (CSO) as an entry-level position for getting minorities into the sworn ranks of officers. Both of these departments require a college degree as a qualification to be a sworn officer. While employed as a CSO, the minority candidates can get on-the-job experience in law enforcement and take advantage of the college education funds. Upon attaining enough credit hours, the CSOs are commissioned as sworn police officers.

Approach Taken

A demographics study compiled by the department in July 2000 documented an authorized strength of 268 sworn officers. At the time, the department had 12 vacancies due to resignations, retirements, discharges, etc. Figure 2 displays the demographic makeup of the sworn employees of the Springfield Police Department in 2000. The graph is broken down into four categories: (1) white males, (2) black males, (3) white females, and (4) black females.

Figure 2
Sworn Officers by Sex/Race

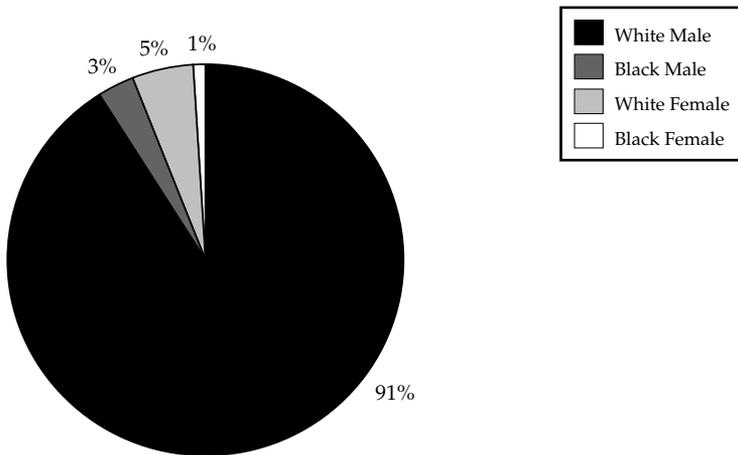


Figure 2 demonstrates that minorities account for 9% of the sworn officer population for the department. The 2000 U.S. Census Bureau reports for the City of Springfield revealed that the minority population of Springfield is 19% of the overall population of 111,454 persons. Of that, the black male and female population accounted for 15.3% of the total.

The chief of the department, John W. Harris, recognized shortly after his appointment in the fall of 1995 the potential problem with minority representation in the department. He initiated a recruitment effort that was headed by Commander Mary Vasconcelles. This effort essentially targeted minorities at educational facilities and through job fairs. The results were very disappointing due to a short time frame of

only four months and a perceived lack of focus. Several minority candidates did attempt to become police officers by taking the prescribed written exam and physical agility tests, but the success rate was low. The Springfield Civil Service Commission administered an examination for the position of patrol officer in 1997. Of the 381 people who took the examination, 40 were African American. The department hired 35 patrol officers from that eligibility list. Only one of them was African American. This just continued an already troubling trend in the ability of a minority to become a member of the department. A review of the hiring by the department from January 1994 through July 2000 revealed that the department hired 95 police officers. Only two of them were African Americans.

The NAACP believed that it was the city's use of written examinations and other selection procedures such as psychological and background investigations that caused the adverse impact against African American applicants. The city administered a written test developed by a firm that specialized in police and fire examinations, Stanard and Associates of Chicago. The final position on the eligibility list of the applicants was based on how they scored on the written portion of the examination process.

The failure of the recruitment effort was followed by the failure of minorities to achieve passing scores in significant numbers, and the filing of the Title VII lawsuit by the NAACP in federal court was a wake-up call for city officials. A comprehensive recruitment plan that would completely change the way of doing business was needed.

The city assembled a package of proposed changes to the civil service rules that would assist in recruiting minority candidates. The police chief requested that the city adopt a lateral entry program that would make it possible to recruit minority candidates from other police departments by allowing them to enter the department at 100% base pay and benefits rather than the 75% pay and benefits that a new recruit usually starts at. The plan also would allow the chief to automatically place those with preservice at the top of the eligibility list if qualified. Initially aggressively opposed by the Policemen's Benevolent and Protective Association, this change was modified slightly to limit the number of lateral entry candidates to 20% of new hires annually. This program was further modified to require new applicants to determine prior to an eligibility list being published whether they wanted to be on the lateral entry list or the regular applicant list. They could not be on both.

Another modification to the civil service rules allowed the department to recruit up to two persons annually from the Police Corp Program at Western Illinois University in Macomb. This is a program that is sponsored by the United States Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs. This program provides students with up to \$7,500 a year toward the cost of getting an undergraduate or graduate degree. Students can receive up to a total of \$30,000 toward the costs of their education. To be eligible, students must attend a four-year college or university. Students must be sponsored by an approved law enforcement agency that has agreed to hire them upon completion of their training. In return, the law enforcement agency will be reimbursed up to \$40,000 for each graduate they hire. The State of Illinois and approved municipalities within it became eligible to participate in this program with the signing of an Interagency Agreement on September 29, 1999 (Press Release, 1999).

The Springfield Police Department hired their first graduate in August 2001. Angela Westlake, a white female, was recruited while in the program at Western Illinois University. By hiring her, the department not only increased the number of minorities by hiring a female, they also guaranteed a revenue stream that will bring \$10,000 per year into the city coffers for the next four years. These funds will be designated to provide funding for additional recruitment initiatives. Future plans call for the establishment of a scholarship program that can be used to send qualified minority candidates from Springfield into the Police Corp Program.

Chief John Harris then took the necessary step of establishing an affirmative policy for the department concerning the recruitment of employees. The policy makes a clear statement that the agency will dedicate personnel that will be trained and will function as full-time recruiters. The policy declaring the department an equal opportunity employer is also emphasized. Discrimination is prohibited on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, national origin, marital status, ethnic heritage, or handicaps. The policy establishes the responsibilities and designates who will be responsible for what.

The city then sat down with experts from Stanard and Associates in Chicago to develop an alternative testing process that would not impact minority applicants negatively. In the spring of 2000, the city administered an examination that consisted of a written component that accounted for 30% of the final eligibility score and an oral component that comprised the remaining 70%. The physical agility portion of the examination was pass/fail only. The new testing procedure and the continuation of the recruitment effort resulted in a list that “looks like America,” according to Carl Madison, President of the Springfield Chapter of the NAACP. Eight of the top 50 candidates on the final eligibility list were black; one was Hispanic; and 12 were women (Antonacci, 2000).

Figure 3
Female and Minority Police Officers, 2000 and 2003

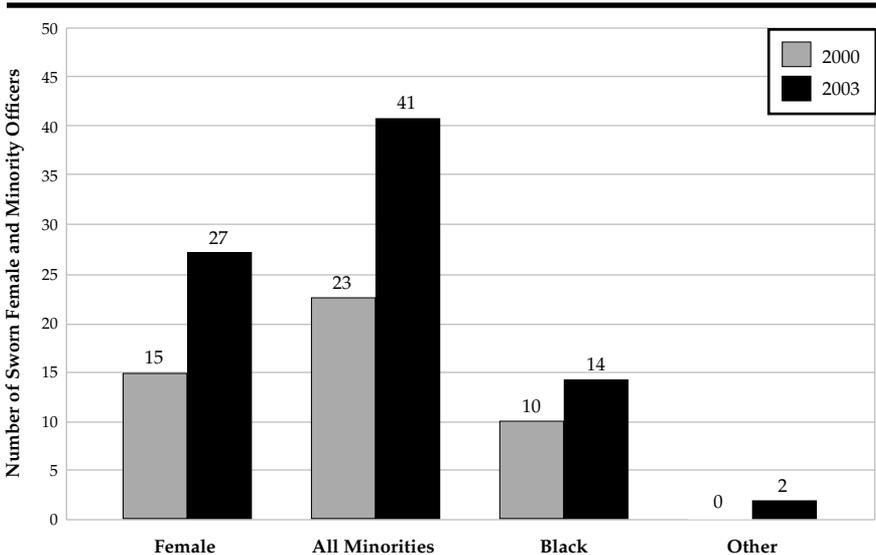


Figure 3 demonstrates the increases in the minority and female representation since the implementation of the recruitment and testing process in Springfield. These numbers clearly indicate a step forward, yet there is clearly a long way to go.

Initially, the NAACP was reluctant to drop its Title VII complaint that they filed in federal court. The NAACP wanted to ensure that whatever changes being made by the city were long-term and permanent, not just immediate and temporary. The trend appears to demonstrate that improvements have been made. If the process is fair and all those with a stake in the process perceive it to be so, it will survive the test of time.

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The Police Officer Selection Process in Illinois: An Absence of Management Rights

Timothy D. Lyerla, Captain, Granite City, Illinois Police Department

“Select the men and they exploit the situation . . . the valiant can fight, the cautious defend and the wise counsel . . . Do not demand accomplishments of those who have no talent . . . Select not based on favoritism or nepotism . . .”

– Sun Tzu, *The Art of War* (on a skilled leader)

The area of personnel selection is the single most important managerial task whether it be in the private sector or within a police department. The quality of the organization is dependent upon the quality of its personnel. Police departments throughout this country have historically approached the selection of new police officers as a weeding out process, of separating the “bad” or undesirables from the group of applicants to establish a list of eligible candidates. The process is negative, but a positive approach to effective hiring has been elusive to police professionals. Law enforcement experts throughout history have attempted to identify and formulate a selection process to accurately judge the potential of candidates for service. The standards and methods to select police officers are a matter of debate and great controversy. Nevertheless, the selection process still lacks uniformity, varying from state to state and community to community. While those charged with the endeavor of establishing a hiring process will tout one method or another, they readily agree that there is no one, absolute, or perfected formula to accurately judge and then select potential police personnel. Instead, they shrug and profess that in policing, the ultimate test of the person is the job itself.

While testing procedures to identify the “best qualified” personnel have remained controvertible, the question of how to attract and retain persons with the qualities and skills needed for contemporary policing remains a critical issue. The merit of any law enforcement agency is dependent upon the attributes and competence of its personnel. There is a definite relationship between the abilities of officers hired and the quality of performance within the department. It is therefore incumbent upon police administrators to develop a thorough and effective hiring process, one that matches the people to the job and agency.

Police service is concerned primarily with human conduct. As a result, the success or failure of a police department is much more dependent upon the qualifications of its personnel, their social skills, and their abilities to communicate than any other factors. The key characteristics of the good police department, in fact, are highly personal in nature—integrity and motivation (Wilson & McLaren, 1977). As in any business or organization, leaders are interested in employee integrity and motivation because these characteristics directly relate to job performance, but the relationship between motivation and performance has to be understood, and it is not a simple one. Motivation is the key to job performance, but it alone cannot increase performance. Ability determines what a person can do; motivation determines what

a person will do. Unless the employee has the requisite job skills and knowledge (ability), he or she cannot achieve high performance. The employee needs both the ability and the motivation to fulfill that level of performance. A highly motivated police officer without the skills to correctly perform is a danger to him- or herself and a liability to the department that employs him or her. They invariably provide unsatisfactory service, damage the reputation of the department, and promote unfavorable public opinion (Wilson & McLaren, 1977).

The well-being of any organization, whether a private or public entity, is dependent on three critical success factors: (1) effective corporate strategies, (2) productive human resources, and (3) effective operational systems. Among these three critical success factors, human resources are considered to be the most important. The human resources factor, people, is the foundation of the other two (Chung, 1987). In most private settings, it is the human resource department that performs the function of acquiring, training, and maintaining personnel. These functions may also be shared with or take place in conjunction with the department manager. Personnel specialists analyze specific jobs to determine the job skills required, assist line managers in the recruitment and selection of employees, then conduct orientation and training programs. Twenty-eight years ago in research conducted by Eisenberg and Murray (1974), improved police officer selection was identified as depending upon more careful job analysis and better criterion development (Moriarty & Field, 1994). Again, in the private sector, once personnel needs are determined, the company conducts a search for the person(s) with the needed skills to fulfill the demand and staff the position.

Generally, a job analysis has been or is conducted in which human resources personnel collect information about the position to be filled. Job analysis leads to job description, a written description of what the job entails, and job specification, which sets forth a list of traits, personal qualifications, and experience that is needed for the position. The selection process is then begun to seek out the most qualified person(s) to perform the job. The process involves choosing from a pool of candidates an individual who is best suited to fill the position. This selection should be founded on the job analysis and job description. The individual should have the ability to be successful at what he or she is hired to do. Additionally, that person should reflect the philosophy and mission of the organization.

The process of selection involves a series of interviews and/or testing in an attempt to simulate tasks or test skills for evaluation. This process is generally conducted by human resource personnel or managers, or it may be contracted out to experts in the area of selection (e.g., assessment centers). The information obtained during the selection process is used to make an informed selection decision. In law enforcement, this operation often lacks necessary attention to detail due to internal considerations, the volume of candidates, expediency in filling vacancies, and practicing budget guidelines. In the hiring of police officers, most agencies do not practice the three ideologies outlined by Tom Peters when he profiled prosperous businesses. Those three tenets followed by the best in business are as follows: (1) spend time, and lots of it, (2) insist that line people dominate the process, and (3) don't be vague about the qualities you are looking for in a candidate (Peters, 1987).

As espoused, human resources constitute the key to organizational success. Organizations require effective strategies and efficient operational systems to

survive. Without the “right” people, however, no organization can develop effective corporate strategies or efficient operational systems, let alone achieve its objectives. A police department is no better than the sum of its individual members. Since so much depends on the quality of personnel and because of the expense of staffing, only the best qualified, based upon ability, traits, and skills should be selected for service.

Management is planning, organizing, staffing (commanding / leading), coordinating, and controlling organizational activities toward attaining organizational goals. A strong argument can be made that good police management is essentially good personnel management (Geller, 1991). People are the police department’s most important and valuable resource. The quality of the people doing the policing and the success of the organization depend first and foremost on how well these people are selected.

Professional police management, especially in the area of personnel is growing in significance and consequence. There are several reasons for this growth. First, police departments are under increasing pressure to become performance-based. Public expectations of the police have changed. An emphasis has been placed on the need to elevate the quality of personnel through selection, education, and training. The focal point has been on the “quality” of policing (Geller, 1991). Secondly, the passage of the Federal Equal Opportunity Act of 1972 created the basis for successful legal challenges to traditional hiring practices that favored white males. Additionally, the growth of civil liability litigation for personnel-related causes has also placed significance on the functions of management. Settlements and large jury awards centering on such matters as hiring, training, and retention speak volumes of the growing importance of the staffing and control areas of administration as defined by Henry Fayol. Police managers are acutely aware of issues relating to employment discrimination, employee rights, inadequate training, failure to supervise, and negligent retention.

The quality of police service the community receives depends on the competence of individual officers. While training and support are necessary to continue good service, the bottom line is the selection of personnel that can be trained and have rudimentary skills that can be honed and developed. Raymond Fosdick, author of the first scholarly assessment of the police in America, wrote in 1920 that “the heart of the police problem is one of personnel,” and that the “quality of policing departments’ work depends on the observation, knowledge, discretion, courage, and judgment of its police officers . . .” (Walker, 1983). Fosdick’s assessment 82 years ago still holds true today. There has to be a good foundation on which to build. The selection process is the cornerstone, the point of origin.

The management of personnel is the most consequential administrative task. A high quality of service to the community is contingent on the unwavering insistence upon the application of two principles: (1) that the best personnel must invariably be selected and (2) doubt in reference to appointment or separation from service must be resolved in favor of the department (Wilson & McLaren, 1977). Police managers must take special care to ensure that only highly capable individuals are permitted to wear the badge of authority considering the awesome power and responsibility entrusted to police officers. Administrators must recruit and select people carefully, matching the candidate’s abilities, attitudes, and interests with

the mission and values of the job and organization. As we move onward into the 21st century, changing societal demands call for accountability and innovative approaches to law enforcement and crime control.

A police officer works with people. An officer's work *is* people. It is imperative that officers possess the social, human relations, decision-making, and problem-solving skills to interact with people, as well as the ability to document their actions in writing. Those skills also have to include the ability to effectively interact with persons of various social, economic, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds and of various degrees of mental capacity. Police officers must have the intellectual aptitude to learn a wide variety of subjects, to observe, to reason rapidly and accurately, and to adapt quickly and satisfactorily to new situations and an ever changing work environment (Wilson & McLaren, 1977). The ability to effectively communicate (people skills) has always been the best weapon of a police officer, but communication skills are now the key to current trends in policing (i.e., community-oriented policing). Conceptual skills, problem-solving ability, and intellectual capacity now supersede physical prowess as a prerequisite to the profession. The current trends dictate that law enforcement transcend the traditional models, moving from the reactive, authority model to a proactive, expert paradigm. To accomplish this transformation, a shift in the traditional model of hiring also has to take place. Any commitment to success of the organization must consist of shedding the traditions that are counterproductive to positive change (Moriarty & Field, 1994).

Police executive officers generally recognize what impact the entry of individuals to law enforcement has on the overall quality of policing, professional standards, and future pool of leaders and supervisors within their department. At issue in the State of Illinois is the human resources model, the internal and external environment that affects a police manager's inability to have any input or control over the selection process. While law enforcement has been criticized repeatedly for its inability to grapple with the caliber of its police officers, Illinois law severely restricts, if not prohibits, most police managers' and executive officers' involvement in the selection process. Yet, ask a police administrator how the majority of his or her time is spent, and the overwhelming reply will be dealing with personnel problems. Due to this managerial impotence, Illinois police chiefs equate themselves to the coach of a sports team whose owners and general manager fail to secure productive players. It is the coach, the field manager, not the front office, who gets the blame for the players' errors and their inability to win. Ultimately, it is the coach who assumes all of the responsibility for the players and in the end, is held accountable for poor performance of the team. As a result, it is the entire team that suffers, and the coach who customarily pays the supreme price (Dickman, 1996).

The management function of hiring in most Illinois municipal police departments is delegated to a civilian board established by state statutes. The Illinois Board of Fire and Police Commissioners Act (IBFPCA) dates back nearly 50 years. The statute gives the authority of selection to an outside entity, a civilian board void of any management duties or responsibilities within the police department. The intent of the statute is to keep nepotism, political influence, and patronage out of hiring, promoting, and disciplining fire and police officers. The IBFPCA is incorporated in Chapter 65 of the Illinois Compiled Statutes, Act 5, Section 10, Division 2.1 (ILCS 65/5 10-2.1) The Act empowers a commission of three members to appoint all officers and members of the police and fire service of the municipality, including

the department chief unless otherwise provided by municipal ordinance (ILCS 65/5 10-2.1-4). The board, by statute, shall consist of three members. The commissioners may not hold any other office within the municipality, may not be related by blood or marriage (up to first cousin) to any elected official of the municipality, and may not have been convicted of a felony; no more than two of the members may be from the same political party (ILCS 65/5 10-2.1/2.1-3). Commissioners are appointed by the mayor, subject to approval by the municipal council. The statute places no other qualification criteria to hold the position of fire and police commissioner.

Home rule communities may further define the position by ordinance. An example, the Granite City Municipal Code (Chapter 2, Section 44, article 010) states that the . . .

three board members of the Fire and Police Commission shall be appointed by the mayor and approved by the city council. The board members shall consist of one member of the employee class, one from the employing class, and the third shall be a representative citizen not identified with either the employee or employing class. Commissioners serve for a period of three years from date of appointment and may not be removed from office without cause.

Theoretically, this provides the commissioners with independence from the mayor and council. Essentially, the IBFPCA grants the function of staffing and controlling to a force of political appointees who are not required to have any human resources expertise or special knowledge of policing. They also have no responsibility for or authority in the day-to-day operations of the department. Commissioners who have been charged with the responsibility and power of appointing, promoting, and disciplining those public employees involved in health, safety, and protection of the municipality are selected from the general population of the community by an appointment of the mayor. They are generally without any training or knowledge of law enforcement and have no human resources background. Commissioners are not required to be familiar with identifying the traits required to perform the duties of the professionals they are assuming power over. They are not required to have interviewing or personality assessment skills. While the IBFPCA statute was established with good intentions, the power of the mayor to appoint these positions, without specified qualifications in personnel administration or human resources, certainly does not guarantee removal of political influence in the hiring, promotion, or discipline process. Unfortunately, political involvement in the selection process still abounds in most municipalities. The legislation, which was supposed to ensure fairness in the process, can and often does, produce just the opposite. The statute pits the politics of the commission against the judgment, needs, and management function of the department administrator. The system of a civilian board overseeing the staffing of personnel fails to promote the ideals of professionalism.

The IBFPCA decrees the powers of the commissioners to examine applicants as well as establish the qualifications/disqualifiers for candidates. The Act states that examinations shall be conducted by the Board of Fire and Police Commissioners of the municipality. The exams shall be practical in character and relate to those matters that will fairly test the capacity of the persons examined to discharge the duties of the positions to which they seek appointment. Qualifications of applicants include a high school diploma or equivalent. Applicants will be disqualified for being a "conscientious objector," having a felony conviction, or being an amputee

(missing a limb). Exams shall include tests of physical qualifications and health. No examination may be given concerning political or religious opinion or affiliation (ILCS 65/5 10: 2.1-6).

The only exception to the state statute regarding the IBFPCA is provided in the Illinois Constitution to "Home Rule" units. Home rule communities are granted powers of self-government. The municipal government can literally do anything except that which is specifically exempted or prohibited by state statute(s). The City of Granite City is a home rule community. By passage of a city ordinance, the IBFPCA was adopted as a hiring, promotion, and discipline guideline. The Granite City Municipal Code (Chapter 2, Sec. 44., art. 020) grants the authority to the board to have charge of all appointments to the fire and police departments and to conduct and hold all entrance and rank promotion examinations in the manner required by law (Granite City Municipal Code, 1989).

The statute grants the commissioners the authority and power to administer tests to police applicants but does not specify what kinds of test(s) can be administered, how the testing process should be conducted, or in what manner or order. These details are left to the discretion of the board and held to the scrutiny of federal guidelines and legislation such as the 1991 Civil Rights Act, Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), and resulting legal decisions. Current rulings require only that a competitive test be administered by the board of commissioners, that the test have content validity, and that it can be defended against in accordance to ADA and EEOC standards, which state that all screening procedures must be job-related, nondiscriminatory, and without adverse impact.

Entry-level testing and selection procedures for Illinois municipal police officers governed by the IBFPCA are influenced, if not governed entirely, by rules and procedures of the Illinois Fire and Police Commissioners Association.

The Illinois Fire and Police Commissioners Association is an organization that was initially established in 1957 after passage of the IBFPCA to guide and educate commissioners. The IBFPCA is so ambiguous that board members created an alliance to unify its members and clarify the situation regarding methods of operation, promote cooperation, collect and exchange data, disseminate information and research, and promote competence and integrity among the states' commissioners (Illinois Fire and Police Commissioners Association, 1976). The association adopted guidelines and procedures, which are published in a reference manual. The manual is distributed to the Fire and Police Commissioners membership.

The *Fire and Police Manual*, the handbook of the association, has recommended steps for proper selection procedures and guidelines, including those of the written and oral examinations. The guidelines for the written examination states that "the material used in this exam be of such a nature that it will adequately outline the candidate's aptitude to assimilate training as a patrol officer." It is suggested that commissioners use a validated test provided by a professionally licensed vendor to avoid liability. The oral examination shall be of the nature that will enable commissioners "to properly evaluate and grade the candidate on speech, alertness, ability to communicate, judgment, emotional stability, self confidence, social skill, and general fitness for the position" (Illinois Fire and Police

Commissioners Association, 1976). This not only places a great emphasis on the discretion, judgment, and competence level of an appointed position, but also grants authority and responsibility upon a nonmanagement position.

“The greatest danger to liberty lies in the hands of men well intentioned but uninformed.” This passage headed the preamble letter of Thomas McGuire, legal advisor to the Police Service Bureau of the Illinois Association of Chiefs of Police, in addressing the responsibility of fire and police commissioners.

By possessing such responsibility, the commissioners, not the chief of police, has a great influence upon the quality of the public safety agency and the benefit the taxpayer will derive from that amount of taxes committed to community public safety. The greatest amount of training, the finest equipment, facilities and resources will not attain the maximum degree of utilization unless the people chosen by the commissioner(s) are of high quality. (Illinois Fire and Police Commissioners Association, 1976)

Does this method of selection, of exempting police managers from involvement in the selection process, provide municipal law enforcement agencies in Illinois with the “best qualified” entry-level candidates, or does the process continue to promulgate the “weeding out” of only the worst and accepting the rest? Do current procedures and policies provide the most qualified personnel for the position, or just those that survive the course of disqualification?

“If you want to understand something, try to change it.”

– Kurt Lewin

Graduate research of the police selection process conducted by this author in 1997 included the interview of 14 police chiefs whose selection/hiring processes were governed by the IBFPCA and conducted by a board of fire and police commissioners. Unanimously, the chiefs advocated a change in the system. They were all of the opinion that the system as provided for by law is “inadequate” to fill the needs of the profession and management of the department. In the words of now retired Chief Ben Dickman of the Edwardsville, Illinois Police Department, . . .

There is too much confusion as to the Fire and Police Commissioners Act; too many opinions about what can and can’t be done. It is ambiguous and confusing, varying from commission to commission, community to community. It precludes involvement of management and we have no recourse except to go through the expense of hiring, training then terminating. I don’t want to see anyone fired, have their life ruined because someone hired them and put them in a position they were not suited for. The act gives too much power to people who are not qualified. Private business does not operate that way . . .

Roger Richards, director of the Southwestern Illinois Law Enforcement Commission, was interviewed during his tenure as chief of Fairview Heights Police Department. Richards’ opinion was that the Fire and Police Commissioner’s Act is outdated, an antiquated law, and that has had commissioners running scared of federal guidelines. According to Richards, “the single most important issue in policing is

the hiring process. Building pride and professionalism in the organization begins with selection.”

The intent of the IBFPCA, as professed by the guidelines of the Illinois Fire and Police Commission Association membership, is to keep political patronage out of hiring, promoting, and disciplining fire and police officers. The association’s secretary, Mr. Pat Gallagher, serves as a commissioner for the Village of Bellwood, Illinois. He contends that the law provides commissioners with autonomy from political intervention that is essential to avoid prejudice and political bias. This view is a point of contention with police chiefs who reason that the commissioners themselves are political appointees of the mayor of the municipality. Mr. Gallagher states, “The law does not specify what kind of tests or how many can be used to assess police/fire applicants. The commissioner’s job is not to prepare the test(s), just to administer them.” Tests are selected from professional vendors, assessment centers, or those who specialize in law enforcement testing. The test instruments are required by law only to be competitive and valid.

“The examination of applicants fall[s] under the EEOC and ADA regulations. They must withstand federal scrutiny if challenged,” according to John Broihier, of DiLeonardi & Broihier, Ltd., legal counsel for the Illinois Fire and Police Commission Association. “The written exams have to be designed not to specifically test knowledge of law enforcement because that is discriminatory, but to evaluate an applicant’s aptitude and achievement. Written tests have to show some relationship to success on the job, or at minimum, to success in performing in the academy.” Subjective tests can be seen as prejudicial, and therefore, subject to litigation, a matter that commissioners wish to avoid.

Mr. Broihier contends that police managers’ argument that commissioners fail to assess critical abilities, such as written communication skills, is a matter of what can be a validated test. Writing samples may be viewed as prejudicial in that a writing skills test may reject minorities. “An EEOC opinion says it does not make a difference whether an applicant can spell or not, or has the ability to convey information in written form. And the reasoning behind such an opinion is that a candidate can get a dictionary, a spell checker, or grammar checker. Sentence structure, penmanship, and spelling are not requirements of the job.” Such an opinion does not fare well with police supervisors, clerical staff, or prosecutors.

Regarding the importance of assessing a candidate’s social and communicative skills, both Broihier and Gallagher agree that verbal expression and social skills are a necessity to perform well as a police officer. To weigh the valuation of the candidate, Broihier stated that EEOC regulations include the psychological testing of candidates as a medical examination; therefore, it can be given only after an employment offer is made. Broihier stressed that it is the psychologist who may be in the best position to evaluate the candidate on his or her ability to effectively communicate and social skills. The psychologist’s report to the commissioner is presented as candidate “Recommended, Not Recommended, or Recommended with Caution” based upon an objective evaluation, not the subjective analysis of a lay person. An oral interview, unless well-documented, is subjective in nature.

Gallagher and Broihier were in agreement that improvements could be made to the selection process and the law governing selection. Both hold that well-trained

commissioners are the answer to most complaints by police chiefs. “The goal of the Board of Fire & Police Commissioners Association is to better inform and train its members. The more thorough and meticulous commissioners are in testing, and more up to date on process improvements, then the better the selection will be. The association encourages commissioners to become better educated and stay current on new tests and vendor services.”

Broihier was quick to point out that there is no perfect test; it does not exist. All of the testing in the world will not guarantee that bad candidates will be censored. He argued that academy standards should be set higher and also argued that while police chiefs may feel that they are left out of the proceedings, the chief has the power to remove incompetents through the course of probation. “The final test of an appointee is performance. That is why there is a probationary period. The true indicator is in performance, not testing.” Until an officer completes the period of probation, he/she is not part of the “classified service.” By Illinois state statute, a probationary officer is not entitled to a hearing for discharge. Illinois law regarding discharge during probation was upheld by the Supreme Court in the case of *Romanik vs. Board of Fire & Police Commissioners* [City of East St. Louis IL 75 IL; 61 ILL. 2nd. 422; Supreme Court 338 NE: 2nd., 397]. The Supreme Court ruled in *Romanik* that incompetence is cause for dismissal on probation.

In the final analysis, the frustrations that most department heads feel about the legislated selection process in Illinois is real. The law enforcement profession is about problem solving, human relations, oral skills, written communication skills, team orientation, and most importantly, integrity. The current process, as dictated by statute, fails to take into consideration that the function of staffing is the single most important managerial task of police administrators. Selecting the right people for the job—those who have the ability to perform; those who are compatible with the agency, the mission, and philosophy of the department—is the responsibility of the police manager. The IBFPCA was passed in a period that nepotism and political involvement in public service prevailed. That time has passed. The evolution of professional policing includes the fruition of professional management. The IBFPCA needs to be revisited, and legislation should be enacted to include management rights and practices to improve the selection process.

The police officer of today is expected to contribute much more to the community than just arresting violators of the law. Modern policing transcends just enforcement of the law. Police service is intervention. The public’s high expectations for proactive and preventative police measures require a shift from the physical to a knowledge-based police contingent. There is a constant want of more service, often with less financial support. The need for hiring the best qualified person to fill the position is of the utmost importance to accommodate department goals and serve the needs and expectations of the community. Chief executives and command staff officers have a greater interest in, and responsibility for, the final result of hiring the right person for the job than do appointed civilian commissioners. The commissioners have no accountability, no responsibility to the department or community. In as much, the selection process and the management of the human resource function as applied to the Board of Fire and Police Commissioners has to be reconciled. The impediment of police departments selection of qualified candidates is the outdated IBFPCA statute that fails to take into account professional management of police agencies. Commissioners who follow the edicts of their own association “to provide

the resources, within the guidelines of the statutes, to obtain the right person for the job” should recognize the need for a checks and balance system and an amendment to the current IBFPCA. Proposed changes to the IBFPCA have been made by police chiefs’ associations, proposed legislation and lobbying efforts, but to date there has been no success. One sitting chief who had expressed his dissatisfaction with the selection process summed it up by saying “We keep trying to compensate for the errors in hiring. Termination is an expensive venture, but it appears to be the only option.”

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Acknowledgements

- Mr. John Broihier, Attorney at Law, Illinois Fire and Police Commissioners Association
- Mr. Ben Dickman, retired Chief of Police, City of Edwardsville, Illinois
- Mr. Patrick Gallagher, Secretary, Illinois Fire and Police Commissioners Association
- Mr. Roger Richards, retired Chief of Police, City of Fairview Heights, Illinois

Timothy D. Lyerla entered law enforcement with the Granite City Police Department as a telecommunicator in June 1976. He was commissioned as a police officer in September 1977. During his 26-year career in policing, he has served as patrol officer, field training officer and field training supervisor, training officer, range master, accident reconstruction officer, first-line supervisor, and watch commander. He held the office of shop steward for the police bargaining unit for 12 years and served on the labor and negotiations committees. Today, he holds the rank of captain and has the challenging assignment of patrol division commander, which entails managing uniform services, communications/911, and training.

Lyerla has completed the following degrees and training:

- Master of Arts (dual), Management and Human Resource Development, Webster University, St. Louis, MO, 1997
- Bachelor of Science, Criminal Justice Management, Tarkio College, Tarkio, MO; St. Louis, MO, 1989
- Northwestern University – Executive Management Program
- Northwestern University – Traffic Institute
- Illinois State Police Academy

Lyerla has been involved in the following professional activities:

- Certified Police Instructor – State of Illinois Training and Standards Board
- Instructor – Southwestern Illinois College Police Academy
- Instructor – Southwestern Illinois Law Enforcement Commission, MTU #14

He is a member of the following professional organizations:

- Southern Illinois Police Chiefs Association
- American Society for Law Enforcement Training
- Illinois Association of Technical Accident Investigators
- Illinois Police Association
- Police Benevolent and Protective Association of Illinois
- Madison County Police Association

The Citizen's Academy: A Valuable Resource for Small Agencies

Tom A. Boren, Chief of Police, Olney Police Department

Citizen's academies have become an integral program in many police agencies since the early 1990s. Initially, only large police agencies participated in these programs; however, the potential benefits gained by smaller police departments, notwithstanding limited resources, would well serve them to design and operate their own citizen's academy. Citizen's academies are controlled forums that can help an administration in its goal to protect and serve the community by actively seeking to indoctrinate the attendees with the department's goals, mission, and vision. The end result can be timely and appropriate sharing of police-related information with citizens concerning crime prevention, quality-of-life issues, and even financial needs of the local police of which otherwise the public at large would not be aware. Each participant has a "sphere of influence" through which he or she revolves daily. This sphere of influence is those persons with whom the citizen interacts on a daily basis. Family, friends, work associates, and other contacts make up each person's sphere of influence. As trained academy attendees, they may actually act as advocates of the local department when issues come up within the public regarding the department or policing in general. Such ad hoc advocacy in itself is inestimable and well worth the time and effort put into such a program.

What Is a Citizen's Academy?

The most common citizen's academy format uses a modified "mini-academy" setting geared to expose citizen volunteers to some of the rigors and decision-making skills recruits receive at standard basic training academies. Using staff and training personnel from the local police agency as the program trainers, the citizen-students get instruction on topics ranging from traffic stops and domestic disturbance calls to actually firing weapons on a police pistol range.

Citizen's academies differ from citizen patrols in that the participants are not allowed to form into volunteer neighborhood patrols. These citizen patrol groups were experimented with in the late 1980s and early 1990s. The specter of overzealous citizens becoming vigilantes made the practicality of patrol groups questionable. Other types of involvement were sought after the inherent problems in citizen patrols became a concern for police administrators.

Police must never forget that the public plays the most fundamental role in maintaining order. People must be encouraged to view citizenship as carrying both a right and a responsibility to help others in emergency situations, while at the same time using common sense about the bystanders' own safety. For most citizens, there is a wide range of actions between doing nothing and physically harming the offender, and law enforcement agencies must work with community leaders to see that the public is educated about the range of alternative actions. (Geller, 1991, p. 105)

The advent of the citizen's academy has served to provide the citizen with an avenue of education and information about crime and its prevalence, detection, and prevention. It has also helped citizens to understand the nuances and factors facing officers in their on-the-street decisionmaking in the ever-changing field of policing.

An important aspect of the academy model is the ability to control the learning environment thus making it a safe experience for the attendees, and it precludes placing students in situations that would expose them to unnecessary risk. Former "Citizens on Patrol" modalities placed volunteers on the street as civilian observers. These persons sometimes became targets of retaliation from local thugs or gang members with whom they might come in contact while "on patrol."

Another altruistic benefit of the academy setting is the student's perception that he or she has been invited "behind the scenes" thereby being allowed a special glimpse of what really goes on in the police environment. Human nature dictates that people want to learn the inner workings of organizations and institutions; we know reality-based television programs capitalize upon this public interest in criminal investigations, drug raid depictions, and high-speed pursuits.

Citizen's academies are the latest incarnation of what was once referred to as "police-community relations." "Community-oriented policing" describes a host of initiatives whose intent is to capitalize on the police agency reintegrating into the community. As a part of an overall strategy to build partnerships between law enforcement agencies and the people they serve, citizen's academies are an integral part of successful community-oriented policing.

While citizen's academies are more prevalent in larger departments, administrators of progressive smaller agencies should not rush to conclude that the expense in staff time and limited resources to pursue creating their own citizen's academy would not result in valuable dividends to the small police agency. A creative, progressive administration and staff can find readily available materials and resources within their jurisdiction at little or no cost.

The Obvious and Subtle Benefits Associated with Citizen's Academies

Policing has always been a complex and extremely difficult profession. Paradoxically, most civilians have a skewed perception of policing based on second-hand information. The majority of this misinformation results from two main wellsprings: (1) the electronic media and (2) second party accounts of police interactions. Neither source is objective or particularly interested in portraying law enforcement in its totality. The entertainment industry, news accounts, or other forms of the electronic and print media sell a "product." In the realm of the media, the more scintillating and provocative the police story, the better for readership or viewer ratings. The citizen who has been issued a citation for speeding or perhaps the victim of a break-in usually feels violated, "abused" by the system, or neglected by the public servants who are paid to protect their business or home.

A commonly reported result of attending a citizen's academy is participants dealing with their misinterpretation of law enforcement. Most graduates report a renewed

appreciation for the problem-solving skills and conflict resolution tools officers must routinely use. Another common remark made in exit interviews by attendees is that they had no idea of the many complex issues that officers must constantly be considering on even the most routine call (e.g., officer safety, search and seizure laws, interrogation rules, the various state laws, and the ever-present regulations from the local department). Consistently, graduates of the program report a deeper appreciation for the men and women in law enforcement and the job they do.

Building a relationship with a corps of “pro-police” citizens by sharing knowledge and experience, formally and informally by the local police, allows the citizen to relay information to their own personal contacts, their sphere of influence. Such grassroots advocates of policing help take the department’s message to the community. These interactions provide answers to questions or concerns to members of the public who may feel alienated, embarrassed, or otherwise unwilling to approach a police officer.

Some subtle benefits can also be realized when considering the inauguration of a citizen’s academy. These have to deal with subliminal messages that the officers, staff, and facilitators may share after having been involved in the program. The American Society for Law Enforcement Training uses the motto *qui docet, discet*, “he who teaches, learns.” The facilitator and staff who instruct the citizen’s academy learn that these people represent the majority of the public they serve, but they seldom meet these citizens outside of a traffic stop or the scene of a crime. An important, subtle insight for the educator-officer is a reminder of how important the policing career is and that there are citizens who support and honor their work.

On a more practical note, the officer experiences renewed pride in the career. While dealing with students’ questions and concerns about policing topics, officers are reminded that as police professionals, the police sometimes lose sight of the “how’s and why’s” of what the police do on a routine basis. Many citizens’ misperceptions are corrected in the academy setting, and it is a valuable learning tool for the officer, who can better communicate with victims or witnesses in future calls.

Another factor that may often be overlooked is the education of a potential jury pool. As previously discussed, each attendee of the academy has a sphere of influence of people with whom they relate daily. This natural grapevine of dissemination of information may be an informal way to indoctrinate the public within a community to the level of professionalism of the local police agency. These contacts may bolster the credibility of the agency to those with whom the academy attendees interrelate. These networks may help educate potential jurors on the daily operations of an agency that may result in better-informed juries and people who are more aware of why officers do what they do in the course of an arrest.

The citizen’s academy venue may also serve as a good recruitment vehicle. As America ages, the future of policing may look different in regards to who may be newly discovered human resources of tomorrow. Job sharing, civilian staffs, community service volunteers, hiring recently retired professionals and specialists are just a few of the possibilities that police agencies may explore in the near future of policing. Many contacts at the citizen academy today may be valuable full-time, part-time, or volunteer staff tomorrow. Conversely, it seems wise of the academy

staff to invite college age people in order to introduce the next generation to law enforcement as a career option.

Another benefit of an organization's citizen's academy program may be preparing a cadre of interested, well-informed citizens in the event a department undergoes some catastrophic event that may require the agency to submit to an oversight committee. These committees may be seated by the local government as part of a consent decree or in attempts to avoid further intrusion in the department's operations. In this event, it would be very beneficial to have a group of persons who have previous exposure to the department's goals, mission, and objectives to be asked to sit on these committees. Having informed members on these panels would be well worth the effort in developing a citizen's academy program.

Finally, a well-managed citizen's academy can build better confidence and trust in the local agency. In all successful community-oriented policing ventures, the local law enforcement agency should reach out and bring in members of the community to help identify problems, to share information, and to assess the problems associated with crime and disorder within the community. There is no better way to create this "buy-in" than to offer these citizens a front-row seat in learning about the police from the local "good guys." Members of the public who make the commitment of time necessary to finish an academy are citizens who have interests in making their community a better place to live. The graduates, through their sphere of influence, will prove invaluable allies in situations when the police agency faces perceived or actual allegations.

The Citizen's Academy as a Tool for Community-Oriented Policing

The initiation of a local citizen's academy lends itself to providing a strong framework from which other elements of community-oriented policing may be developed. It is a daunting task to get community stakeholders identified, educated, and motivated to join a partnership with the local police agency to develop community-oriented strategies. The citizen's academy can provide a platform from which the agency may begin explaining the problem-solving process, and discussion of the Scanning, Analysis, Response, and Assessment (SARA) model of problem solving crime or quality-of-life issues in a city, community, or neighborhood.

Persons, who aspire to citizen's academy positions are more likely to be motivated to be supportive of law enforcement's efforts. This support is evidenced in their willingness to build coalitions and develop consensus in approaching the needs of the community relative to crime prevention, safety concerns, drug abuse, and maintaining order in the community. All academy applicants have a desire to learn more about policing; what better way to develop a partnering mindset than to expose these people to the "inner workings" of law enforcement? Such information sharing implies a growing customer satisfaction mentality within the department. The attitude of the participant is one of being allowed into the confidence of the police cadre. This underlying sense of privilege or belonging creates a feeling of inclusiveness and pride of the department as each person begins to identify with their police department. Graduates may be called upon as a resource for the agency as part-time volunteers or help with departmental projects.

Volunteers can be especially helpful in assisting with community surveys, door-to-door canvassing of problem areas, manning informational booths at local community activities such as county fairs and other special events. Needs assessment strategies can be accomplished with minimal impact on the department's fiscal resources by using such a group of eager well-informed volunteers.

Citizen's academy trainees can be instrumental in developing new initiatives based on their understanding of the principles of community-oriented policing having been indoctrinated in the agency's goals, objectives, and problem-solving initiatives. Many persons who have an active interest in law enforcement have valuable vocational and personal skills, more discretionary time, and a desire to put these to work to help their police department.

Developing Support from Agency Decision Makers for the Citizen's Academy Concept

The first and foremost requisite for developing a citizen's academy is to assure local "buy-in" for the program. Has the local government body been thoroughly briefed as to the academy's roles and goals? Keeping the mayor, city council, or city manager informed about the nature, role, and value of a citizen's academy will help foster credibility with the management and staff of the local government unit. This project can be viewed as a vehicle to improve the department's ability to assess and problem-solve issues of concern within the community.

City managers and mayors expect their chiefs of police to identify serious crime problems and implement programs to address such problems. They also expect chiefs to not only anticipate problems, but identify means to reduce or resolve problems. They expect their chiefs to attend council and city staff meetings and actively participate when appropriately addressing pertinent matters. They expect their chiefs to be informed and sensitive as to what is occurring in the community, which influence or pertain to police services. They expect the police department to be more open than secretive. (Hanna, 1990, p. 100)

Once upper management "buy-in" has been brokered, a general meeting of the department staff should be scheduled. In this meeting, the pros and cons of the program should be discussed, and the staff should be allowed to voice concerns and recommendations about the program. The first often-overlooked local human resource is the officers and staff of the department. To produce a successful academy program, they must be included in the planning and development stage. The initiative, interests, and suggestions generated from employees help identify potential presenters and establish the driving energy needed to make the academy productive.

So Where Do We Go from Here?

While every department's citizen's academy will reflect the interests and issues or concerns that affect the individual agency, many resources are available to agencies at little or no cost. It is highly recommended that the department develop its format with consideration of the goals and mission of the particular agency. No citizen's academy will be effective unless a well-thought-out curriculum has been set. That game plan should reflect the concerns that the agency believes are of most

interest to their specific community. An agency near a large urban center would be well-advised to discuss gang activity instead of the more rural problems such as clandestine methamphetamine labs.

It is wise to remember that the staffing of the academy should be flexible and can be amendable due to officers/staff being indisposed in emergencies or court appearances, etc. This is particularly true with small agencies in which staffing is always a precarious concern.

Citizen's Academy Materials

Most academies borrow the general format from local models of department or state academies or Police Officer Standards and Training (POST) training centers. Much of the material is classroom instruction with additional materials such as handouts, films, and hands-on exercises.

Instruction in the form of police training films and tapes may be available from the agency's training library or can be ordered for the agency from local repositories or other police agencies that have them available for loan. Larger agencies, like the Chicago Police Department, Memphis Metropolitan Police Department, and other leading professional agencies, often copy and send training tapes to requesting agencies in return for blank videotapes. In Illinois, for example, the local Mobile Training Units may have tapes available for member agencies to borrow.

Another resource in Illinois is the Illinois Law Enforcement Media Resource Center of Western Illinois University at Macomb. Their annual catalog of training films provides a detailed reference guide describing the materials available for the cost of return postage.

There is a plethora of commercial resources from which to purchase tapes and materials advertised in law enforcement trade journals and magazines. Before any purchase, an agency should determine its needs to prevent creating a library of expensive, unused materials. It is not the purpose of this article to recommend any publishing group or resource center.

Other sources are state, federal, and international law enforcement organizations that create and regularly update training keys and materials. Notably, the International Association of Chiefs of Police training keys have been an industry standard for the past 35 years. Online training resources may provide further information for potential materials for agencies to purchase.

Printing Materials & Resources

Customized citizen's academy materials may be locally printed. Many agencies have vendors that are contracted for printing other job-sensitive materials, such as training or agency policy publishing. A small agency may find that these materials may be produced easily "in-house" using paid staff, cadets, volunteers, or job shadowing personnel from local high school programs. With the use of modern desktop publishing computer software programs, many locally produced academy materials have a finished, professional appearance at modest expense. Worksheets,

quizzes, and other documentation may be acquired using already available computer programs.

Professional presentations are easily completed using programs such as *Microsoft PowerPoint*. Academy course programs, once developed, may be reused for future sessions with different staff members presenting the same materials with little continuity problems. Presentations ranging from department mission statements to use-of-force continuums may be used over and over making them cost-effective.

Human Resources

The most successful citizen's academies are those that utilize agency staff to conduct the instruction, giving both the officer and the civilian an opportunity to interact in a mutual learning atmosphere. Many officers have particular areas of expertise with which they are more comfortable than other officers, and officers should be assigned where they are best utilized. A range officer would be more informative in discussing range safety and firearms handling than the DARE officer might be. Likewise, an experienced investigator would provide better information and instruction in an exercise of dusting an item for latent fingerprints than a canine officer could.

“Outsourcing” Human Resources

Outside speakers are also good resources to inform the civilian students about areas of particular interest. Local experts in domestic violence and child abuse provide much depth in these fields. Area law enforcement officials may be called upon to address their areas of expertise, such as major case investigations, clandestine drug lab investigations, gang activity, and other crime-related topics. Local elected officials and dignitaries such as the local coroner, sheriff, state's attorney, and judges may be approached to offer some instruction about particular areas of community crime concerns. Many of these allied professionals appreciate the opportunity to voice their opinion on current trends, crime statistics, arrests, convictions, and so on that are of interest to the students. Scheduling these speakers when the class will be focusing on their topic presents students with a full picture of the nature of the crime in the community as well as allowing the agency staff time off.

The Training Setting

While larger police agencies have training facilities or at least a training room in which the academy class can meet for the classroom discussion and training films, smaller agencies don't usually have such a resource available to them. For the academy situation to be successful, the training should be done in a well-lit, professional setting, preferably away from the police agency to avoid the interruptions common to the work setting. The staff should explore what facilities are available for the appropriate time schedule for the entire program to avoid appearing ill-prepared and unprofessional. If the students are willing to give their free time for this program, the administration owes them the courtesy of being professionally prepared and equipped.

City commission rooms or other public meeting rooms may provide adequate room with furnishings and equipment already in place at no expense for hosting the classroom instruction of citizen academies. Other housing resources are public

libraries, YMCAs, private industry training facilities, or other public or private facilities. An additional benefit of using public facilities may be that the audio-video equipment may already be in place and is available with little or no preparation.

Private facilities and grounds may be used when the appropriate partnering agreements have been established between the agency and the private sector organization. Usually proof of special event insurance or a signed waiver of liability is sufficient. The administration should always seek council with the local legal representative on such issues.

In communities where these resources may not be adequate, public or private schools or community and university outreach resource centers may have the space and equipment available. These usually are readily accessible, and as tax-supported entities they share local tax revenues and are typically amenable to collaborations with local agencies.

Partnering with a local college or nearby university may also provide the academy with credibility and prestige as well as providing students and staff with the opportunity of garnering credit hours if the program falls into one of the school of higher learning's recommended curriculum. An additional benefit of developing a program that is accreditable to a local college or university may be the sharing of physical resources such as printing, materials, and videotape materials.

Fiscal Resources & Budgeting

The small agency administrator would be well advised to keep an eye on the hidden costs to develop and produce a citizen's academy. The administration must be informed as to the costs of producing the program as well as considering the costs of donated time and associated in-kind contributions. This fiscal management keeps the program viable while helping staff and management determine the cost-effectiveness of the program as well as the benefits from better community relations for the agency. Maintaining good fiscal records may be a vital key for possible grants available to sustain the program's future.

Good management of resources in the program may also induce funds from outside sources. Many civic and service clubs look for ways to assist and develop projects within their community. These groups may be a resource for funding to offset costs associated with materials and mailing expenses of the citizen's academy.

Occasionally, citizen's academy alumni organizations develop wherein the former students promote projects and fundraisers in the local area that benefits the police efforts towards furthering crime prevention, drug abuse awareness, or the citizen's academy project itself. Some of these organizations develop awareness that citizens can make a difference in their community.

Concerns, Considerations, and Caveats of Citizen's Academies

Although there are many benefits of a citizen's academy for an agency, there are also some potential pitfalls that should be avoided. There may be applicants to the citizen's academy that have ulterior motives for attempting to participate in the

program. These hidden agendas may stem from people who wish to embarrass the agency due to personal or political motives.

Proper background investigations of applicants could uncover grievances or inappropriate relationships that could present unnecessary complications or disruptions to the citizen's academy. Good background investigations can prevent lost classroom time.

In-depth background investigations will prevent conflicts that program facilitators may experience if they are called on to instruct a group that may include a person with whom the officer might have dealt with professionally. Are there former relationships (professional or personal) that might present situations or complications for staff during discussions or instruction? Staff should elect to forgo teaching a session if there is a student that presents a possible conflict of interest.

In order to protect the department from potential litigation, the department's legal representative should draft a waiver of harm and indemnity for each student to release the agency from unforeseen harm, injury, or accidents.

Students with special needs and physical considerations should have the appropriate accommodations when necessary. Students should never be treated officiously or forced to participate in activities that they are uncomfortable performing. Staff must continually consider safety and well-being foremost in working with the attendees.

One way to offset unproductive, uncomfortable, or sensitive comments and questions is to develop a set of "ground rules." One rule might suggest ongoing, sensitive, or controversial matters that tend to disrupt the program will not be allowed. Repeated or continual outbursts by students may be grounds for removal from the program.

Problems may arise from within the agency that should be considered before inaugurating the program. These may stem from staff compensation, shortcomings in staff development, or potential conflicts of interest. The chief should discuss and agree upon the remuneration or compensation of staff for their participation. The program should not create a negative impact on budget and not conflict with any bargaining unit agreements or contracts.

Staff should restrict remarks to the job task being explained and not offer personal remarks about political or other potentially volatile issues. Naturally, all staff must be warned about inappropriate remarks of questionable or harassing nature. Staff should be experienced and thoroughly indoctrinated into the benefits of the program before assignment. It should be made known in writing as well as in demeanor that inappropriate remarks will not be condoned from staff or from students/attendees. All staff should be admonished to maintain the highest level of professionalism at all times in the academy setting. Arguing with students or attendees will not be condoned; neither will bullying or exhibiting "drill instructor" behavior toward the students. Political opinions from staff or students should be avoided as these detract from the professional presentation of the topic of the class.

Standards for personal safety and professional conduct should mirror those of the department. Students will be closely monitored at all times by staff while doing any ride-alongs or in any hands-on activity that they might be performing.

Conclusion

Citizen's academies have become a valuable tool for agencies to build partnerships with the citizens in the communities they protect and serve. These training venues have been used to great success in larger jurisdictions. The benefits for small agencies are just as viable. When used as a vehicle to develop community-oriented policing, citizen's academies can provide a proactive opportunity to educate the public about what the department does and why. These "grass-roots" cores of interested citizens help make the agency's objectives, mission, and goals known to the community at large. In so doing, they become active partners in the effort to build strong community-police relationships, and they can help to identify and bolster those areas in which the agency needs improved community-coalition building.

Citizen's academies are an investment in community relations but also an investment in personnel and staff. When police agencies, like their individual officers, see the resultant positive feedback from the citizens they work with and train in these academies, they are reintroduced to those they were sworn to protect and serve.

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Tom A. Boren began his law enforcement career in Kansas in 1977. His first position was as a police officer/EMT in the rural community of Fredonia, where he worked for five years before being hired at Coffeyville, Kansas.

While at Coffeyville, Boren held the various positions of patrol sergeant, detective sergeant, captain, and finally deputy chief of that agency of 28 officers.

While pursuing his career, Chief Boren has always strived to become a better-prepared police professional by actively pursuing formal, informal, and specialized training and education. Chief Boren was awarded an associate's from Syracuse University for his studies of criminal forensics; he holds a bachelor's degree in human resource management. Boren has completed many business administration and police-related studies and is a graduate of

the FBI's National Academy. Boren is a certified crime prevention specialist from the Crime Prevention Institute of the University of Kentucky at Louisville. He has also completed the International City Management Association's Local Law Enforcement Management Program.

Chief Boren completed the Northwest University Traffic Institute's Executive Management Program, a comprehensive management program including 120 hours of classroom and independent studies to hone police executive skills.

Boren has also served as a police trainer and has had articles relating to crime prevention and police training published; he has taught courses at two community colleges on law enforcement topics. He is currently certified by the state of Illinois to train officers in domestic violence investigation. He is a member of the American Society of Law Enforcement Trainers and is a member of the International Association of Ethics Trainers, the world's largest provider of ethics training within law enforcement and corrections.

Chief Boren moved to Illinois in 1997, taking the position of Chief of Police in Paris, Illinois where he was until August 2000 when he accepted the position of chief of police in Olney, Illinois.

In February 2000, Chief Boren applied for and was certified as one of the first 12 certified police chiefs, recognized by the Illinois Association of Chiefs of Police. He successfully completed the arduous process involving a detailed background investigation, comprehensive examination, and oral interview with a panel of other police administration leaders and executives.

Aside from his professional duties, he has served on many local boards and civic groups in the various communities in which he has served. He has been active in efforts to reduce domestic violence and helped coordinate various youth crime prevention projects.

Building Community Partnerships for Effective Community Policing

Frank E. Williams, Chief of Police

Introduction

Early in our country's history, before the existence of professional police agencies, members of a community worked together to protect one another and solve crime problems. Citizens had an active role in protecting their towns from crime and disorder. Citizens then and today know better than anyone what is going on in their communities and what problems need to be solved.

Community policing is based on this historical perspective of the police and the community working together. Working in partnership with the police, members of the community can assist in maintaining order. Today, police agencies are focused on more than security. The concern is the fear of crime, improvement in the quality of life, and empowerment of communities and police departments.

Involving the Community

Community policing is an organization-wide philosophy and management approach. It promotes partnership, proactive problem solving, and community engagement to address the causes of crime, the fear of crime, and other community issues. Today, community involvement is vital and necessary in order for community policing to succeed. The community can assist the police by alerting them to suspicious persons or activities and reporting conditions that lead to community deterioration. Members of the community can support the police by answering citizen satisfaction surveys and providing group approval and support of specific police and community activities. Community support is needed, for example, to legitimize innovative strategies often needed to eliminate conditions that create crime and disorder. Communities need to participate in programs that take a visible position such as "National Night Out Against Crime" and "Neighborhood Watch." When a community is organized and works together, it has a dramatic impact, and positive results occur. In Wood Dale, a community of 13,400, located west of Chicago, Illinois, this community partnership is evident in several ways. The police department fostered monthly citizen advisory boards and five focus groups to meet and discuss problems and share resources. These groups consist of the following:

- **Community Assistance Council (CAC)**

Representatives of the community, schools, fire and police departments, churches, city government, park district, library, businesses, civic groups, and residents meet to discuss and find solutions to social problems in the Wood Dale community. This council sponsors youth development programs and parent training programs and provides the means to evaluate current approaches to community problems. The partnerships provide the community and police with different perspectives and ideas for dealing with gangs, violence prevention, and substance abuse. Having

a council of this type existing in the community has qualified the city to receive community grants of several types.

- **Seniors and Law Enforcement Together (SALT)**

Senior residents of Wood Dale work together with the police and fire departments to develop programs and utilize community resources to address specific issues that impact older citizens. The senior council conducts senior surveys, sponsors senior programs and meetings, organizes volunteer efforts, and provides a voice and means for seniors to connect to available resources and services. Ward meeting and homeowner associations meet with police to discuss problems and concerns. Police and city officials get direct feedback and information on quality-of-life issues, neighborhood concerns, traffic, gangs, noise complaints, and ways to provide better police and city services.

- **Citizen Corp**

Citizens are encouraged to participate in local neighborhood meetings organized by the police department and residents. Additional information for joining or starting is available at <www.citizencorp.gov>. We have also joined VIP volunteers in policing; for more information, see <www.policevolunteers.org>. The group has three committees.

1. Volunteer Committee – These persons that work in the police department assisting with records, evidence, and special projects.
2. Community Emergency Response Team (CERT) – These persons have completed the citizen police academy and the federal course to assist police in a disaster or with large crowds and special events like parades.
3. Community Watch Committee – These citizens are involved in crime prevention programs, crime analysis, citizen patrol, and citizen traffic watch.

Training for the Citizen Corp members includes lifesaving skills, safety information, terrorism awareness, and other law enforcement initiatives. We have bimonthly meetings and committee meetings between the bimonthly meetings.

Citizen Corps – General Goals

- To establish a prevention partnership between local law enforcement, Wood Dale citizens, and emergency services using support services on the county, state, and national level
- To provide immediate and important information directly to our citizens on current and future disaster and terrorism planning, crime prevention, and awareness
- To encourage law enforcement and citizens to work together to adopt and use information and training available and to create an involvement and awareness

of potential problems and concerns facing our nation, state, DuPage County, and the city

- To utilize committed community volunteers in efforts to prevent, prepare for, and respond to disasters and special community concerns. Keep officers on the street by using volunteers to do office details, evidence processing, and crime analysis

- **Community Resource Coordinator**

This individual facilitates resident and youth community programs; provides assistance connecting to community, township, county, state, and federal help resources; and provides after-school programs at the community resource center.

- **Community-Policing Committee**

Each month, officers on the department who have requested to serve on the Community Policing Committee meet to discuss problems and concerns about crime, traffic, equipment, or operations. Working as a group, they do strategic planning and problem solving. Their involvement is structured by two department directives that include a problem-solving matrix, the "Blueprint Framework," and the "Blueprint Action Plan." These models are taken from the U.S. Agency for International Development's website at <www.usaid.gov> and were recommended for adoption by national community-policing programs.

In addition, the department facilitates neighborhood meetings, which focus on local problems and bringing law enforcement closer to the people who are served. Community members can donate time and support to community crime prevention or awareness programs. Citizens are needed for action groups to support local efforts against domestic violence, homelessness, and alcohol and substance abuse. Citizens can work with private and public agencies to provide positive programs for youth and to help schools provide adequate learning opportunities. They can be used to report suspicious activity and conditions, being the eyes and ears of the police.

Development of Departmental Philosophy

The role of the police is the encouragement of community involvement. Efforts made by informal partnerships may be enough to enable the community to effectively deal with problems and prevent crime. Communication and direct contact with citizens starts the process of awareness. Education on what can work creates opportunities for involvement. Community groups have been successful in getting government to set priorities and take action on conditions that encourage or allow community disorder or crime. Citizen focus groups operate as advisory boards to help government know what residents believe are the problems. The majority of citizens in a community are not always willing or able to be involved in an active partnership with police. In some cases, citizens do not see problems or get involved except in times of crisis; they tend to stop supporting group efforts after the crisis or problem becomes manageable.

Police know crime cannot be fought alone and that people have information police do not. Efforts must include active participation from the citizens in our communities. How can community resources and assets be used to help solve problems? Communities are usually made up of neighborhoods. A neighborhood is made up of from 50 to 1,000 people with 500 being the optimal number. A community, based on current research, is a group from 5,000 to 10,000 people consisting of a collection of neighborhoods. This means that it may be virtually impossible for a modern city to become a single community.

To be a “real community” requires some specific characteristics. A community needs to share goals and objectives that are supported by common values and common direction. A true sense of community is about sharing commitment, cooperation, trust, justice, empowerment, adaptability, and concern for each other. These are values acclaimed by many but achieved by few.

Communities need to see accomplishments in the form of visible successes, measurable goals, plans, or strategies. The community needs the ability to resolve conflict and to adapt to changing situations. Successful community partnerships need support in the form of education and training on community values, assistance in decisionmaking, and organization. Community building is a process requiring a lot of work and effort.

Police must understand the community they serve if they want to be successful. Police agencies; when formulating strategic plans, mission statements, or goals; need to help communities create a vision and understand what roles community organizations and government want them to play in the partnership.

Police agencies must be aware not only of the problems in the communities, but also of the resources available to help solve those problems. In the book *Building Communities from the Inside Out; A Path Toward Finding and Mobilizing a Community's Assets*, Kretzmann (1993) explains, “Communities can be looked at as places with problems and needs, or communities can be seen as having a variety of capacities and assets, which can be utilized to address problems and concerns.”

Every community is different and has its own priorities and problems. Each community boasts unique assets to build its future such as local institutions, citizen associations, and individuals who can volunteer services and resources. Public and private agencies can focus efforts in the direction of common community needs. Police can determine what resources exist and are available in the community to use to help them solve problems.

Police departments can work with the community and form relationships based on the following criteria:

- *Awareness*: The police and community must be aware of the real problems. For this to occur, the community must be an active part of the information gathering process. What are the real issues on concern in the community? Are the police focused on these issues? Community members and police officers need to be aware of the resources and assets that can be utilized to solve problems.

- *Understanding:* Both the police departments and the community must understand what really works and what does not. The role of the police and the community is evolving. Many innovative approaches exist, involving community partnership. Outstanding results can be achieved with community policing.
- *Involvement:* The key to solving our problems is the community and the police working together. All aspects of communities must work together cooperating toward common solutions—prosecutors, educators, media, religious leaders, business people, and homeowners. Everyone in the community has a role, and all need to be involved.

When organized into coalitions, citizens can collaborate and share abilities, resources, and insight, helping law enforcement efforts go much further to reduce problems and have a real impact on crime and disorder.

Law Enforcement's Role

Citizens need to be encouraged to participate in their rightful roles. They must voice concerns and provide direction and insight. Community policing needs leadership from the community and the police agency. Leaders must emerge from neighborhoods, institutions, and organizations. Police agencies must take a more active role in encouraging partnership development with communities. The law enforcement role in community development can include many efforts:

- Helping to create a community-wide approach by moving the role beyond just responding to calls for service is essential. Reactive deployment must be balanced with a proactive response.
- Get representatives from all parts of the community to meet and discuss problems and solutions. Getting citizens together and focusing on common problems and issues provides direction and insight.
- Measure success of efforts and give recognition for community involvement. Success needs to be shared, and recognition for achievement creates community pride.
- Access resources—local, county, state, and national—that can help solve problems. A wealth of services, programs, and resources are available. Police can assist in helping citizens connect to available resources.
- Encourage community resource groups to participate in and be involved in problem solving. Community groups exist to provide help and assistance to the community. Police can help provide ideas for projects and programs to be funded.
- Apply for grants or partnership grants and funding to improve community welfare.

When a community adopts community policing, it means that the police department is a full-service policing agency. The traditional reactive-only mode, that provided police for emergency calls and services when citizens requested help, is no longer

good enough. Community policing requires new approaches and new training of officers. The eight principles of community policing—accountability, change, trust, vision, empowerment, leadership, equity, and service—require agencies to recruit a different kind of officer who can embrace this new philosophy. The National Community Policing Consortium, which is a partnership of the International Association of Chiefs of Police; the National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives; the National Sheriff's Association; the Police Research Forum; and the Police Foundation funded by the U.S. Department of Justice and Office of Community-Oriented Policing Service suggests several guidelines for making the necessary changes to transition to community policing. One of these suggestions is in recruitment and selection of officers. Several departments have changed the way they hire since they have adopted the community-policing philosophy.

In policing, we should be hiring the full-service officer. We need officers who can handle emergency calls, be proactive, and be coactive.

The proactive mode of community policing uses crime prevention, directed patrol, and crime analysis to complement police-initiated activities and investigations.

The coactive mode, which began in the early 1980s, focuses on citizen and police partnerships. When working together with the community, conditions are identified, problems are resolved, and responses are developed.

When a police agency is coactive, it facilitates community involvement and partnerships and enables and empowers the community. Our community-policing approach qualified the police department to receive state and federal grants. Our community assistance council served as a board of directors for programs that were funded with grant monies. These programs included the following:

- **Character Counts:** This is the way many communities across our county work together to promote good character-building by emphasizing the core ethical values rooted in our democratic society, specifically respect, responsibility, trustworthiness, caring, fairness, and citizenship. It began in 1993 by the Josephson Institute of Ethics. Police, schools, churches, park districts, and fire protection districts meet to discuss projects and ideas to make these values part of community life. Police and all public officials receive special training and emphasize treating youth and each other based on these values. The Wood Dale Police Department has adopted the program and has decals on all squad cards to remind the officer and citizen that we support the “six pillars” or values of Character Counts.
- **Life Skills:** This is a comprehensive program based on the latest research. It addresses all of the most important factors that lead adolescents to use one or more drugs by teaching a combination of health information, general life skills, and drug resistance skills. Its effectiveness has been documented by over 15 years of evaluation research. The U.S. Department of Justice offered 90% funding, and Wood Dale was able to obtain this funding for training instructors to present the program in our junior high.
- **Functional Family Therapy (FFT):** This is an outcome-driven family therapy, not just family crisis counseling. It provides an assessment and family problem

solving with a plan. The therapy focuses on cognitive and emotional components necessary to change antisocial behavior. It is effective because it emphasizes protective factors that reduce risks. It is reactive focusing on youth who have demonstrated antisocial behaviors, proactive in preventing problems, and coactive by involving the family system. This program meets the national standards set by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Wood Dale was one of two communities in Illinois that implemented this program with federal grant funding as part of our community-policing program.

- **School Resource Officer (SRO):** This is a national program available to all communities for the U.S. Department of Justice COPS program.
- **Peer Jury:** This program requires a school and police partnership and keeps minor cases out of the formal criminal justice system and builds strong relationship with youth. The youth, referred by an arresting officer and accompanied at all steps by one or both parents, must admit guilt and take responsibility for his or her actions as a condition of entering the program.

These efforts have contributed to improving the quality of life in our community by offering proven cost-effective programs that were recommended by the Department of Justice because of their documented results. The grant funds were provided to get these programs started. The coactive partnership has enabled the community to continue the programs by sharing resources and cost. The School Resource Officer, for example, was funded 75% the first year, then 50%, and finally 25% by the federal COPS grant. The high school agreed to pay for the first three years to supplement the grant, and when the grant ended, they agreed to pay for the officer's total salary for the time in the school. The program has been so successful in providing security (reactive), prevention (proactive), and partnership (coactive) that we are attempting to put another officer in our junior high and three elementary schools on a shared plan. The officer would, for example, spend two days in the junior high and a day at each of the other schools. We believe that an additional School Resource Officer would be a community benefit and are looking to the school district to help fund the position.

The Character Counts program continues with each public agency providing its own resources to continue to make this a community-wide effort.

The Life Skills program is being considered as an alternative to the DARE program. In 2002, the school district announced that it could no longer accept DARE since it focuses on only one grade and is not a nationally recognized prevention program. We are in the process of using the Life Skills program, which is a nationally approved program and parts of the DARE program, with the School Resource Officer program, to develop a new partnership with our schools.

Functional Family Therapy is another program that will continue in our community. The police social service program personnel received training, and four police agencies will contribute to the funding now that the grant has ended. Our police social services have gone from a reactive police social service program to a proactive, coactive program.

Conclusion

Police and community problem solving is a major aspect of community policing. Using proven research methods and approaches to problem-solving to determine solutions requires research and planning.

Many resources and guides are available from state and national community-policing sources. The Illinois Regional Institute for Community Policing offers a free problem-solving planner. The planner uses the SARA model to solve problems based on scanning, analysis, response, and assessment.

The Community Policing Consortium administered and funded by the U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Community-Oriented Policing Services offers training and assistance in developing your community-policing program. Policing is more than achieving low crime rates or responding to emergency calls. The police must provide security for the community to ensure life, liberty, and property is protected. Citizens must be free of the fear of having life disrupted or destroyed. We must work to protect our citizens against criminals who assault, rape, rob, steal, burglarize, extort, murder, and sell drugs. It also requires that the police protect against those conditions and problems associated with crime and the fear of crime such as graffiti, unkept property, petty crime, traffic violations, and other quality-of-life issues.

The most efficient and effective way to meet current demand for service is to have the officers who serve these areas to be capable of interpreting the needs and delivering the appropriate type of response. When we view community policing as full-service policing, management must train and prepare officers to use existing community resources more effectively and efficiently. Working with citizens to develop innovative or unique approaches to stop crime and prevent it from occurring has proven highly effective. New policy and procedures need to be adopted in regard to implementation of community policing.

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www.usdog.gov/cops

www.policing.com

Frank E. Williams began his police career in 1971, after serving four years in the Air Force as S/Sgt. He has served as a range master, police community relations coordinator, defensive tactics instructor, street sergeant, detective sergeant, and administrative assistant to the chief of police until 1976 when he was appointed chief of police. He received his bachelor's degree from Aurora University and his master's degree in administration of justice from Webster University. Chief Williams received a National Leadership Fellowship from Boston University for community substance abuse prevention in 1993.

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

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