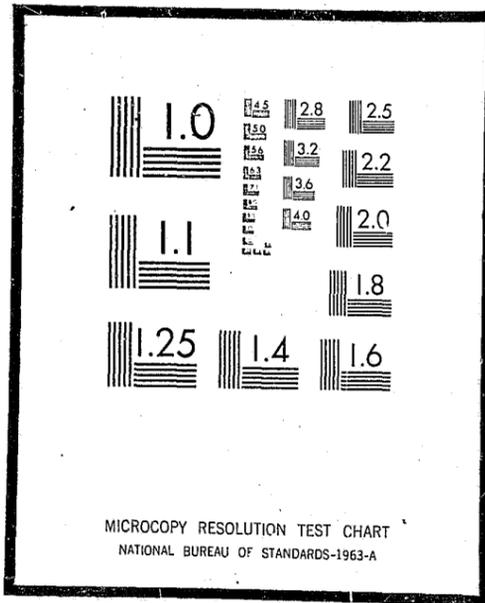


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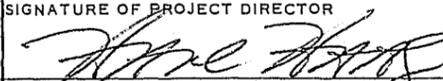
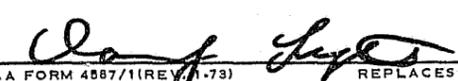
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EXPIRATION DATE 6-30-74

 U. S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION		DISCRETIONARY GRANT PROGRESS REPORT	
GRANTEE	LEAA GRANT NO.	DATE OF REPORT	REPORT NO.
Multnomah County, Oregon	74-DF-10-0107	Jan. 6, 1976	0008
IMPLEMENTING SUBGRANTEE	TYPE OF REPORT		
District Attorney's Office	<input type="checkbox"/> REGULAR QUARTERLY <input type="checkbox"/> SPECIAL REQUEST <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> FINAL REPORT		
SHORT TITLE OF PROJECT	GRANT AMOUNT		
DA's IMPACT PROJECT	\$394,517		
REPORT IS SUBMITTED FOR THE PERIOD	10-1-73	THROUGH	9-30-75
SIGNATURE OF PROJECT DIRECTOR	TYPED NAME & TITLE OF PROJECT DIRECTOR		
	Harl Haas, District Attorney		
COMMENCE REPORT HERE (Add continuation pages as required.)			
<p><u>FINAL REPORT</u></p> <p>This is the final report of the District Attorney's High Impact Project. The grant was awarded in October, 1973, for a two-year period, ending September 30, 1975. The results have been noteworthy and have some strong implications about the ability of medium to large sized prosecutor's offices to successfully implement a no-plea bargaining program. Although final validation will not be completed until early 1976, it is suspected that there will be no substantial difference in what the preliminary evaluation reported.</p> <p>NO-PLEA BARGAINING" POLICY</p> <p>The project's first task was to determine an operating definition for what constituted "no plea bargaining." Conceptually, any compromise between prosecutor and defendant is construed as a bargain, each party affording the other an advantage of some kind. The prosecutor will get a conviction and save expensive legal time and the defendant reduces both his risk and legal bill. A problem arises when the con-</p>			
RECEIVED BY GRANTEE STATE PLANNING AGENCY (Official)			DATE
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cept is placed in the context of a program designed to eliminate it. The nature of some of the advantages is not easily recognized or very visible as the bargaining process is a function of individual motivations, values, and goals., Neither side can ever really quite know what the other's advantage was, making it difficult to determine precisely what the bargain was.

The problem Impact confronted was, then, how to interpret "no-plea negotiations" in a manner that was uniform, consistent, amenable to evaluation, and comprehensive enough to envelope most of what is generally considered to be plea bargaining. After much discussion, all the participants agreed that the most useful definition, and the one most usually criticized, would be those bargains which reduce the criminal charge in return for a plea of guilty.

There were several reasons for this. First, the Court's Task Force to the 1967 President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice had stated, "The plea agreement follows several patterns. In its best known form it is an arrangement between the prosecutor and the defendant or his lawyer whereby the accused pleads guilty to a charge less serious than could be proven at trial." "Less serious" normally means a charge which statutorily carries a lower maximum penalty.

Another blue-ribbon panel, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, had recommended outright abolition of plea negotiation. Although it never explicitly stated what a negotiation was, throughout the text were references to their concern about overcharging, inappropriately charging, and charges not corres-

ponding to what the prosecutor felt he could prosecute, strongly implying their concern was directed at the charge reduction bargain.

Thirdly, the practice of reducing the criminal charge manifests more real and potential abuses of the plea bargaining process than any other form. Some of these are:

- a) An innocent defendant may be more inclined to accept a conviction of a lesser offense than asserting the right of trial and risking possible conviction of the original charge and the accompanying publicity.
- b) The chronic offender can take full advantage of a charge reduction bargain to realize excessively lenient treatment.
- c) The defendant is not convicted on the basis of the evidence but on such factors as time, money, and personnel available.

Finally, the important evaluation criteria necessitated a quantifiable measure by which the absence of plea negotiation could be validated. Cases which were issued and subsequently reduced would be readily apparent in the progress reports. Percentages could be obtained and comparisons made which would be otherwise impossible or so complex as to make them undecipherable.

As part of the operating term "plea bargaining," the project was allowed to dismiss ancillary charges. Prosecuting an individual on every count was not deemed essential to either the interest of the

community or justice as long as the central criminal charge (Burglary I, Robbery I, Theft I) remained intact. A chronic offender's conviction of the central charge was viewed as a significant achievement, to pursue convictions for additional criminal charges - where the sentences would most probably be served concurrently - did not seem to be a rational distribution of the project's resources. However, there were exceptions, particularly in cases of additional serious and violent offenses.

NARRATIVE OF LEGAL ACTIVITIES AND CASE PROCESSING

The first concern was proper police education. In order that the quality of cases be enhanced, an effective investigatory evidence-gathering police force was a necessity. Numerous classes and meetings were held to assist police in meeting project investigatory requirements. The unit taught a number of classes aimed at providing the policing agencies with the requisite skills for drafting of search warrants and accompanying affidavits. This proved worthwhile as it resulted in a substantial saving of time for staff attorneys who could more effectively direct their efforts to other endeavors.

The unit attorneys also attempted to gain more effective backup of clerical staff by providing an intensive training into all facets of case preparation and ultimate disposition. All non-professional office personnel not only attended and learned from the classes, but were allowed numerous exposures to courtroom activity. This resulted in greater enthusiasm and effectiveness in the performance of their tasks.

Educational activities were not just reserved for non-professional staff as various staff attorneys had special projects under study for the exclusive purpose of increasing the unit's collective knowledge in various areas. For example, several staff attorneys have participated in the creation of a unique jury instruction book which comprehensively covered the target crimes. Some innovative instructions were included in the book which helped greatly in a number of jury cases.

To insure uniformity of sentence recommendations, the staff attorneys have met on a periodic schedule to discuss their own respective cases with other staff attorneys for the purpose of reaching a unit recommendation as to appropriate sentences.

Several members of the unit participated in a unique and novel approach to the State's Theft in the First Degree statute. A local police agency had purchased a number of television sets from a supplier and then proceeded through the use of undercover officers to sell this equipment to various individuals after having represented that the television sets were stolen. A number of test cases resulted. The main issue centered on the applicability of the theft statute to the character of the property. A large number of convictions were obtained in the trial court and upon appeal, the State's Court of Appeals held an individual could attempt to purchase items represented to be stolen which were in fact not stolen and thus be guilty of Attempted Theft in the First Degree, assuming other general requirements of the statute were met.

The unit has also uniformly requested trial judges to order restitution for all crime victims.

The project did undergo attack on constitutional grounds wherein a defendant alleged that by having been charged with committing a target crime, he was denied due process and equal protection through the project's selective no-plea bargaining policy. This attack was unsuccessful in the State trial court and, upon appeal, was equally unsuccessful in the State Supreme Court.

The unit's vertical case handling, that is the process by which a prosecutor in the project handles a case from start to finish, resulted in several added benefits. With sufficient time to devote to a case, staff attorneys were able to use the Grand Jury to its fullest extent. Learning early the names of adverse or alibi witnesses, these people would be summoned by subpoena to testify at the Grand Jury. This provided the attorneys with the opportunity to preview the defense case and, on many occasions, to destroy false and sometimes hastily put together defenses. Another advantage resulted through the increased opportunity to interview witnesses not only prior to trial but even prior to the preliminary hearing. In the State's District Court, all preliminary hearing proceedings are tape recorded. Therefore, it is an essential ingredient to proper preparation that witnesses perfectly understand the nature of the preliminary hearing proceeding and what information the staff attorney will need to elicit. Having the opportunity to sit down with the witnesses in advance and review important facts led to greater trial convictions and increased pleas of guilty.

The unit sought to clarify some of the fringe areas in search and seizure law and in cooperation with local police agencies, assisted in

drafting and ultimately defending affidavits supporting search warrants for property alleged to be stolen but not specifically identified as stolen from a particular individual or place. The project did succeed on a limited basis with this type of affidavit and warrant drafting. In another test area, police officers had gone to a residence in search of specific items of stolen property and discovered approximately \$40,000 worth of additional items which appeared to be but were not at the time known to be stolen. A local District Court judge was requested to come to the scene. Based upon his viewing of the additional items, he verbally authorized further seizure of the suspected items.

Processing the Case

Each weekday morning an arrest docket arrives notifying the unit's attorney of new cases. Shortly thereafter, representatives of the local police agencies arrive with all information known about the respective arrests to the unit office for review. If all necessary preliminary investigation had been completed, the staff attorney issues a formal complaint called an Information of Felony. Later in the afternoon, the defendant is arraigned on this Information of Felony, counsel is obtained and a date set for a preliminary hearing within five days of the defendant's arrest. At this point the subpoena clerk sends out notices to necessary witnesses to appear in advance shortly before the preliminary hearing. Concurrently, police investigation and case preparation continues at a rapid pace.

At the time of the preliminary hearing, the unit attorney presents evidence that a crime was committed and that there was probable cause

to believe that the defendant committed the crime. Upon being satisfied of the above, the District Court judge then binds the case over to the Grand Jury or, at the unit attorney's discretion, allows the case to proceed directly to Circuit Court. During the maximum permissible period of thirty days, the unit attorney has the opportunity to present witnesses to the Grand Jury including anticipated defense witnesses. Upon the return of an indictment, or if the case was sent directly to Circuit Court bypassing the Grand Jury, the defendant is arraigned on the now formal charge in Circuit Court. A date is set for a pre-trial conference and trial. The court seeks to set trial within sixty days of the defendant's initial arrest. At the pre-trial conference, the staff attorney, defense attorney and defendant exchange information for purposes of trial which includes disclosure of all the names and addresses of witnesses intended to be called by either side. During this stage, many defendants elect to plead guilty to the charge. Those convicted by plea or trial are sentenced approximately thirty days thereafter.

Between the time of conviction and sentencing, a federally-funded diagnostic center psychologically evaluates the defendant and completes a thorough investigation and background account for the court. At sentencing the staff attorney informs the court of any relevant facts in the case and makes recommendations on sentence and asks for restitution for the crime victim. If the defendant receives probation and is later alleged to have violated the conditions of probation, the unit attorney will be present at the revocation hearing participating as an advocate. Finally, the unit communicates to the parole board on

all defendants sentenced to the state penitentiary or correctional institutions.

In summary, the staff attorney has an excellent opportunity in the program to understand, properly prepare, and prosecute defendants for serious and violent crimes committed. With complete control over evidence gathering and witness preparation, the project has functioned as a successful and viable member of the criminal justice system.

COMPARISON OF ACCOMPLISHMENTS TO STATED GOALS

Overall, stated goals included: (A) Improvement of the quality of cases prior to trial by providing legal advice and case assistance to police investigators, (B) speedy and appropriate prosecution of target crime, and (C) reduction of negotiated pleas in cases involving specific Impact crimes.

To assist in the definition and achievement of the above goals, certain objectives were assigned as criteria for evaluation of unit success. They were as follows:

Objective 1: Maintain an original charge conviction rate of 85%.

For the first six months of operation, the unit noted that 65% of all burglary cases prosecuted pled guilty to the original charge. This was a substantial increase over the 27% noted in comparison burglary cases prosecuted in the central District Attorney's Office. Further, 77% of the burglary cases prosecuted by the unit resulted in guilty pleas to the original charge or went to trial and were found guilty, compared to 34% original charge convictions of the comparison burglary cases prosecuted. In the robbery category,

53% of the case population prosecuted pled guilty to the original charge. Overall, 65% pled guilty to the charge or were found guilty at trial. Fifty percent of the Theft in the First Degree cases pled to the charge and an additional 20% were found guilty at trial.

Summarizing the three categories, it is noted that 58% of the cases prosecuted by the unit have pled guilty to the original charge.

This displaced a significant contrast with the 24% pleading to the original charge of the comparison offenses handled by the central District Attorney's Office.

Seventy-one percent of the Impact cases were convicted to the original charge either at a trial or by plea. This compares favorably with 31% convicted in such a manner by the main office while plea bargains accounted for the remaining 47% of the main office convictions record.

Objective 2: Maintain an original charge conviction rate 50% higher than the rate of comparison group prosecutions.

The combined total of burglary and robbery cases handled during the first six months of operation as compared to offenses of burglary not in a dwelling, Burglary in the Second Degree and Robbery in the Second Degree cases handled by the main office shows a substantially greater proportion of cases handled by the Impact unit were pled guilty to the original charge. Fifty-nine percent pled to the original charge as compared to 24% of comparison cases.

Objective 3: To maintain a rate of negotiated pleas of less than 5%.

Only 3% of the cases prosecuted by the unit were pled pursuant to bargain during the first eight project months. This favorable

rate was below the stated objective of 5%. By comparison, 47% of the cases of Burglary not in a dwelling, Burglary in the Second Degree and Robbery in the Second Degree, prosecuted by the central District Attorney's Office, were pled pursuant to bargain.

Objective 4: To increase by 50% the rate of guilty pleas to the original charge over 1972 figures for the selected target offenses.

Sixty-five percent of the burglary cases handled by the unit resulted in guilty pleas to the original charge as compared to 7% garnered in years 1972 and 1973. Fifty-three percent of the robbery cases handled by the unit pled guilty to the original charge during the six-month period as compared to only 10% prosecuted in 1972 and 1973 by the main office. A nonsignificant difference in the proportion of cases pleading to the original charge of Theft in the First Degree as handled by the unit compared to the cases prosecuted by the main office was noted.

Objective 5: To maintain a rate of cases dismissed due to insufficient evidence 50% lower than for the comparison offenses.

Twelve percent of burglary cases handled by the unit resulted in dismissal contrasted to 15% of the comparison cases resulting in a nonsignificant difference. In the robbery category, a significant difference was noted as only 16% of Robbery in the First Degree cases were dismissed as compared to 50% of the Robbery in the Second Degree cases handled by the main office. Therefore, in this category, the objective was obtained.

Objective 6: Maintain an arrest to trial period equal to the comparison offense cases.

Virtually no difference existed in the median number of days from arrest to trial between comparison and unit cases; 51 days in the Impact office compared to 50 days for the central office.

In summary, a noticeable improvement of case quality resulted as substantiated by the preliminary evaluation statistics. Effective and appropriate prosecution of target crimes was provided by the unit. There were no significant decreases in the amount of time needed for processing an Impact case. The unit was most successful in reducing negotiated pleas in all categories of target crimes.

PROBLEMS, OBSTACLES AND THEIR SOLUTIONS

Impact's objective of effective and quality-conscious prosecution recognized the crucial role the police would have to play if the project was to succeed. Cases that would be prosecuted on the original charge would have to be of such initial quality that prosecutors would not be forced to reduce the charge at a later stage because of absent or erroneous evidence. Good investigatory support by the police was essential and any hesitation on the part of police agencies to provide the additional work would have compounded the obstacles new projects normally encounter.

To alleviate this potential problem, meetings between the County's law enforcement agencies and the District Attorney's staff were conducted. The discussions revolved around the need for investigative follow-up on cases considered by the Impact staff to be initially weak. Once the program's objectives and goals were explained, the police quickly recognized the importance of their role in the project and concurred with Impact's perception of its investigatory requirements.

It should be emphasized that this is not a problem which can be solved with just an initial agreement or understanding. Police-Impact cooperation and coordination is a day-to-day maintenance effort; staff and officer turnover, police reorganization, and changing interpretation of the law demand continual communication between agencies. The working relationships, based upon adequate information and updated training sessions, with investigating officers and the project's staff, is critical toward realizing quality prosecution.

Similarly, interagency cooperation was mandatory from the Multnomah County Circuit Court. As each Impact attorney was responsible for a case from issuance to resolution, it was imperative that the court cooperate by avoiding scheduling the same attorney to conflicting court appearances. The District Attorney personally visited with each judge on the circuit court outlining the project and explaining the crucial component of "vertical case processing" - allowing each attorney to be able to attend all stages of the prosecution of his or her assigned case.

The private bar posed a different problem. They had grown accustomed, as had the prosecutors, to bargaining over plea reductions. Indeed, the Public Defender's Office raised the spectre of taking every Impact case to trial which would clog the courts. This fact did not deter the District Attorney's commitment to a successful implementation of the Impact procedures. Given the public's concern about armed robbery and home burglary in the County, the District Attorney felt that the local environment would support a no-plea policy for target crimes. This was evidenced as the project began and the defense bar became familiar with the limited legal options available to both them and the prosecutors when handling Impact cases.

TABLE I

CASES CONSIDERED BY IMPACT
DECEMBER 1973 - OCTOBER 10, 1975

1. Cases issued for trial units	130
2. Cases declined	215
3. Cases returned for further investigation	157
4. Cases issued for Impact	400
5. Direct presents	85
Total cases considered	987

TABLE II

CASE DISPOSITION - IMPACT
DECEMBER 1973 - OCTOBER 10, 1975

1. Not true bill	10	(3%)
2. Pled to charge	254	(62%)
3. Pled to lesser	7	(2%)
4. Dismissed	42	(10%)
5. Tried	98	(23%)
a. Guilty	80	(82%)
b. Not Guilty	9	(9%)
c. NGI	9	(9%)
Total cases disposed	411	(100%)

TABLE III

IMPACT DISPOSITIONS BY CHARGE

	<u>Robbery I</u>	<u>Burglary I</u>	<u>Theft I</u>
Cases Tried	44	48	6
a. Guilty	34	41	5
b. NGI	3	6	0
c. Not Guilty	7	1	1
Pled to charge	104	132	18 (254)
Pled pursuant to bargain	1	6	0
Total:			
Found guilty or pled to charge	138	173	23

TABLE IV

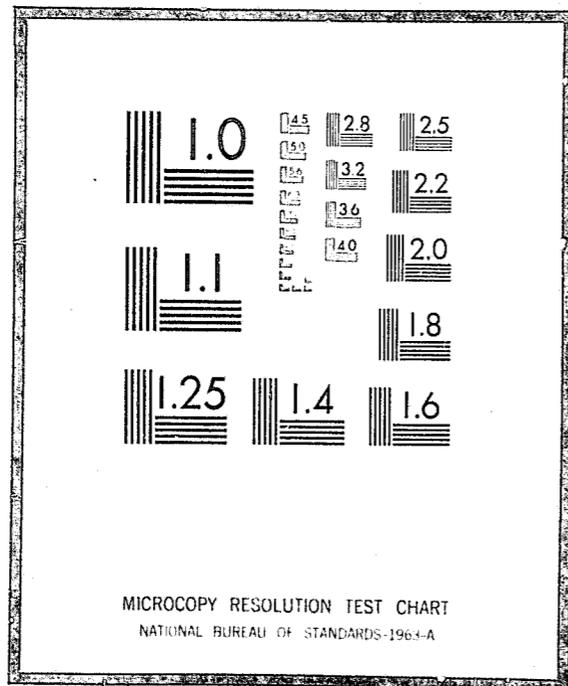
TOTAL DISPOSITION

	<u>Total</u>	
Cases tried	98	
a. Guilty	80	(19%)
b. NGI	9	(2%)
c. Not Guilty	9	(2%)
Pled to charge	254	(62%)
Pled pursuant to bargain	7	(2%)
<hr/>		
Subtotal:		
Found guilty or pled to charge	334	(81%)
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Cases disposed	411	(100%)

END

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POLICE CHIEF SELECTION A HANDBOOK FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT

by
Michael J. Kelly

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POLICE FOUNDATION
and
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POLICE CHIEF SELECTION A HANDBOOK FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT

by
Michael J. Kelly

POLICE FOUNDATION
and
INTERNATIONAL CITY MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION

The Police Foundation is a privately funded, independent, non-profit organization established by the Ford Foundation in 1970 and dedicated to supporting innovation and improvement in policing. The Foundation's program results are published as an information service. Conclusions and recommendations are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Foundation.

The International City Management Association (ICMA) is the professional association of city and county managers, councils of government directors, mayor-appointed administrators and other chief appointed management executives. The more than 7,000 members of ICMA include the chief administrators and top management officials of over 2,900 cities and towns, 134 counties and 60 councils of government. Dedicated to increasing the proficiency of municipal administrators and strengthening the quality of urban government through professional management ICMA conducts a broad range of activities which include research, publications, training, technical assistance, and professional development.

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TO MY WIFE

with thanks for the happy results
of her irrational selection process

PREFACE

An important, and potentially troublesome, task for the municipal executive is the selection of a new police chief. Several factors—the high visibility of the police department within the community, the increasing complexity of modern policing, the military and somewhat insular nature of the police organization, and the potential for heated debate on whether a new police chief should be selected from within or from outside a department—can combine in a troublesome way for the municipal executive. Of course, there is a beneficial aspect to selecting a new police chief. A vacancy can provide an opportunity for the municipal executive to bring to the community the kind of policing which is consistent with his or her philosophy. A vacancy thus provides both a challenge and an opportunity.

This handbook which Dean Kelly has developed is based both on his personal involvement in several searches for police chiefs and many interviews with municipal executives and police chief candidates. The book is not meant to provide complete and final answers for the municipal executive in the quest for a new chief. Rather, it has been designed to shed some light on the many considerations involved in a careful and professional search for the head of a police department. In the final analysis, the executive who appoints a police chief should receive the best advice available and with a minimum of delay select the person who, in his or her opinion, can do the best job for the community.

We believe that this handbook will help fulfill the need in local government to define and improve the process of selecting a police chief. A principal purpose of both the International City Management Association and the Police Foundation is to improve policing. Our belief is that the author has performed a valuable service toward the realization of this purpose.

Mark E. Keane
Executive Director
International City Management Association

Patrick V. Murphy
President
Police Foundation

AUTHOR'S ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my thanks to the scores of police chiefs, city managers, mayors and their staffs whose willingness to share ideas and suggestions informed and enriched this work. My special thanks goes to the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice and its director, Gerald Caplan, whose award of a fellowship provided some of the support necessary to complete this work.

Michael J. Kelly

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INTRODUCTION

Selecting a police chief is for many municipal executives one of the most crucial official acts they will make. The police department carries out one of the most basic functions of local government, and its employees are among the most publicly visible. The leader of the police department, therefore, does much to affect how citizens view the entire municipal government.

Yet municipal officials whose responsibility it is to appoint a police chief are too often at a loss to know how to go about this task. Unless they have done it before and have learned from their mistakes, they will not be aware of many of the pitfalls that can confront them.

Until now, there has not been a useful guidebook to explain the basic principles of conducting a search for a police chief. This volume is an attempt to fill that gap by doing three things:

- (1) Providing a general discussion of the problems and possibilities of police chief selection.
- (2) Supplying some convenient checklists of issues that should be addressed during the process of selecting a chief, including some matters that are ignored in too many searches.
- (3) Illustrating principles with specific examples of selection procedures and documents used by municipal executives and search groups. These examples can be adapted for use elsewhere.

This handbook is *not* a definitive study or comprehensive review of police chief selection processes throughout the nation. It is not a treatise on police personnel management and selection techniques, and it does not attempt to lay down rigid standards or qualifications for police chiefs.

Instead, this handbook has more modest ambitions: to discuss candidly a problem which faces many municipal executives, and to suggest options open to those who participate in a search for a police chief.

The book begins with a look at some questions which should be considered before any search is designed. This discussion leads to a basic

principle which is reiterated frequently throughout this volume: a successful search for a police chief does not simply look for a person to fill an administrator's office. It looks carefully at the police department itself and at the municipal executive's expectations for that police department.

In a sense, this volume may raise more questions than it settles, by challenging executives and their aides to examine their fundamental assumptions about what police should do and how they should do it. There are many views on the proper role of police; this book does not attempt to champion any particular one of them. It does suggest, however, that the executive consider these issues.

The political aspects of appointing a police chief are also discussed. This side of the problem cannot be neglected because the political atmosphere in which the appointment is made, or which might grow out of the appointment, plays an important part in setting the limits within which the new chief must operate.

The volume then moves into a discussion of steps that should be taken during the search. These steps include examining the legal constraints within which the searchers must work, determining that a vacancy in fact exists, laying out a general search design, and examining the needs and strengths of the police department. Only then does the book begin to make specific suggestions on how to manage the search. These include comments on choosing a search manager, designing a schedule that is flexible but does not allow the process to drag on, and defining the roles for various participants in the process such as consultants and the public. Also discussed are such problems as defining standards, finding ways to attract qualified applicants, and evaluating the persons who do apply.

Finally comes the question of what happens after a new chief has been chosen. The last section of this book offers suggestions for smoothing the transition.

Clearly, no single blueprint will accommodate the needs of such diverse communities as, for example, New York City, with a police force of 30,000, and Hayden, Arizona, with a single law enforcement officer. This book recognizes that diversity. However, it attempts to provide municipal executives and their staffs with information on the range of procedures available so that they can design one that suits their local needs. Citizens and such special law enforcement constituencies as unions, the press, and crime commissions may also find the guide useful in determining their appropriate roles in the process or in monitoring and evaluating the process as it affects their interests.

I. POLICY CONSIDERATIONS

The Importance of Selecting a Police Chief in a Systematic Manner

It is commonly assumed that the search for a police chief centers on finding the right individual to be an administrator. This is, of course, important, but the search for a new chief should also involve some basic decisions about policing in the local community.

The precise relationship between a police chief and the city manager or mayor depends to an extent on local traditions and the personalities involved. In most places, however, when the police chief and the municipal executive communicate with each other, it is about one of two kinds of questions: (1) relatively routine, well-defined matters such as favors sought by City Hall, appointments within the police department, labor negotiations, and funding, or (2) crises such as demonstrations, riots or revelations of corruption. There is usually little serious examination of broad questions on the purpose, future, and management of the department.

The task of selecting a police chief provides, through the interviewing of candidates, the opportunity for such an examination. To the extent that mayors or city managers understand policing in their cities, the alternative models or approaches to policing available, and the styles of leadership represented by different candidates, the selection process can promote consolidation and change in American policing. A chief executive who gains a more sophisticated understanding of the issues posed by the department will be not only better able to choose a police chief but also more likely to provide needed support to the chief in the future. A wise chief executive can use the search to set the ground rules for the working relationship between the political leadership of the city and the police.

What the selection of a chief accomplishes is more important than how it is accomplished. It is obviously better to find the right chief than to perfect a selection process that generates a poor choice. The techniques and options described in this handbook are designed to be useful tools and are not an end in themselves. If, however, a critical set of decisions about policing must be made (by design or inaction) during the process of selecting a chief, then it is important that some systematic thinking ought to be

done about the methods of appointment. This is true regardless of how small the jurisdiction is or how informal local decision-making processes are.

An intelligent search must in some way address the following questions:

What is the quality of the local police department? (See pages 25-27.)

What are the primary leadership needs of the local department? (See this chapter.)

What do the community and the political chief executive need in a police chief? (See pages 10-15.)

What are the formal procedural and other constraints on the search process? (See pages 18-20.)

What achievements are expected from the search process and designation of a new chief? (See Chapter II.)

How elaborate does the search process need to be and what is the search plan and schedule? (See pages 20-22.)

Who will be the manager of this process? (See pages 27-36.)

How much time and energy can the political chief executive commit to the search? (See pages 27-36.)

The answers to some of these questions can be elaborate or simple, but the quality of thinking that goes into the responses will determine the quality of the search and, to an extent, the effectiveness of local government.

Special Problems of Choosing a Police Chief

Recruiting and choosing a police chief are similar in some ways to recruiting and choosing any top municipal manager, whether the head of the housing department or the superintendent of schools. All require a decision of whether or not to search outside the local department, as well as decisions on appropriate forms of testing, screening, and background checking.

There are, however, several ways in which the search for a police

chief differs significantly from efforts to find other managers. These should be borne in mind as the search begins. Among them are the following:

(1) *Contemporary policing is at the center of some of the most profound sources of friction in American life.* These include racial tensions and hostilities, activist protest movements of various kinds, restlessness of young people, widespread distrust of government at all levels, and public expectation of virtually perfect personal and official conduct on the part of public officials. In view of these pressures, police in the United States all too often assume a defensive posture in an understandable effort to control their volatile and changing environment. It is difficult, and some would argue unreasonable, to expect police to take risks by trying new ways of doing things at the same time that they face such outside pressures.

(2) *Policing is perhaps the most important function of local government.* It is a 24-hour function that is highly visible. The powers of police to arrest citizens and to affect the moral complexion of the community, as well as the duties of police to maintain public order and protect constitutional liberties, are the most fundamental public functions. They require special care and good judgment. A poorly managed police department will not only reflect on the administration currently in office, but will also affect public attitudes toward government in general.

(3) *Internal politics within the police department can cause difficulties.* Many police departments have traditions by which top management personnel work up through the ranks. These traditions are often backed up by laws requiring civil service procedures for promotion or limiting eligibility to "inside" personnel. High-level police officials may also have close working relationships with business and other community groups and may view a city manager or mayor as a relative newcomer. These police officials, and police unions in some departments, as well as their allies and opponents within the community, will carefully scrutinize the choice of a new chief. As a result, many constituencies within the department have significant and sometimes powerful personal and ideological interests at stake in the selection.

(4) *There are few rules to go by in judging a police official.* Police management is an amorphous body of knowledge, best learned through experience. It is difficult to assess a police official's talent by using widely accepted standards of educational credentials, training, or position in a particular type of organization because there are no such simple standards. Judges of talent, therefore, have the difficult task of assessing candidates'

individual experience and widely varying organizational backgrounds.

(5) *The quality of leadership is probably more important to the performance of police than of any other municipal service.* Police departments are generally organized in a quasi-military structure that puts a high degree of responsibility and control at the top. No other method of affecting police behavior—lawsuits against officers, “exclusionary” rules of the courts, or citizen review boards—is as effective as discipline and leadership by the chief. Moreover, police chiefs have difficult and important roles to play as intermediaries between the special organizational style of a police department and the other departments of municipal government. The public expects police chiefs not only to maintain firm control of the department, but also to analyze and address the crime problems of the community. Chiefs are thus important public figures in shaping public attitudes toward criminal justice.

(6) *Because of the tight organizational structure of police departments, it may be difficult to obtain accurate information about candidates.* Police departments are often isolated as an organization so that a recruiter may find it hard to penetrate the barriers to ask about a candidate. The problem is compounded because some police leaders seeking a new post insist on secrecy if they currently hold another command post; once a possible move is publicized, the dangers of losing control of some police organizations are great.

(7) *There are deep divisions within the police profession over where a contemporary police force should place its priorities.* One commentator describes three competing concepts of police professionalism in the United States today: a union-oriented “guild professionalism” concept; a “military bureaucratic model” calling for a highly structured organization to improve police services; and a “therapeutic model” giving emphasis to social concerns and community relationships.¹ In any case, it is clear that different police professionals may have widely divergent ideas on the directions in which policing should be headed. Those involved in a search process must at least be aware of these differences and may wish to define their own goals for policing in their community.

¹Harold Richard Wilde, Jr., “The Process of Change in a Police Bureaucracy,” unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1972.

The Politics of the Decision

The intentions and motives of the executive who holds the power to appoint a police chief are frequently under broad suspicion. Some suspect that the search procedure masks a previously made decision, or that the executive will make an arbitrary choice regardless of the care a search committee takes in its recommendation. It is a favorite pastime to speculate about favorite candidates. Outsiders consistently believe the process is rigged for insiders; inside candidates suspect they are being used to find an outsider. Delays are misinterpreted. Every gesture is scrutinized with an eye toward detecting betrayal of trust.

It is, therefore, pointless to discuss police chief selection without some analysis of the fundamental attitudes that executives who make the appointment hold toward police departments.

Some chief executives maintain a strict hands-off policy on the grounds that professionals know best how to run the department; these executives' only interest is to assure that the department is led by a competent professional. There are other more politically motivated grounds for avoiding attention to the police function. Take, for example, the advice in a magazine article purportedly addressed to Abraham Beame during his campaign for election as mayor of New York City:

... [G]ive up any thought of improving New York administration as a whole and adeptly select two or three governmental issues which are at once serious, capable of real improvement and *highly visible*. Your work in these areas will be entirely governmental. Politics will be excluded. These areas will be the chosen tests of your governmental efficiency. Crime is the wrong issue for such a test. Though it is serious, too many different agencies are involved to make it capable of real improvement. Its visibility is restricted. You can prove very little about your achievement which will not sound like a mere juggling of figures. The actual total of crime is less perceived than felt, and a single ugly crime will give the public the impression that the crime situation has deteriorated badly, no matter how correctly the statistics might suggest it has improved.²

At the opposite end of the spectrum are those executives who meddle extensively in policing, either as programmatic “superchiefs” or as political manipulators of patronage police jobs.

²Roger Starr, “Open Letter to the Next Mayor: First Clean the Streets,” *New York Times Magazine*, June 3, 1973, p. 40.

An executive at either extreme, whether he keeps a distance from the department or attempts to dominate it, will usually not conduct an elaborate search. Such an executive is relatively indifferent to anything other than standard credentials for a chief or to any standards other than political support and control. It is rare, however, that situations can be so starkly categorized. Even political "machines" today have an interest in seeing that the appointment of a chief is acceptable on professional grounds; and the most uninterested of executives will still want to assure, if only to avoid future trouble, that the department is in good hands.

The increased political sensitivity and high political risk of policing have led a number of municipal chief executives not only to develop a greater interest in problems of policing, but also to explore their appropriate leadership role with respect to the functions of police. It is widely recognized that policing is too important simply to leave to the "experts" or to be subject to partisan politics.

As a result, the leadership role of the political chief executive, while probably no more important now than in the past, has become an issue of more concern among politicians and managers and of more open discussion among police leaders. As the standards published by the American Bar Association on the urban police function spell out:

In general terms, the chief executive of a municipality should be recognized as having the ultimate responsibility of his police department and, in conjunction with his police administrator and the municipal legislative body, should formulate policy relating to the nature of the police function, the objectives and priorities of the police in carrying out this function, and the relationship of these objectives and priorities to general municipal strategies. This will require that a chief executive, along with assuming new responsibilities for formulating overall directions for police services, must also:

- (i) insulate the police department from inappropriate pressures, including such pressures from his own office;
- (ii) insulate the police department from pressures to deal with matters in an unlawful or unconstitutional manner; and
- (iii) insulate the police department from inappropriate interference with the internal administration of

his department.³

Chief executives in this middle ground between the uninterested and over-interested display the most concern over the selection process.

The selection of a police chief challenges executives to assess, in some fashion, their constituencies' needs, their own political fortunes and constraints, and the status and function of the police in their communities.

Municipal managers take into the search a reading of their local community: its size, style, and racial, ethnic, and economic composition; attitudes toward its elected officials; and political traditions. These managers are conscious of the expectations of particular constituencies or significant lobbies or pressure groups. Some places have political traditions that affect selection procedures, such as a history of highly visible searches for fire and police chiefs conducted by appointed citizen committees. The business community in some towns assumes a strong posture in favor of a "nonpolitical" chief and exercises almost an informal veto over the selection.

Equally important is a reading of the police department: its own tradition and style of policing; major publicized or "hidden" problems (e.g., soaring crime rate, slow response time to calls for service, corruption issues, management shortcomings, poor relations with minorities); and general community expectations, attitudes and confidence in police.

The executive's political or personal ambitions are always important and in certain situations determine the results. A highly insecure chief executive could be disposed toward either the most conventional choice available or a highly unconventional choice of some prominent figure in order to redeem a difficult political situation.

The executive is likely to view the appointment in terms of its risks. How visible or politically sensitive is the appointment? Does it come in the wake of a stormy exit (firing, retirement, resignation) of the previous chief or some other unfavorable publicity that creates internal problems for the department and spotlights the issue of replacement? How volatile and dangerous are the police union, business, or other interested constituencies? To what extent does the chief executive see crime fighting and policing as a "leverage" issue, i.e., a significant feature in his or her re-election, re-appointment, or future job seeking? How do police fit into the executive's priorities for governing? What are the executive's understanding of and priorities for policing?

³American Bar Association Project on Standards for Criminal Justice, *The Urban Police Function*, section 2.5. *The Urban Police Function* was approved by the American Bar Association and the International Association of Chiefs of Police.

These questions related to the local community, the police and the chief executive's personal and governmental horizons are essential to understanding decisions about a chief.

Naturally, no executive is likely to consider these questions with systematic textbook rigor. The consideration will be at least somewhat informal. For many executives, it is easy and tempting to simplify matters by defining the kind of police chief wanted in terms of stereotypes or models. The qualities and experiences needed for running a police department of any size are so wide-ranging that this type of thinking is attractive. It seems to help establish priority concerns and to sort out immaterial considerations. The use of stereotypes is not necessarily conscious, but it is an underlying factor in most evaluations of candidates.

The nature of these models varies. Some municipal executives will describe their need for "a good administrator." Others will speak of "a tough infighter against corruption," or "a chief with visibility who can handle the media and the community," "an experienced labor negotiator," "a bloodletter," "an innovator," "a caretaker," or "someone who will work well with the manager and council."

Such stereotypes can easily be used by candidates who want to sell the leadership models that reflect their own strengths. This leads to the benefits that such stereotypes will be used by advocates for particular candidates, each with conflicting models of what a chief should be. This debate can sometimes sharpen and improve the analysis of the candidates and of the needs of the department.

There is, however, the danger that such conceptualizing will be a substitute for, rather than a reasoned conclusion from, an examination of the department and an analysis of the situation. The search techniques described in the following sections are designed to prevent the kind of ill-considered, thoughtless decisions which can easily result from "instant" stereotyped thinking.

Setting Objectives for Chief Selection

Municipal managers are frequently advised to define their goals before embarking on a particular program. "Management by objectives" is a concept often used. A similar admonition should precede the search for a new chief of police. City executives ought to outline in writing (or see to it someone they trust spells out) their objectives, if only to assure that the stereotypes or models they have in mind will be carefully considered. Few executives undertake such an approach, however. Among the reasons is the common assumption that the selection process is concerned only with find-

ing the right individual as police administrator rather than setting the future course of the police function in the community.

Even those who understand selection as a management problem are hard put to articulate their goals. Their difficulty stems less from the lack of systematic selection methods than from the fact that they have little understanding of what to ask candidates or what to look for with respect to police policy issues and new leadership. Mayors and managers often have a poor grasp of what is going on within their police departments and what models of policing are different from those practiced locally. The executive's initial effort to list objectives is likely to be an exercise couched in ignorance of both legitimate expectations and existing realities.

Part of the reason that setting objectives is so confusing is the range of possible levels of generalization. An objective related to overall police management could be stated as broadly as, "to keep our community safe and secure." Or it could be precisely phrased, such as, "to establish an inspection function in the department that develops the capacity within 12 months to control internal discipline and integrity and to respond quickly and fully to outside complaints." A manager could formulate personal qualities wanted in the chief as broadly as, "exhibit strong leadership attributes." Or such qualities could be defined more specifically: "have demonstrated experience and a personal willingness to discipline personnel at all levels, and to establish effective guidelines, reporting mechanisms and departmental hearing and appeal procedures to assure the thoroughness and fairness of the disciplinary system." Objectives can range from those focused on the management objectives of the municipal administrator to those focused on the personality and desired background of the candidate; they can be phrased so generally that they become mere pieties, or they can be expressed in terms of a detailed agenda tailored to local needs.

To help define objectives that are meaningful, a municipal executive in a search for a chief ought to learn as much as possible about the police department and the range of possibilities of police management. Without exploring the real world in which a new chief must operate, an executive is likely to compile a list of personal qualities for a police chief that will resemble those of a Boy Scout: trustworthy, loyal, helpful, brave, clean, and reverent. For example, a Seattle newspaper reporter listed the following set of qualifications while that city was seeking a new police chief as an illustration of the almost impossible demands being made on big-city chiefs:

Ten to 20 years of law enforcement experience.

Proven ability, and preferably a master's degree in personnel management and administration.

A personal capacity to deal frequently and effectively with the public.

Demonstration of an ability to work "under heavy fire"--political or social, internal or external.

A broad background in the technical and legal aspects of the criminal justice system.

Willingness to work the long hours of a top business executive for a fraction of the salary of those executives.

Openness to much-needed change and innovation in law enforcement.

An ability to earn the respect and confidence of the rank-and-file policemen and the tax-paying public.⁴

Some of these criteria might be useful in reviewing negative points or clear weaknesses of candidates. However, they are not satisfactory in developing an assessment of the "positive" assets of a potential chief that are particularly needed in a given city.

Another set of qualities has been developed by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) for their Assessment Center (discussed in greater detail beginning on page 43). The IACP lists the following as essential qualities in a chief:

impact (i.e., impression on others)	emotional maturity
judgment	ability to tolerate stress
analytical abilities	realistic idealism
creativity	motivation
breadth of knowledge	administrative courage (readiness
decision-making capabilities	to make unpopular decisions)
delegating readiness	flexibility
leadership (i.e., motivating others)	sense of mission
planning and organizing habits	communication skills
follow-up instincts	perseverance
sensitivity (i.e., tolerance,	persuasiveness
patience, compassion)	integrity

This list is as good as any, particularly in thinking about personal weaknesses and strengths of given candidates. Like the Boy Scout virtues, how-

⁴Seattle Times, April 22, 1974, p. A.24.

ever, these qualities have little use if they are considered apart from what the mayor, manager, or civil service board most cares about, or if they are taken out of the context of the carefully controlled evaluation system developed by the IACP. A realistic set of objectives requires considerable honesty--for example, acknowledging that a chief is wanted who will cause no political problems. As was discussed previously, it also requires careful thinking and knowledge about the department, the community, and the personal, political, and governmental objectives of the executive.

An internal memorandum to the mayor of a large city developed by an aide during a search for a chief reflects one executive's set of concerns and illustrates something of the sharpening of focus suggested here:

To: The Mayor
Subject: Your Priorities for Chief

- 1) *Loyalty to, or political compatibility* with, the mayor. This is most fundamental (and perhaps is closely connected to #4 below). It combines your sense that you can work together with your perception that the man has political antennae alerting him to issues of sensitivity to you and that he would inform you of major policy issues and in all cases (short of what he considers to be ultimate principles) defer to your decision. The critical point here is your feeling that the political relationship between you is relatively free from risk: the respect and allegiance he has for you, his integrity, good judgment and self-confidence mean he will surface only those issues for your consideration over which you shared a sense of political relevance.
- 2) *Decision-making competence--a strong administrator.* Here is the antidote to the regime of the old chief. You want a man who can command the allegiance of the department and run it well. You require forcefulness, attention to detail and follow-through, and the capability to develop policy and implement it with the cooperation and loyalty of the force.
- 3) *An experimental frame of mind.* You want someone who has demonstrated his appetite for initiating and implementing change--an innovator (yet not so insensitive to the implications of change that he gets into trouble by moving in ways not thoroughly and thoughtfully considered).
- 4) *A humanistic frame of mind.* This is a sense that the man cares about the way police treat people--that the policies of the department have to be judged ultimately in terms

of the perceived fairness and effectiveness of day-to-day dealing with the public. Specific bench marks of this *may* be attitudes toward minority recruitment, use of weapons policy, and internal affairs.

- (5) *A public presence.* Since you may well have a campaign ahead of you in the coming months, you may underestimate the need you have to find a chief who can take charge in the eyes of the public, i.e., a man with high political sensitivity who gives the appearance that you have chosen well, encourages citizen cooperation and, above all, stands out in such a way as to draw the flak when something goes wrong.
- (6) *An analytical frame of mind.* You would like someone with whom you can communicate freely in the terms of your own discourse: problem finding, the development of relatively rational planned solutions, and careful, practical implementations.
- (7) *A crime control philosophy.* You would like a man skeptical of traditional military model approaches to the reduction of crime, and convinced of the fundamental importance of developing community relationships to achieve crime control.

A county manager described in a magazine what he felt should be the relationship between a police chief and a municipal manager. The article could also read as a list of selection criteria:

- (1) Capabilities of building departmental morale.
- (2) Ability to contribute to the overall decision-making process in the municipality, e.g., ordinance changes, organizational and personnel improvements.
- (3) Ability to communicate, i.e., to listen, to speak, and to write without fear of misunderstanding.
- (4) An interest in interdepartmental coordination.
- (5) Belief and experience in preparing a meaningful budget document.
- (6) Skills and interest in public communication from general reports, to instilling employee consciousness of the public, to

follow-up of citizen complaints.

- (7) Ability to meet agreed-upon performance targets.⁵

A set of objectives is worth making only if it is useful to the decision-maker. Even if the executive does not operate in a systematic fashion, or if the objectives are radically changed during the course of interviews, the attempt to define what is important in concrete terms can give the usually haphazard selection process a useful sense of direction. The objectives ought to include both goals for the management of the department and personal attributes of the candidates that are of the highest concern. Long lists of desirable attributes and suggested departmental programs will be relatively useless because they fail to rank matters in order of their importance.

Insider Versus Outsider

The question most frequently debated in searches for a police chief is whether to look for a new chief inside or outside the local police department. The vehemence with which this argument is pursued is sometimes quite startling to newcomers to policing. The debate is not at all easy to follow. Arguments are advanced as if some special leadership quality attaches to being located within the department or outside it. Instead, the question should be seen as a factor that simply needs to be weighed along with other qualifications.

The common argument against outsiders is that they either will be unable to undertake needed changes while they become familiar with local style, personnel, and policing, or will attempt to impose inappropriate, alien, and potentially explosive standards and ideas on the local force. The argument against insiders is that because of their parochialism, narrow horizons, and inbred professional background, they will severely limit development, innovative change, and progress in the department. They may also reinforce existing undesirable tendencies, factions, or complacency, the argument runs.

The case for insiders focuses on the advantages of a thorough understanding of the department, its personnel, and the political forces within which it must operate. The case for outsiders usually emphasizes the value

⁵Bert Johnson, "The Manager and the Community's Chief of Police," *Public Management*, July 1974, pp. 14-15.

of new ideas, unusually high-quality talent, and broad professional contacts and abilities that are not available within the department.

The arguments are as abstract, and therefore as useless, as lists of desirable chief qualities. One can go on endlessly arguing about the ideal insider or outsider. Some "inside" advocates assert that the outsider faces almost insuperable difficulties. In fact, however, a first-rate manager from outside would immediately begin to learn about the department and to build loyalty and support within the department. These are not difficult problems in a department where there is any institutional loyalty and little factional strife. Some partisans of outside leadership characterize all insiders as parochial and limited in experience, without appreciating that insiders can develop a "national" perspective or that outsiders can import their own totally inappropriate parochialism to the job. A strife-ridden or poorly managed department is commonly thought to require the intervention of an outside leader, when there may be highly knowledgeable, capable, and uncompromised talent within the department to cope with major problems.

"Inside" and "outside" are often used as code words that reflect a whole set of attitudes about contemporary policing. Police officials inside the department rightly recognize that search authorities who include outside candidates in a search do not feel that the department itself has established a sufficient means of identifying and training new leadership. The outside search inevitably carries a further message: that the department is not as good as it should be and may require "fresh" leadership. A search for an outsider represents an implicit criticism of the department and therefore creates a morale problem—criticism is discouraging. But criticism properly absorbed and acted upon can also be enormously helpful and constructive. It can be a challenge to which the department responds successfully, a morale booster.

Some observers have very little respect for searches which *include* insiders on the grounds that leadership from outside the department is the most likely way to generate the change that is needed. The side a person takes in this debate is a likely indicator of how that person feels about the need for change and whether the person is generally supportive or critical of the department.

The insider-outsider argument can be particularly distracting if it is simply a rehearsal of the stereotypes held by each side. However, this is usually exactly what the argument represents. The argument is rarely based on analysis of the quality of management talent in the department and the need for changes in policing in the community. There are many risks that must be analyzed and weighed in a selection process, but these are associated with many aspects of the candidates other than their job

location. Obviously there are special risks when the outsider comes from a much different environment, such as a small town chief moving to a large city or a big city captain moving to a small town. Equally serious risks apply to hiring an insider to head a department considered to be riddled with corruption. But, generally speaking, the leadership qualities and skills of the candidates are more important considerations than whether they are insiders or outsiders.

It is generally advisable, where local law permits, to include both inside and outside candidates in the search. There are several reasons for this approach. Even when a selection authority is relatively certain it has a first-rate prospective chief on the local force, it (and perhaps the inside candidate) will want to confirm that judgment by comparing the candidate with the best that can be found outside the department. The selection authorities can learn much from both outsiders and insiders about the local department, other departments, and different possibilities for directions the department can take. Decision-makers will not really be in a position to judge possible negative characteristics, such as the parochialism of an insider or the political awkwardness of an outsider, without having some basis of comparison. The supply of talent is probably too limited to justify closing a search to outsiders or insiders on the basis of what may be premature judgments at the beginning of the process.

Some authorities have suggested that police could do well with what might be termed the ultimate outsider—an individual without police experience as chief. While this suggestion may shock many police professionals who believe in the traditional ladder of promotion from patrol officer to sergeant to captain to chief, it is not as alien to the American tradition as it may first appear. Some American cities have long maintained a system of putting a "public safety director" or "commissioner" officially at the head of the police department (or in some instances, police and fire departments). While many of these commissioners or directors come from law enforcement backgrounds, the advantages of having as chief an individual with a strong managerial, budgetary, or political background could be significant in some local situations, even where there is no public safety director structure. As in the outsider-insider decision, the argument over layman versus professional is relatively useless if it is conducted in the abstract rather than from the vantage point of a thorough understanding of the department. It is unlikely that vast numbers of laymen will be hired as police chiefs soon, but there may be some local situations in the future where the idea will be tested.

II. SELECTION PROCEDURES

Legal Constraints

There are many types of formal legal constraints on the police chief appointment process. Before reviewing these, one point should be emphasized: it is necessary to review thoroughly the powers of appointment, the constraints or procedural limitations on that power, and the legal standards or qualifications for a chief. A formal letter from the municipal attorney might be advisable, particularly if there are any questions of the applicability of certain state laws. If the city council, for example, has confirmation power over the executive's choice, the executive may want to include certain concerns of important council members among the standards for choosing the chief, or open up the process to the council or citizens in general. The extent to which this happens will, of course, depend on what kind of relationship the executive and council members have.

Following are the most important types of legal or procedural constraints which must be considered.

Appointment Authority

(1) *Election*: While most sheriffs in the United States have relatively limited police powers, in a substantial number of jurisdictions county sheriffs are directly elected in a partisan or nonpartisan ballot and perform a function comparable to that of a police chief.

(2) *Appointment by Governor*: During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the reaction generated by the new ethnic and political forces in large city politics led a number of states to remove the power to appoint police chiefs from the local government and lodge it with the governor. The only major city that has not regained this power is Baltimore, Maryland, where the governor directly appoints the police commissioner for a six-year term, although the city maintains budgeting responsibility for the department.

(3) *Appointment by a Commission or Board*: Several cities have a

structure (much like the typical school board) in which the commissioners are officially charged with the governance of the department and the selection of the chief. Both St. Louis and Kansas City, Missouri, have commissioners appointed by the governor (the local mayor sits ex-officio as one of five members), while other cities, such as San Francisco, have boards appointed by the mayor.

(4) *Civil Service*: In some cities, such as Cincinnati, Ohio, the civil service board or commission is charged with complete authority to choose the chief of police. Other cities, such as Greenville, South Carolina, authorize civil service appointment subject to city council approval. A more typical use of civil service is to qualify candidates—that is, to recruit, screen, rank, and certify three or five persons for consideration by the mayor or city manager, who makes the appointment. This is used, for example, in Alabama.

(5) *Public Safety Commissioner*: In some jurisdictions, such as the commission-type governments in Chattanooga, Tennessee, and Portland, Oregon, the commissioner charged with the police function is responsible for appointing the chief, generally with the approval of the rest of the commissioners.

(6) *Mayor or Manager*: Apparently the most common method of appointing a police chief is to vest the power in the mayor or manager, either with required city council confirmation or without the necessity for council approval. Examples of the former are San Diego, California; Rochester, New York; Dade County, Florida; and Newark, New Jersey. Examples of the latter are Salem, Oregon; Dallas, Texas; Fremont, California; Peoria, Illinois; and Hartford, Connecticut.

Appointment Criteria

State and local government charters and statutes establish a variety of legal standards to limit the options of the appointing authority. These standards relate to such factors as the following:

(1) *Law enforcement background of candidates*: Portland, Oregon, for example, requires 10 years police experience while Detroit, Michigan, requires candidates to be "skilled and experienced in police administration or law enforcement."

(2) *Priority or requirement of choosing a local candidate*: Five years experience in the state is required by a state law applicable to Dallas, Texas.

The city code of Greenville, South Carolina, specifies that a determination be made of the unsuitability of any local candidate before reviewing outsiders. Other examples include giving civil service preference to local residents (Alabama) or limiting the field of candidates to the next lower rank (Cincinnati, Ohio).

(3) *Process requirement:* Some cities require an initial screening by the civil service or the personnel department or some rough equivalent such as that of the city charter of Seattle, Washington, which states that the chief of police "shall be selected by the mayor from among the three highest ranking candidates in a competitive examination to be conducted under the direction of the mayor."

Tenure of the Appointed Chief

A few cities establish fixed terms of office for chiefs or commissioners, such as Baltimore, where it is six years, and Boston, where it is five years. The term is usually designed to extend beyond the term of the appointing authority. Most cities, however, do not specify a term. Some specify only that the chief serves "at the pleasure" of the manager or police board, or that the chief can be removed only "for cause," or that the chief has civil service status and protections immediately (e.g., Cincinnati) or after a period of time (e.g., one year in Alabama). One recent variant of certain civil service protections is "Police Officer's Bill of Rights" legislation which has passed some state legislatures. Such statutes generally provide procedural safeguards in internal departmental investigations. These have reportedly been invoked by chiefs of police against a mayor and city council in dismissal disputes.

For those who would like to eliminate some of the constraints or change the appointment power in a locality, a word of caution is in order. Most of these constraints are embedded in charter provisions, i.e., the constitutions of municipal government. They are usually exceptionally difficult to change or repeal because they require some form of state legislative action, popular referendum, or both. Even where these matters are lodged in the local code and require only legislative action, there is frequently resistance to change because of the risk of public indignation over "politicizing" the chief selection.

The Vacancy

Any executive contemplating a change of leadership in the police

department must assure that there is, in fact, a vacancy. Most will want to assure that the vacancy is created in an orderly manner that is not demeaning either to the executive or to the outgoing chief. The retirement of the chief is a matter that on occasion requires as much confidentiality and intensive effort as finding a new chief.

Legal, political, and other factors sometimes make it difficult to create a vacancy. The peculiar sensitivity and importance of the position of police chief in a community often leads to the development of a special relationship between the chief and the public. A police chief is not hired casually and likewise cannot be fired without significant problems.

Police chiefs can have remarkable staying power. Some city charters permit an executive to remove or retire a chief only "for cause." There may be other legal constraints explicitly stated in the city charter or state law, or developed in case law. Even where there is no legal ambiguity, a chief with political skills can put the appointing authority under severe pressure. The threat to make a public issue out of a reappointment or termination greatly enlarges the political risk to the executive and usually leads to attempts to make a quiet settlement. However, there have been numerous instances of stormy and unsuccessful efforts to terminate chiefs and of successful efforts that led to the eventual dismissal of city managers or to permanent scars in the department or community and a crippling of the new chief's effectiveness.

One variant of termination is the creation of a new position, a "super chief," or public safety director. This approach has sometimes created great controversy. In one example, the city of Atlanta created the position of public safety director in 1972, despite unsuccessful litigation by the police chief who challenged the mayor's power to make the appointment. The mayor then filled the position with an aide who had little law enforcement background.⁶ In the same year, the town manager of Arlington, Massachusetts, created a new consolidated fire and police agency called Department of Community Safety to bring to the chief's position someone with more administrative qualifications than the three candidates certified by the civil service system. The creation of this office (filled by the previous fire chief) was also litigated by the police and upheld by the courts.⁷

A significant number of departments face a special problem related to retirement of a chief. Their pension systems encourage a chief to stay on until mandatory retirement age rather than accept early retirement

⁶For this lengthy dispute, see, for example, *Atlanta Constitution*, August 11, 1974, pp. 1A and 4A.

⁷*Boston Globe*, January 29, 1975.

because the systems have no provision for calculating the level of the pension payment on the basis of the highest rank held before retirement. In such systems, a retired chief's pension is the same as that of a retired patrol officer. Understandably, a chief in such circumstances is likely to resist early retirement and try to continue to earn the chief's salary as long as possible. The desire for new leadership in the department may not only require an adequate pension package for the existing chief, but also focus attention on the detrimental effects of a poorly designed system on the entire leadership structure of the department.

If necessary, an interim chief can lead the department while a search for a new chief is being conducted. There are many types of interim arrangements; for example, a retiring chief can stay on until a successor is named or an acting chief can be appointed. The acting chief, who will usually come from within the local department, may or may not be a candidate for permanent appointment.

Executives should not, however, try to run the police department from their offices. If they do, they are likely to create tensions which can damage the morale of the department and its relations with other local agencies.

The General Search Design

The search procedure ought to be functional. It should be tailored to the needs, style, and overall goals and objectives of the decision-makers. There may be a simple search, in which the mayor calls a candidate for a talk, or there may be a full-scale, widely advertised "national search" involving hundreds of candidates, written exams, interviews and the like. The search techniques chosen may be important for a number of reasons:

Timing

The process could be so elaborate that it prolongs the search, causing significant morale problems for the department or undue pressure on the mayor or manager who has made a commitment to find a chief by a certain time.

Cost

The more elaborate the search, the more expensive it will be. These costs may not always be apparent because some may be "hidden" in the office expenses for the executive. If an outside expert is hired, travel and

lodging costs can add up to a significant amount.

Integrity

A search involving significant discrepancies between selection techniques and the reality of decision-making can harm a city or town's reputation. For example, a decision to advertise widely would complicate and compromise the credibility of a search committed to promoting inside-the-department talent.

Reliability

It is easy to be misled by formal interviews, resumes, reputations, and the like. The more decision-makers are concerned about the quality of the appointment, the more they will need elaborate controls which bring several perspectives to the decision. The decision-makers will want to test or check their perceptions against those of colleagues, friends, and police professionals.

Effectiveness

A search for the highest caliber leadership from the outside will probably not succeed if it is designed only to screen out poor candidates. Successful police leaders are not, by and large, looking for new positions and submitting their names as candidates; they are busy being successful in their jobs. If the ambitions of the search are high, recruiting must be part of the selection process. Successful leaders, whether in business or municipal management, must be discovered and lured away from their present positions by inducements of greater challenges and rewards, monetary and otherwise.

In general, a search will include the following tasks:

- Advertising
- Recruiting
- Managing
- Screening
- Interviewing
- Background checking.

There are many ways of performing each of these tasks. Within general constraints of time, cost, integrity, reliability, and effectiveness, the search leaders ought to establish at the outset a schedule, budget, and

methods. There are no typical or recommended formulas, because the constraints, objectives, and definitions of success must be calculated by each jurisdiction. Nevertheless, some general observations may be made.

The management style of the executive will often carry over to the search. A chief executive who is directly involved in management of city agencies and who delegates little authority will be likely to want considerable direct control over decisions at all stages. This type of executive is unlikely to delegate the task of limiting the range of choice or to give much influence to experts or "professional" screeners, particularly if no firm decision has been made on the exact type of leadership desired for the department.

If the search is conducted by a committee or civil service commission, it will need to develop standards for consensus. Depending on the cohesiveness of the group and the strength of its leadership, some outside expertise may be helpful in focusing the group decision.

A search that includes outside candidates must be conducted with far more attention to recruiting details. Time will be required to write a description of the job and the community and to advertise and/or search for candidates. Special provisions may be needed to preserve the confidentiality of an outsider's application. Meticulous attention to the logistics of a visit will be necessary so that a candidate will not gain an unfavorable impression of the interest and competence of the selecting authorities. Checking the background of candidates becomes more difficult, expensive, and time-consuming.

Following are some general impressions of recent trends of police chief searches which may offer some perspective on the task:

There is considerable sentiment that a shortage of available talent exists in the country today. This attitude often leads to searches beyond the confines of the local department, together with skeptical attitudes toward the kinds of advertising that generate a large number of names rather than a small number of carefully recruited candidates.

Many executives today are exploring their leadership role in policing. They are more likely to insist on some role in selection if the formal decision is lodged in another body, such as a police commission, or to confine the search work to their immediate staff if they have appointing authority. The pressures to open up the process to some form of citizen review and input appear, on the whole, to be far less intense today than during the heyday several years ago of "maximum feasible participation," in which citizen advisory councils were set up for governmental programs.

In the future, police departments may have developed such effective in-house capacities for training chiefs that there will be little or no need to conduct searches more elaborate than reviewing a department's own

performance and evaluation records. With few exceptions, however, that is not the case today.

Analysis of the Department

Too many searches are conducted in ignorance of the problems of the department the new chief is to head. No one would argue that a chief should be selected without thorough study of the applicant's qualifications and background, but similar detailed analysis is rarely applied to the organizational environment within which the new police leader must operate. Significant time should be devoted to understanding the local agency.

Such a study is important not only because it helps identify management issues that should be on the agenda of any new chief, but also because it forms the basis for judging the perceptions, specific concerns, and capabilities of the candidates. Take, for example, a department in which it is widely acknowledged that some unit is not functioning well. A candidate who fails to recognize the problem, touts the unit highly, or boasts of a role in making the unit effective immediately raises questions about his or her judgment.

There are no special rules for learning about the department other than to be careful to obtain information from a variety of sources. Some sources within a department may screen or sanitize information because of their distrust of outsiders. Others may provide biased information because of personal ambitions or their limited vantage points. The executive and others assisting the search should, over a considerable period of time, be gaining impressions of the department in two ways: (1) directly through discussions with police at various levels, and (2) indirectly through conversations with citizens, journalists, representatives from other criminal justice and police agencies, and outside police professionals doing consulting work with the department.

To learn about the department, some mayors and managers may wish to hire professional organizations or police consultants to review needs and progress toward meeting them. Others may wish to undertake the study themselves or to delegate the task to close subordinates. Whatever the method, it is essential to develop some framework for the analysis. Following are some of the issues that may be important:

Mission Statement

Does the department have a statement of its mission? What basis does it have for the development of such a statement? Has the department

given serious thought to such a statement?

Management Analysis

Does the department know how it spends its time? For example, does it know how much activity and time it devotes to detection and apprehension of criminal suspects compared to time spent on work traditionally considered noncrime activities?

Does it have any systematic analysis of the nature and the quality of the tasks it performs?

How does the department obtain its information about itself and its activities? To what extent are programs developed in response to such information? For example, does the training program reflect what officers actually do?

What changes have occurred within the department over a period of the last six months, one year, two years? Why were these changes initiated? How was the information generated that led to change? How have the results of the new changes been collected and analyzed?

Accountability

How does the department account for its performance?

What is the quality of reporting to the political chief executive and the public?

What methods are used to account for performance: An annual report? Periodic reports? Budget? What is the quality of these methods?

Does the budget reflect any systematic method of setting priorities?

Does the budget reflect sensitivity to cost effectiveness?

Openness and Relation to Outsiders

Does the department generally permit outsiders to analyze it for purposes of study, budget analysis, or management assistance?

How does the department relate to other agencies in the criminal justice system, particularly the prosecutors, courts, and detention and corrections facilities?

How does the department relate to noncriminal justice agencies, such as mental and physical health programs and transportation agencies?

Other Organizational Issues

Does the department have a *planning and research* capability? If so,

what does it do that is significant to the department's development?

Does the department have a *corruption* problem? How does one go about finding out if it does? Is there an internal security unit and/or any kind of anticorruption program?

How does the department handle *complaints* against people in the department? Is the system for handling complaints open or closed? Are the results of complaints published? How does the department view its accountability with respect to citizen complaints?

What is the structure of the *union contract*, if any? What impact does the union have on the department's personnel and management system?

How much *autonomy* does the department have in relation to local and state government such as civil service, retirement, and promotion restrictions? Are interests of minorities such as women, Blacks, and Chicanos adequately represented in the department's ranks? If not, what is being done about it?

How insular is the department? Does it use civilians to any extent? Does it permit *lateral entry* at all levels?

What is the department's policy with respect to *vice*? Is the department's tolerance level on matters of vice, pornography, etc., significantly higher or lower than that of the community as a whole?

A useful checklist that can be used as a starting guide for evaluating a police department is reprinted in Appendix A.

Management

The management issues posed by the process of selecting a police chief are in part a function of the scale of the search itself. Management simply means the responsibility for implementing an agreed-upon plan of action. A highly informal talk between the mayor and a few local candidates requires almost no management, while the "national search" requires such extensive management that a consultant is often employed to handle it. Generally, even a search on a modest scale requires considerable managing if it is to run smoothly, fairly, and effectively.

When numerous parties are involved, the process must be carefully structured, and responsibility must be lodged with someone to assure that things happen according to schedule and design. A search should not be run from an executive's office without designating a search manager and freeing up someone's time for the job. If this is not done, the search must compete with a myriad of other tasks. As a result, the schedule and attention to important details suffer.

Among the important issues of management that arise are the following:

The Choice of a Search Manager

The search manager need not be a decision-maker unless the scale of the search and the size of the jurisdiction are so small that the entire process is handled by the executive. The search manager might be an aide to the mayor, the chairman or executive director of the civil service commission, the personnel director of the local government, or a friend and confidant of the executive. Whoever it is, the search manager must be trusted by the selectors and have the time, staff resources, and status to call selection meetings when needed and to press the decision-makers to adhere to their schedule and plans.

Schedule

The many contingencies of high-level personnel searches make it unwise to announce a deadline or specific timetable for finding a police chief. The amount of public pressure on the search schedule depends on the nature of the vacancy. A stormy resignation spotlights the lack of a permanent chief. A retirement, on the other hand, generally eases the pressure, either because the search can begin far in advance of the chief's retirement or because the retiring chief is willing to stay on until a replacement is found.

Whether or not deadlines are announced publicly, there ought to be a clear internal time schedule for the search, setting out realistic expectations for the time needed for each step in the plan. The following, for example, is the schedule of the city of Inglewood, California, in a search in 1970. Note that the city allowed five months to complete the search process.

<u>Date</u>	<u>Action</u>	<u>Person(s)</u>
Aug. 26	Announcement of resignation	Retiring police chief, mayor
Aug. 31	Write advertisement	City administrator, personnel director
Sept. 1	Send out advertisements to <i>Police Chief, Law Enforce-</i>	Personnel director

<u>Date</u>	<u>Action</u>	<u>Person(s)</u>
	ment, ASPA, ICMA, <i>Western City</i> , and other appropriate national and regional publications	
Oct.-Nov.	Advertisements run; solicit additional applicants; encourage from within Inglewood Police Dept.	Personnel director
Oct.	Develop written examination	Personnel director
Nov.-Dec.	Receive applications	Personnel department
Dec.	Set dates and line up membership for written review board and oral interview board	City administrator, personnel director
Dec. 11	Applicant filing deadline	Applicants
Dec. 14	Review applications for qualifications and accept top 20	Personnel director, member of oral board, city administrator, member of written board
Dec. 16	Send out written examination	Personnel office
Jan. 2	Finalize written and oral board membership and dates	Personnel director
Dec. 16-Jan. 14	Administer written examination	Personnel director
Jan. 15	Written examination mailing deadline	Applicants

<u>Date</u>	<u>Action</u>	<u>Person(s)</u>
Jan. 21- Jan. 22	Grade resumes and written exams	Board of Seven
Week of Jan. 25	Compile grades and select number to be interviewed; make telephone background checks	Personnel director, city administrator
Week of Feb. 1	Notify finalists by telephone and telegram	Personnel director
Feb. 18- Feb. 19	Hold oral interviews	Board of Seven
Feb. 20	Interview top three	City administrator, mayor, city council
Feb. 22	Final background check	Personnel director, FBI, city administrator
Feb. 23	Appointment confirmed	City council

Delegating the Process

Busy city executives often delegate the tedious task of finding management personnel. Some city charters require such a delegation through mandatory civil service screening leading to presentation of three candidates for the chief executive's choice. Delegation elsewhere can range from the use of a highly trusted "political" operative, who works completely under cover, to the establishment of a broadly based citizen's committee to review applicants. It can also include hiring an outside consultant to handle virtually everything except the final choice. The search manager's task may largely consist of supervising the operatives to whom the job is given, or maintaining liaison with the legally authorized body which conducts the screening.

A "delegated" search is effective only if it serves as an extension of the decision-maker. If there are faulty or nonexistent communications

between the executive and the search staff, there is a danger that applicants will view the situation in negative terms. For example, the executive could be seen as someone who does not care enough about the search, as a person so ineffective that the search has slipped out of control, or as a weak leader who has abrogated responsibilities to others. Delegation should be used only to make the executive's involvement in the process more efficient and to make possible better judgments about candidates. The role of the person or body with delegated responsibilities in contributing to the final decision should be clearly communicated to applicants. Extensive delegation of responsibility—whether for recruitment, screening, interviewing, or narrowing of the field—means the executive will have less control unless extensive time has been taken to instruct representatives about the executive's philosophy and understanding of the department. This is rare, however.

Consultants

Police professionals or people from outside the local department who are knowledgeable in the field can be exceptionally useful in searches. Such persons can provide some independent judgment of talent. They can screen applicants on the basis of resumes or from written tests, which they themselves can devise. They can participate in interviewing. They can do background checks. They provide "professional" judgments of candidates, which are difficult to obtain from the local department because of biases inherent in the internal politics of an agency. Through a network of trusted contacts built up over the years, consultants may have access to other departments in order to recruit or obtain candid appraisals of candidates in a way that most laymen would find impossible. It is important, therefore, to identify areas where outside professionals may be needed. Then it is necessary to find such assistance, negotiate terms, and manage outside help to assure maximum productivity.

Two cautions about consultants are in order, however. First, the consultant's reputation within the profession depends on his or her reliability and candor. Therefore, the consultant will, to some extent, have to offer honest opinions about the local executive and department in discussions with other professionals about the job. So the executive still must do some homework in order to display interest and knowledgeable ability to any consultant.

Second, there is really no such thing as an "objective" police professional. While there may be some measure of agreement among professionals in diagnosing poor management in a police department, there is likely to be considerable variation of opinion in prescribing future direc-

tions. It takes some effort to find a professional who shares the priorities and concerns of the executive.

An executive who is primarily concerned with perfecting a quasi-military organization may want to avoid the police expert who places emphasis on new techniques of citizen relationships, for example. Professional credentials or organizational affiliation are no substitute for a discussion that reveals the professional's policing philosophy and understanding of the environment of the jurisdiction, and that establishes the vital sense of trust.

Finding an expert is something like finding a good doctor or lawyer. The only reliable way is to ask knowledgeable people for recommendations. The names of chiefs, other line or staff officers of some police agency, former police officials, academics, criminal justice planners, private or organization consultants, may result. Most of all, it is important to talk directly to such consultants, compare them, and make sure they can work comfortably and constructively with the executive.

Confidentiality

Because the selection process is vulnerable to rumor and distrust, a procedure which does not honor the sensibilities of the applicants will create serious problems. Information leaks about insiders could create a serious morale problem and tensions within the department.

The problem of assuring confidentiality, while important for all candidates, can become particularly acute for certain desirable outside candidates. Police bureaucracies are usually extremely close-knit and stable. Officers with long tenure develop considerable insight and sophistication about the workings of their organization. Once word emerges that a leader is looking for another job, management of the organization can become seriously compromised. For this reason, successful police managers will be extremely reluctant to put their names forward for another position except on terms of complete confidentiality. Similar concerns do not apply to unsuccessful managers, those unhappy with their present position, or those essentially interested in promoting their position in their own jurisdiction.

An executive or a search committee member who cannot refrain from talking to the press about potential candidates will soon find some of the best candidates withdrawing. One recruiter for a major city withdrew completely from a search when a name he submitted in confidence emerged in the press. The recruiter felt that his reputation, particularly his personal guarantee of confidentiality to potential candidates, was compromised.

Managers of a search, then, must often guard access to information

about candidates, keep silent in public about candidates, hold discussions with candidates in private locations (reporters often check local hotels to see whether visiting police officials are registered during a search period), and keep careful custody of search documents. Localities that use selected leaks to the press to maintain interest or to obscure the situation will have to take care to explain to candidates what is occurring, or risk considerable resentment.

The Role of Citizens and Interest Groups

Local political styles and traditions lead to disparate ways of involving community groups in the selection of a new chief. Some executives establish a committee to give representatives of minorities, the police union, the business community, or other groups a direct role in screening and reviewing candidates. Other executives avoid and disparage any "outside" opinions on the chief selection. Techniques falling between these two positions include formal "hearings" held by the executive or the civil service commission; informal sessions with affected interests, such as unions or minority representatives; neighborhood discussions; open time on the manager's calendar; and letters to groups soliciting their views in writing or in testimony.

It is certainly helpful for the selection decision-makers to have the views of those most likely to be concerned about the decision. At the very least, it may make good political sense to ask for suggestions from certain interests even if they are not directly participating in the search process. Furthermore, special problems and insights can emerge from such exchanges. There is considerable disagreement, however, over the usefulness of directly involving citizens in the screening process (assuming that this is not required by law). Members of a selection committee who share the executive's priorities in selecting a chief could be chosen, but even when this is done there are potentially serious drawbacks in assigning duties to any such committee. Such an arrangement can insulate the search manager from the early stages of the process, when the manager's personal recruitment efforts and involvement could have significant effects, and could vitiate the manager's control of the process. On the other hand, an attempt to retain control of the process while permitting citizen participation leaves the process open to charges that the citizens are mere puppets being manipulated by the search managers. A citizen committee can also complicate the task of assuring confidentiality and can generate distracting pressures for certain favorite candidates.

Ultimately, the form of citizen input into the process must depend on the traditions of the community and attitudes of the decision-makers.

If a manager feels comfortable using citizen groups directly and can avoid criticism of rigging the process, citizen representatives may be helpful. Ordinarily, however, search managers and police officials alike are reluctant to give decision-making power to citizen panels. Usually, citizen input is confined to a consultative role, a formal role that permits citizens to evaluate candidates during oral interviews, or a role in the initial phase of the search in which citizens help set standards and qualifications.

Fairness and Information to Applicants

One common problem of searches is the impression sometimes conveyed to candidates of arbitrary, irrational, or sporadic action. The propensity of candidates to think the worst of any selection process can only be exacerbated by a failure to keep them informed. They should know what is happening now, what will occur next, what the overall timetable looks like, and what types of screening all the candidates will undergo. Even when a process is exceptionally informal, candidates should understand that the informality is intentional and that they should not expect to hear about further steps for some time. Form letters can be prepared, if necessary, to communicate the same message to all candidates with spaces for inserting different interviewing or testing times. The letter to candidates from the city administrator of Inglewood, California, reprinted in Appendix B illustrates the value of a form letter. Communicating with candidates is sometimes tedious, but it is essential to respect the dignity of the professionals involved.

In some circumstances, the search managers may follow their established procedure only to end up with no acceptable candidates. In such cases, a new search must be initiated that is shorter and more informal than the first. But when this occurs, the potential for bad feelings among candidates is great, and applicants should be given an explanation of the reasons for the departure from previously announced procedures.

Budgeting and Financing

Money for a search should be budgeted, unless the entire operation can be run from the existing civil service commission or executive's office funds. Allocations for personnel search expenses are, in some jurisdictions, difficult to obtain. Mayors and managers must sometimes dip into their office contingency funds, or go to the city council for an appropriation in order to finance such costs as travel, consultants' participation, and test administration.

The need for funding can raise major political problems. For example,

if the council is committed to an inside chief, it may refuse to finance recruiting outside the department. However, if there is any position in government where it should be politically acceptable and justifiable on policy grounds to spend money for selections it is for the critically important position of chief of police.

One source of money for some of the search functions not directly related to personnel review is the federal government. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) funds can be used to bring outside experts to a local department. Such funds are available either through discretionary grants or block grants of the local state planning agency, or through so-called technical assistance programs. Such federal funds perhaps could finance a properly structured search project, although they are more likely to be useful in the initial stages when the executive is studying the needs of the local department. Existing technical assistance, evaluation, or review programs can provide an opportunity for the executive and the search staff to discuss with consultants involved in these projects their views on the local department, its needs, and current issues in policing.

Whatever a search costs, and whatever funding sources are tapped, a budget can serve as a useful checklist for the management and structure of a search. Some or all of the following potential costs must be accounted for, depending on the scope of the search.

Advertising: Costs can vary. Advertisements are free in *Police Chief* but may cost up to several hundred dollars for several days in *The Wall Street Journal*. Costs may also include writing, designing, illustrating, printing, and mailing an attractive brochure.

Communication and Management: Costs of long distance telephone calls to candidates, reference checks, and police experts may be significant. Some funds will also be needed for written correspondence with applicants and a filing system to maintain information on all applicants.

Personnel: Budgeting for this item may be one way to obtain schedule commitments from the executive or a commitment to assign a full-time search manager to the project.

Consultants: Costs for consultants employed in recruiting, screening, or background checking vary greatly. The current LEAA government ceiling for consultants under ordinary circumstances is \$137 per day. Some consultants insist on at least \$200 a day, while others such as police officials, retirees, or academics may be willing to work for a lower rate. Consultants' expenses for such items as travel, lodging, food, and telephone calls are in addition to the daily rate.

Candidates: Travel and accommodation for candidates who are finalists (including their spouses, if they request it) should be included.

Tests: Administration of any special tests, such as the IACP Assess-

ment Center (see page 43) is sometimes a major budget item.

Background Probe: Costs of telephone calls, visits to another community (if an outsider is involved), and the time of consultants or the executive's staff should be included in the appropriate budget category geared to the anticipated number of finalists.

Qualifications and Standards for Applicants

There are three general types of qualifications established for a chief of police: (1) formal prerequisites relating to experience, minimum rank, inside status etc., set by a city charter, state or local statute, or rules of civil service; (2) informal concerns of the executive or the authority charged with selection; and (3) advertised standards, those formal criteria (including those established in law) which express the public guidelines for the position.

Traditional forms of job standards that are commonly advertised—such as minimum age and rank, number of persons under supervision, degrees, number of years of police background and command experience—are useful, if somewhat rough, indices of ability and experience. They provide easy, more or less arbitrary measures for screening out obviously unqualified persons. The danger in such arbitrary requirements, of course, is that they can be simple to a fault: standards that screen out large numbers of unsuitable candidates may also exclude a few first-rate prospects. It may be a mistake to exclude *any* category of possible candidates since many potentially outstanding police leaders have no college degree, are young, are at relatively junior ranks, or are outside the police field altogether.

The most sensible way to establish formal, public qualifications, other than those that are legally required, is to advertise them as general indicators of the selection authority's expectations, but not as absolute or rigid standards that can never be waived. Time spent on designing arbitrary standards would generally be better spent examining the police department's immediate problems and needs. If there is an opportunity to create or change formal legal qualifications for chief of police in a municipal charter, it is better to set no standards rather than to impose the ideas of today on the municipal managers of the future.

Advertising

Advertising includes newspaper or magazine announcements. It in-

volves all methods of putting the word out about a job opening and providing basic information about the job to interested parties. Little of this is necessary if there has been a decision to limit the search to insiders only.

Regardless of what approach to candidates is used, it is a useful exercise to describe in writing the city, the city government, the police department, the job and terms (salary, tenure, etc.), if only as a list of basic pieces of information that will need to be communicated to applicants. The description can be formalized as a memorandum and sent to recruiters or to candidates, as in the case of the Portland, Oregon, "Memorandum to Applicants" in Appendix D. (Note, however, the absence in this memorandum of any discussion of the search *process*. This type of descriptive information can also be included in a printed brochure, such as one prepared for Seattle, Washington. See Appendix H.)

Some executives maintain that public advertising is largely counterproductive. Their position is that advertising tends to generate names, not candidates, because most respected police leaders will respond only to a personal solicitation of interest. They note that a large number of applicants causes administrative and screening headaches. Those who hold this view usually rely exclusively on recruiting or on limited advertising in the form of a job notice to visiting police conventions or a memorandum asking prominent police and criminal justice officials to suggest candidates or to spread word of the vacancy. Response to such solicitations can be expected to be very uneven.

Public advertising has advantages overlooked by the skeptics. First, there is always the possibility of picking up one or more "sleepers" who turn out to be outstanding applicants. Second, advertising may reach minority applicants who would otherwise not know of the vacancy. Finally, advertising may be essential for smaller towns and departments, which have neither the resources to undertake large-scale recruiting nor the salary and status attractions that naturally generate interest among candidates.

Places to Advertise

Probably the single most widely read national police publication is *Police Chief*, published by the International Association of Chiefs of Police. *Police Chief* will accept advertising for police chief vacancies free of charge. The copy must reach the magazine by the first of the month prior to the month of the issue in which advertisement will appear.

State and regional criminal justice newsletters and policing magazines also generally accept advertising on a no-charge basis. Search managers can identify media that potential candidates are likely to read by asking local police and outside experts what current professional materials they read.

Depending on how widespread the search is to be, additional advertising can be placed in such national newspapers as *The Wall Street Journal* or *The New York Times*, or in major regional newspapers in areas where there may be some predictable interest in the position.

What to Advertise

An advertisement should include a brief description of the community and the position, information on how to apply or make inquiries, and whatever other information seems important for the recruiting and screening functions of the advertisement. See the samples in Appendix C.

Salary Scale

One question that always arises at the time of advertising is whether the salary is sufficient to attract high-caliber applicants. Probably the easiest method of answering this is to examine the current *Municipal Year Book*, published by the International City Management Association. This book contains a table entitled "Salaries of Municipal Officials," listing salaries of police chiefs by size of jurisdiction, form of government, geographic region, and city or suburban type. The 1974 *Municipal Year Book* also contains a compendium of retirement and pension practices by jurisdiction.

Recruiting

For searches designed to attract outsiders, recruitment is essential. Many municipal governments still suffer from the misconception that their only personnel functions are to screen and test and qualify, a notion that private industry long ago rejected. For a position as important as chief, local government ought to want to discover and attract the best chief possible. Talented police executives are not likely to walk in the door; they must be lured away from the command in which they are flourishing. A notice of application by itself is not likely to convey any sense of the challenge or benefits that would provide such a lure. The most effective way to overcome this is to use personal contacts to promote the local community and the challenge and potential of the vacant position.

A recruiter does not need to be a police professional, but such a background can be helpful in making a wide variety of contacts. It also helps establish credibility with potential candidates so that the candidate and recruiter can openly exchange information and the candidate can

honestly express reservation or interest. Professional recruiting organizations, both profit and nonprofit, are available for hire and may be useful. The choice of such an organization should depend on the search manager's direct experience with the organization or testimonials from people the manager trusts.

One aspect of recruiting which is often overlooked is the importance of an understanding by the recruiter of the city government and the local police department. A good recruiter is not someone who simply produces dozens of names of outstanding police executives. The charge is to find prospects. This task requires an ability to communicate enough information about the department and the political and social fabric of the town or city to be able to assess accurately the candidate's reaction and level of interest. It is, therefore, essential that an outside recruiter spend a few days in person learning about the department, perhaps helping the mayor or manager learn about the police agency, and discussing with the political leadership their perceptions, concerns, and priorities for the police department.

Recruiting does not end with identifying prospects. Candidates continually scrutinize the search process, the members of the interview board, and the mayor or manager. It is important to welcome visiting candidates and escort them throughout the community. One city manager has developed an effective recruiting and interviewing technique for visiting finalists. He arranges for four city department heads to each spend a half day with each candidate as a "host" showing the candidate the area, answering questions, and handling all transportation arrangements. This method enables the candidate to meet the city management team and to learn about the local government; at the same time the manager can draw on department heads for their impressions and evaluations of the candidate. See Appendix B, the form letter which informs candidates of this process.

Screening

Screening candidates involves eliminating the unwanted and focusing on the most likely possibilities. The most important method of screening is the personal interview. Other types of screening devices can be used, depending on the number and quality of applicants. For example, it would probably be superfluous to give written tests to candidates for the job of chief in a major city, because such tests could reveal nothing that would not already be obvious from the track records of the candidates likely to apply for such a position. In such cases, screening will be done by the interview and the assessment of the candidate's background and previous work. For small towns, however, the use of testing procedures can dis-

cover previously unknown talent.

Testing is too often undertaken without much thought as to its function. Candidates should not be put through a battery of tests simply because it seems the right thing to do. They should not be required to submit to elaborate written examinations simply to find out whether they can express themselves in writing. Tests and standards must be germane to the search. If the executive feels that a candidate's managerial and budgeting skills are primary considerations, it makes little sense to require years of patrol and police supervisory experience. If departmental leadership and morale-building skills are of primary concern, exercises to test a candidate's ability to write are of only peripheral value.

Screening is, in effect, an allocation of the resources of the search. The type of screening devices or criteria should vary with the stage of the process. Most time and resources will be spent in the final stages, with intensive review and negotiations to develop a complete picture of each candidate's strengths and weaknesses. However, if initial screening and recruiting fail, the intensive scrutiny at the final stages will be wasted on the wrong candidate.

The prime goal early in the search is to limit the number of finalists to a reasonable size. Actual numbers may vary, but six is probably an appropriate maximum target. Full-scale interviews with large numbers of candidates will be tiring and confusing, if not annoying, to candidates and interviewers alike.

Resumes and Applications

Many searches require applicants to complete detailed application forms, some of which may inquire too closely into the personal habits of the prospect. Since the purpose of the application is to provide a comprehensive set of facts on the applicant's background, it is usually easier to read a resume. The quality of a resume can suggest lines of further questioning. Use of a resume saves time for applicants and money for the local government by avoiding the need for special forms. Finalists can be asked to fill out a detailed application or questionnaire for purposes of checking on their background and their colleagues' and supervisors' views on their qualifications. A sample reproduced in Appendix E provides a guide to the items that a resume and application should include. This application for chief of police was devised by the St. Louis County Board of Police Commissioners for their chief search in 1972. A much simpler application form from Inglewood, California, is contained in Appendix F.

Simple resume scoring or rating systems can be devised that range from ranking the candidate in order of preference to the type of "Appraisal

Guide" used by Inglewood, California, shown in Appendix G. Those that prefer more elaborate attempts to evaluate resumes can consult "Development and Use of Weighted Application Blanks" by George England (Bulletin #55, Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 55455); or Campbell, DeWett, and Wyke on biographical scoring in *Management Effectiveness*.⁸

Written Examinations

The traditional civil service written examination is now seldom used to measure qualification for the job of police chief. Such exams are usually drawn from standard police administration texts or current department practice. They contain easily graded, multiple-choice questions, rarely rewarding conceptual or problem-solving capability.

There is some question whether written exams should be used at all. First, there is the issue of their relative value. An essay or other written examination rarely reveals more about a candidate than either a resume or personal interviews. Second, there is doubt whether writing skills or formal learning are critical elements in a chief's ability to manage a department and relate to the local community. Third, written examinations are being critically examined by courts, federal agencies, and personnel authorities for problems of cultural bias which might affect minority applicants.

While those objections have much validity, written examinations may be both useful and necessary in certain situations. Although contemporary civil service agencies are now far more flexible than before and often permit oral examinations in place of written tests, there may be regulations or statutory language which require written examinations. For example, the Cincinnati Civil Service Commission gives as much as 90 percent weight to a written examination, while the County Personnel Board for Jefferson County, Alabama (Birmingham) based 40 percent of the rating of examinations on written examinations in the police chief selection in 1972.

Written exams may be appropriate and useful even when they are not legally required. An executive of a small community may seek a chief with modern managerial capabilities. Because of the small size of the department, the chief's duties to write budget and performance analyses cannot be delegated, so an essay examination might be a useful indicator of such necessary skills. Furthermore, a small community, faced with candidates of junior rank from a variety of small departments, may see fit to test both orally and in writing each applicant's grasp of police organization principles and current issues.

⁸Campbell, DeWett, and Wyke, *Management Effectiveness*.

A properly designed written test can be particularly helpful in a situation where there are large numbers of applicants for whom the authorities want a more objective or quantifiable screening method than reviewing resumes. A short written exam mailed to applicants with a specific return date or one or two essay questions on the application form may have several uses. They can help a screening group determine whether the applicant can express himself or herself well in writing, whether the applicant can respond sensibly to practical problems, and whether the applicant has some grounding in contemporary issues of policing.

The examination used by the Santa Monica city manager in a search for a chief in 1973, reproduced in Appendix I, is a useful example of a written exam designed solely for an initial "weeding out" of obviously unqualified candidates. The examination was a "take home" examination, so that there were no costs for travel or administration of the test. The danger of "cheating" in the sense that a candidate might discuss the questions with others or have someone else write it was not a serious problem because the examination was not designed to produce the top candidate, only to determine who should move on to the next stage in the proceedings.

Some jurisdictions have used longer essay-type exams to measure written expression, clarity of thought, and professional background. The examination developed for the Mayor's Search Committee in Seattle for their 1974 police chief selection, reproduced in Appendix J, illustrates a more open-ended examination technique.

Some localities have used psychological testing procedures for chief selection. The city of Peoria, Illinois, for example, in its police chief search in 1972 sent each candidate four tests (Personality Profile, the Gordon Wunderlick IQ test, the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis Profile, and the Holland Vocational Preference Inventory) with instructions to have an independent psychologist administer the tests and return them to the city manager. The city used a personnel psychologist to evaluate the results. The usefulness of this approach is questionable. The relationship between such instruments and the job of chief is at best tenuous, particularly since there are far simpler ways to assess a candidate, such as interviews and questions to colleagues and supervisors. What, for example, does IQ add to an evaluation of the candidate's quickness, articulateness, and leadership qualities? A strong case can also be made against these tests on grounds of cultural bias. Finally, such tests can be annoying to candidates and counterproductive to any serious recruiting effort. Managers who feel strongly about the need for some form of psychological profile of a candidate would be better advised to include a personnel psychologist on an interviewing panel, rather than rely on written personality instruments.

It is advisable to avoid any quantitative weighting of various tests—

such as one-third for written exam, two-thirds for oral interview—unless local regulations require it. If taken seriously, these weights can favor candidates with qualifications that may not be critical to the job. If not taken seriously, the formulas are at best unnecessary and at most misleading and easily rigged.

Whether the written examination is devised by a consultant or by the search authorities themselves, the grading should assure impartial and objective analysis of the responses. Anonymity of the candidate-respondents should be preserved, and two or more graders (consultants, in-house people, or both) should be employed. In this way, each reply is given several different readings, and a composite score or group decision can reduce the effect of potential bias in any one grader.

The Assessment Center

The International Association of Chiefs of Police has developed a form of testing called the Assessment Center that is more sophisticated than written exams. Modeled on advanced techniques developed by private industry, the Assessment Center is an extremely thorough but expensive instrument to administer.⁹ It is best used, unlike the written exams mentioned earlier, when the field has already been narrowed to a few finalists. It is designed primarily with a medium-sized city in mind. The Assessment Center consists of a series of exercises in which applicants participate. A group of assessors ranks each candidate's performance on the basis of a large number of desirable attributes of a chief (creativity, integrity, motivation, etc.). There are four exercises:

(1) *An in-basket exercise*, in which a candidate must deal with a series of complaints, crises, appointments, political problems, internal discipline issues and the like, reflected in a pile of memos and telephone messages left in the in-basket. The way the candidate orders priorities, delegates authority, and makes appointments to vacant positions in light of the organization chart of the department is revealing of management style and philosophy. Each candidate is questioned as to reasons for the decisions made.

(2) *A "creative planning" exercise* which can be an essay relating to general challenges of the department and the candidate's resolutions, followed by an oral presentation of the candidate's program.

⁹See the descriptive article by Deborah Kent, Charles R. Wall, and Raymond L. Bailey, "Assessment Centers: A New Approach to Police Personnel Decisions," June 1974, *The Police Chief*, pp. 72-77.

(3) A "city council" leaderless group discussion in which each of the candidates is given a city department to represent in a group discussion on how to allocate one million dollars in revenue-sharing funds. Candidates are judged on the basis of how they represent their department's interests, how they affect the group's decision, and how they handle their fellow "council members."

(4) A "management cases" leadership group discussion in which candidates act as members of a top-level department board which must come to a decision in reviewing a series of contemporary policing problems, such as labor-management disputes, internal investigations, or women in policing. The performance of each individual in the group debate is carefully evaluated.

The IACP provides not only a ranking of candidates, but also an evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of each candidate. Each candidate is judged by many assessors, and there are elaborate controls and mechanisms for calculating composite scores to account for idiosyncracies of individual assessors.

The advantage of the Assessment Center technique is that it tests for qualities that most written exams never begin to uncover: management style and philosophy, and political and manipulative abilities. The exercises, along with in-depth interviews given in the assessment process, add up to an intensive review of a candidate's strengths and weaknesses as judged by a group of police professionals. Since the basic philosophies of the group of assessors are never fully explicit, it is best to use the Assessment Center as an independent confirmation of or supplement to the judgments developed through interviewing and screening.

The Assessment Center provides a thorough report on candidates' strengths and weaknesses and the chance to discuss that report and compare assessors' impressions of candidates. In most cases, however, the responsible local officials will want to determine the special qualities and strengths which best meet the local situation, and will use the ranking of candidates provided by the Assessment Center only as one factor among many.

It may be possible to adapt the in-basket exercise to a department much smaller or larger than the medium-sized agency assumed in the exercise. This possibility, along with the cost and conditions of the program, is a matter which should be discussed with the IACP Professional Standards Division.

Interviews

The art of successful interviewing is a subject well beyond the scope of this handbook. The structure and function of the interview, on the other hand, are matters of prime concern because interviews are usually decisive in choosing a chief. However, an interview should not stand alone. Some candidates who are impressive in an interview turn out badly on the job, as is well known to most officials. Interviewers should consider accumulated background information, known weaknesses, and identified points of concern to help them air the most important issues during the interview.

Who should do the interviewing? The answer usually depends on the executive's style, but some mayors and managers—even those who are ordinarily most "open" and citizen-oriented—tend to alter their method of operation when it involves politically sensitive issues like police leadership and change in the police department. Thus, many executives personally interview candidates alone. Other executives may form an interview panel whose members represent a variety of perspectives, such as other mayors or managers, police union representatives, municipal personnel officials and personnel experts from private industry, other police chiefs and experts, members of the executive's staff, police educators and experts, prominent citizens, minority representatives, business people, or city council members. The choice of an interviewing panel, its size, and its composition require a balance between the need for confidentiality and an interest in having a broad spectrum of assessments of a candidate. Mayors and managers usually select people they trust and respect or, in the case of outsiders, individuals who can be counted upon to be constructive and to keep the proceedings confidential.

How many candidates should be interviewed at one time? There is some usefulness in gathering a number of candidates and concentrating their interviews in a period of one or two days. This may economize on the time of candidates and interview boards and make comparisons among candidates somewhat easier. But such a concentrated effort under high pressure may be too hurried. It may also be difficult to schedule or to keep confidential. Many cities and towns use group interviews to good purpose. They devise a discussion among all the candidates on a specific topic, perhaps requiring that the group reach a consensus decision. The interviewers then simply watch and evaluate this group discussion to assess each candidate's skills in group leadership and persuasion. This is a slightly less structured variant of one of the exercises in the IACP Assessment Center.

Several techniques may be useful to assure consistency in interviews. When an interviewing panel is used, its members should be the same

from interview to interview, unless it is openly used simply to confirm the executive's own impressions, or unless a particular candidate requires an interviewer with some special insights or expertise. Large panels can be broken into smaller groups, each of which sees all candidates. Systems of quantitative grading, combining grades from various panels, and "form" questions (to be discussed below) are all mechanisms to counteract un-systematic and uneven evaluation that comes with long, tedious, and tiring interviews.

Ideally, the executive who must make the final choice should never completely delegate all interviewing to others. The executive should form his or her own insights on each candidate and should use the views of other interviewers to confirm, test, or extend those insights. In practice, however, many forms of delegation are used. This may arise because of civil service requirements, which may give the executive a limited number of finalists from which to pick, because of unusually good communication between the executive and some trusted agent, or because of misguided efforts to conserve the executive's time. There is, of course, no substitute for the executive's interview of finalists when a selection panel or civil service board has done initial selections.

One unusual and interesting variant of the final interview took place in Arlington, Massachusetts, where the civil service board presented the city manager with three nominees, all insiders, several months prior to the time of appointment. The manager proceeded to "interview" the candidates by having each spend two months in his office. He wanted to become better acquainted with the candidates and to see them function in a non-police environment. He provided them with liaison duties with schools, youth centers, the council on aging, the tenants' council and the like, and had each submit written reports on various police-related issues.¹⁰ In the end, the manager was not satisfied with any of the finalists, and instead created and filled a new public safety position.

A properly conducted interview at the final stage of the selection process should be insulated from all interruption and should be an intensive examination lasting at least one hour. The interview is a climactic time in the search. Both sides should prepare for it methodically and thoroughly. The interview questions should be prepared in writing and should reflect the final objectives of the authorities. It is probably sensible (depending on the local executive's style) to have one of the interviewers take notes so that the candidate's answers can be reviewed and discussed in later evaluation sessions.

¹⁰Donald R. Marquis, "Selecting a Police Chief," *Public Management*, July 1974, pp. 16-17.

There are a few basic lines of questioning. The selection authorities should determine what the candidate views as problems within the local police department, and what factors the candidate sees in the department which are favorable or which could potentially produce good results. They should ask the candidate to describe his or her own experience relevant to the job of chief, and raise any special questions that may be suggested by the resume. They should have the candidate describe personal management approaches and theories. This should include what changes, if any, the candidate feels are needed in the organization and operations of the department, and what the candidate sees as initial priorities as chief.

The authorities should ask insiders to evaluate their present colleagues within the department and to indicate what shifts might be needed should the candidate become chief. They might ask who candidates see as other potential candidates besides themselves. If asked sufficiently often of enough people within the department, this line of questioning tests whether the candidate's evaluations of others in the department reflect consensus or are unusual views. The reasoning behind the answers and the way in which the evaluations are handled—whether bluntly, tactfully, politically, compassionately, etc.—can be exceptionally revealing. This might give substance to the complaint of insiders that outsiders often have a built-in interviewing advantage as a result of their distance from the local scene.

The most important lines of questioning should focus on the areas that are of the greatest concern to the interviewers. If there is concern about how a chief will relate to the community, a variety of questions involving these issues can be phrased to elicit the candidate's attitudes toward young people, old people, minorities, ethnic groups, etc. If the executive is concerned about such issues as police training, recruiting, internal discipline, racial tensions, citizens complaints, or vice enforcement, he or she should ask those questions both directly and by means of examples or hypothetical situations.

A common and critical issue is the relationship between the chief and the executive. A candidate can be asked to define the executive's responsibilities, and the candidate can ask the executive to define the chief's responsibilities. The candidate and executive should review matters over which they should confer, how often they would confer, and what procedures are to be used for their conferences. There should perhaps be a budget problem—hypothetical or real—if funding is a potential source of conflict, such as asking what the candidate would do if the mayor ordered a 10 percent budget cut. Other types of problem situations could be outlined. For example, the candidate could be asked what he or she would do if the mayor insisted on taking a supervisory role during a street demonstration, or if the mayor wanted to veto or take a direct role in a depart-

mental personnel decision. The candidate's responses can be most revealing of basic professional and political positions and the extent of feelings about permissible political control or interference in the department.

It may be appropriate to ask what weaknesses the candidate perceives in himself or herself to test whether the candidate's self-concept contradicts the impressions the search authorities have formed. Probing weaknesses is particularly important because the chief and executive must learn how to live with or manipulate each other and to plan strategies to minimize known weaknesses.

Appendix K contains the oral interview questions prepared for the St. Louis County Board of Police Commissioners in 1972. Included is a quantitative grading system for evaluating applicants. Appendix L contains structured oral interview questions from the 1974 Seattle chief selection, which indicate patterns of follow-up and pursuing answers. Appendix M is a set of questions to finalists for police chief of Salem, Oregon, that indicate the kinds of answers or thinking expected of candidates.

As an illustration of the kind of thinking that should go into the interviewing process, Appendix O is a set of real questions prepared by a successful candidate during interviews for a large city department. The questions illustrate the chief's concern about defining with some precision the high expectations projected by the executive who was hiring the chief. These questions raise the issue constantly reiterated in this handbook, namely, the critical importance to policing and the choice of chief of the executive's active role in studying and thinking through concerns about the local department.

Background Investigation

One of the most important parts of any selection process is the background investigation of candidates. This is not as dramatic as an interview; it can be quite tedious and sometimes difficult. But undoubtedly the best way to assess a future chief is to review prior performance. The job of police chief is too important to risk designating someone who has not already demonstrated most of the needed qualities of police leadership.

One problem that arises with respect to background investigations is timing. Many candidates do not want to reveal their interest in another job, unless they are virtually assured of being offered the new position. On the other hand, it is extraordinarily helpful for the selection authorities to have more extensive information about a candidate prior to the time of their final interviews so that they can probe weaknesses, controversies, problems, and the relevance of experiences that may be important in their

selection. The way this dilemma is often resolved is by dissimulation. Calls or visits are made to the candidate's home community to inquire about some aspect of policing, such as community relations or federal programs. In the process these probes generate comments about the quality of the local police department and its leadership. Another method is to use a consultant to make inquiries about a police leader without indicating the specific client who is interested in the information. The consultant's own reputation for professionalism can generate some candid comments since the respondent is not likely to feel that it is a frivolous inquiry. The selection authorities must keep any commitments they make to a candidate respecting references and background probes. These issues ought to be openly discussed, negotiated, and clarified with all candidates.

Most candidates list personal and professional references on their resumes, and most applications include space for these names. References of this kind should be contacted largely for purposes of obtaining testimonials about the candidate. Although it is highly unlikely that such references would generate any negative comments on candidates, they may be useful in terms of suggesting other people to call, such as colleagues, former superiors, and members of the community who may have had some contact with the candidate.

There are some basic checks that must be made on candidates who may receive an offer to be chief of police: verifying educational credentials, making criminal record checks in jurisdictions where the candidate has lived, checking with the FBI for any criminal record, verifying military record, and the like.

What other elements of a candidate's background should be probed? If there are no particular areas that give rise to concern and deserve special attention, the most obvious people to contact are previous employers, employees, colleagues, and in general, people who have dealt directly with the candidate. Inquiries probably need only ask about strengths and weaknesses, attitudes displayed by the candidate, attitudes of others toward the candidate, and names of additional people who know the candidate well. How far this inquiry should go is a matter that should also be negotiated with a candidate. For example, there are some jurisdictions that may require a complete financial statement (see the St. Louis County form in Appendix E). Some executives insist on complete credit checks. Some others feel that the executive or search manager should visit the home of the candidate and meet the candidate's family. One useful source of information on a candidate who has had any visibility as a police leader in another city is the newspaper files in the home community.

The background investigation requires significant expenditure of time and effort, but it is essential for at least two reasons: it contributes to a

much more intelligent assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the individual, and it can prevent potentially embarrassing disclosures after decisions have been made. For example, the Washington, D.C., citizens committee to select a new police chief in 1974 recommended several names to the mayor for final consideration. *The Washington Post*, doing its own background check on the candidates, uncovered a mildly embarrassing instance in which one of the candidates was taken to court for failure to pay more than 30 traffic tickets.¹¹ At a minimum, the selection authorities should do the kind of background research on a candidate that the local newspapers are likely to do anyway.

Negotiation of Terms

In some searches, final interviews with the person favored for the selection amount to negotiations over terms of employment which can become a crucial stage of a search. Salary and fringe benefit demands of a candidate, issues such as an outsider's insistence on bringing to the department additional management personnel, or disputes over methods and staffing for press relations can sometimes determine the outcome of the process. Obviously these issues are best resolved if the candidate and appointing authorities raise them relatively early in the final interviewing process, so that both parties can make careful and deliberate decisions and responses.

A small number of police chiefs have entered into contracts with their employers which spell out such issues as severance pay, work hours, moving expenses, professional expenses and travel, vacation and leave, pension, retirement, and other fringe benefits. Such contracts are rare in the case of police chiefs, although an estimated one-fifth of all city managers in the United States have contracts. Clearly, however, such contracts cannot abrogate provisions of a city charter which may permit removal at the pleasure of the mayor or city council.

¹¹"Police Chief Panel Made Few Checks," *The Washington Post*, November 19, 1974, p. C1.

III. AFTER SELECTION

The Announcement, Care and Feeding of a New Chief

The public announcement of a new chief of police clearly must accord with local traditions and publicity style. Two cautions are in order. First, the mayor or manager should take pains to prepare a chief for the local press and to help anticipate questions and prepare possible responses. There is nothing more unnerving than a "bad start" that could easily have been avoided by careful preparation before the first introduction to the press. The other caution concerns those people who might be offended at not having some prior information about the selection. A chief should not have to labor under the disability of a tactless failure by the executive to inform the city council or other major political interests of the forthcoming announcement.

Similar advice applies to the new chief's breaking-in period. Obviously, an executive ought to spend a considerable amount of time reviewing with the chief operational principles and style and introducing the chief to the management of the local government. Beyond that, the chief ought to be introduced formally to major figures in the community, and given help in obtaining speaking engagements so that the chief, particularly if an outsider, can quickly establish some visibility as well as develop a sense of the political and social terrain. Some municipal executives may even wish to provide a preparatory "training period" before formal assumption of office when a chief-designate can travel, visit other departments, attend special training sessions or management programs, or explore the local department. It is at these early stages in the relationship that the problem-solving techniques, the mutual sharing of information, and the cooperative as well as independent working habits of governmental executive and police chief are established. It is thus a time when some extra care and thought can prevent a host of large and small future misunderstandings and problems.

Conclusion

To conclude this handbook, the initial warning is reiterated, namely

that there are no simple formulas or patterned instructions that will guarantee a smoothly running, successful search for a new chief of police. Some of the information in this book should have been helpful in suggesting search techniques appropriate in local circumstances. Above all, this handbook is a compendium of ideas that amount to little more than common sense, something often lost sight of in a selection as sensitive and important as chief of police. Only one feature of a search is more important than good sense, and that is hard work—work to understand the needs of the department and the community and the available opportunities for consolidation or change as well as the assets and liabilities of the candidates.

The days when political authorities could rely on finding a professional who would “take care” of policing for them have long since passed. The pressures of budgeting, personnel, and social change require police and local government management to work more closely than ever to understand each other’s perspective. This mutual recognition and partnership takes time, effort, and no small amount of patience and insight. The selection of the chief is the critical beginning in this effort.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTES

Two standard texts on police administration are the following:

International City Management Association, *Municipal Police Administration*. Seventh edition. (Chicago: International City Management Association, 1971).

Orlando W. Wilson and Roy Clinton McLaren, *Police Administration*. Third edition. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972).

Following are books on contemporary American police from varied perspectives:

Jonathan Rubenstein, *City Police*. (New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 1973). Also published in paperback (New York: Ballantine Books, 1974).

Egon Bittner, *The Functions of the Police in Modern Society: A Review of Background Factors, Current Practices, and Possible Role Models*. Service publication No. 2059. (Chevy Chase, Md.: National Institute of Mental Health, Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency, 1970).

Jerome H. Skolnick, *Justice Without Trial: Law Enforcement in Democratic Society* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966).

James Q. Wilson, *Varieties of Police Behavior: The Management of Law and Order in Eight Communities* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968). Also published in paperback (New York: Atheneum, 1970).

The following is a good summary of current issues in policing:

American Bar Association Project on Standards for Criminal Justice, *The Urban Police Function*, section 2.5. *The Urban Police Func-*

tion was approved by the American Bar Association and the International Association of Chiefs of Police.

There is virtually no literature on police chief selection, but the following pamphlets are sensible personnel handbooks:

International City Management Association, *Employment Guidelines for Urban Administrators* (Washington, D.C.: International City Management Association, 1972).

_____, *Selecting a Professional Municipal Administrator* (Washington, D.C.: International City Management Association, 1972).

ORGANIZATIONAL SOURCES OF FURTHER INFORMATION

Several projects funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration at the time of this publication provide information and other resources to local government officials interested in policing issues. They are:

- (1) The Criminal Justice Project of the National League of Cities and United States Conference of Mayors
1620 Eye Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20006
(202) 293-2945
William Drake, Director, Criminal Justice Programs
John McKay, Deputy Director, Criminal Justice Project
- (2) The Criminal Justice Project of the International City Management Association
1140 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 293-2200
Claire Rubin, Director, Contract Research Center
Al Williams, Project Manager
- (3) The Criminal Justice Program of the National Association of Counties
1735 New York Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20006
(202) 785-9577
Donald Murray, Director,
Criminal Justice Program

In addition, the Police Foundation, 1909 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006, (202)833-1460, provides information and assistance generally on a broad range of police matters of interest to local government officials.

And, finally, the International Association of Chiefs of Police has

further information about the Assessment Center program described earlier in this volume, and publishes the *Police Chief* Magazine.

International Association of Chiefs of Police
Eleven Firstfield Road
Gaithersburg, Maryland 20760
(301) 948-0922

APPENDIX A: "Evaluate Your Police
Department," article
from *Public Management*,
April 1973

Evaluate Your Police Department

The purpose of this check sheet is to allow self-evaluation of your own police department. Douglas Harman, formerly director of ICMA's Research and Development Center and now director of the Office of Research and Statistics in Fairfax County, Va., and Inspector Donald E. Reiersen of the San Diego

Police Department developed the check sheet while attending a police planning conference. Later they used it with city managers attending the ICMA law enforcement seminar in San Diego. Following the seminar, Douglas Harman revised it into its present form.

The check sheet grew out of the need to identify the factors which account for the great variations in organizational maturity found among police departments. Many inter-related factors explain the

1. Organizational Competency and Integrity

A. Corruption Corruption throughout department at all levels.	1 2 3 4 5	No corruption; honesty a completely legitimized ethic.
B. Discipline No disciplinary procedures or accountability.	1 2 3 4 5	Established and respected disciplinary procedures.
C. Due Process Selective use of law; lack of due process procedures.	1 2 3 4 5	Respect for law and due process accepted ethic.
D. Policies No written policies governing organizational behavior.	1 2 3 4 5	Written, well-understood policies consistently applied.
E. Tradition Reliance on tradition; great resistance to any change.	1 2 3 4 5	Actively question tradition; concern for creative change.
F. Professionalism Narrow enforcement view of police role.	1 2 3 4 5	Broad, flexible view of police role.
G. Training No training programs; skills passed man to man.	1 2 3 4 5	Strong training programs; emphasis on education of all types.

H. Personnel Development

No attention to personnel development needs. 1 2 3 4 5 Goal to maximize human resources.

I. Delegation

No delegation of decision-making responsibility. 1 2 3 4 5 Functional delegation of decisionmaking.

J. Planning

No management planning or research activities. 1 2 3 4 5 Effective management planning and research.

2. External Relationships

A. Secretiveness

Refusal to disclose information on police programs. 1 2 3 4 5 Willingness to provide information on police programs; attitude of nothing to hide

B. Manager-Police Dept. Relationship

Generally opposes city manager; hostility between the police and manager's office. 1 2 3 4 5 City manager viewed as valuable partner; close working relationship

C. Political Pressure

Strongly reactive to partisan political pressures. 1 2 3 4 5 Professionally independent from partisan political pressure

D. Public Relations

No public relations skills; no concern for public relations. 1 2 3 4 5 Sophisticated in dealing with public.

Interpretation:

The most important payoff from use of the evaluation check sheet should be analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of your department.

Any factors receiving scores lower than 3 should be considered carefully, and possible plans for improvement should be developed. The managers using the check sheet at ICMA seminars scored their

departments low on effectiveness because of lack of creativity, opposition to change, and organizational inflexibility.

Leadership is the key to improving police effectiveness. City or county managers must work with the police departments and encourage improved organizational systems. They also must appoint dynamic officers to command positions who have

differences between departments, and the check sheet seeks to identify the most important, broken into three areas: 1) organizational competency and integrity, 2) external relationships, and 3) organizational effectiveness. The managers who used the check sheet in San Diego ranked their departments highest on organizational competency and integrity and lowest on organizational effectiveness.

Instructions

Review the factors prior to completing the check

E. Community Relations

No effort to take the police into communities; unresponsive to community relations	1	2	3	4	5	Recognition of the need to have police as partner in community life.
--	---	---	---	---	---	--

F. Trust

No trust in out- to groups; police isolate themselves from other municipal agencies	1	2	3	4	5	Trust in outside agencies and groups.
---	---	---	---	---	---	---------------------------------------

3. Organizational Effectiveness

A. Motivation

Low motivation; minimum tasks performed	1	2	3	4	5	High motivation; police initiate improvements
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

B. Creativeness

Uncreative; unable to institute change	1	2	3	4	5	Creative; new programs and procedures developed
--	---	---	---	---	---	---

C. Change Agents

Police hostile to persons advocating change.	1	2	3	4	5	Persons advocating change considered valuable resource for the department
--	---	---	---	---	---	---

D. Risk Taking

No risk taking; strong fear of failure	1	2	3	4	5	Smart risk taking; confidence in ability to manage change
--	---	---	---	---	---	---

sheet. Score each factor on the 5-point scale: 1 is the lowest score, 5 the highest, and 3 the mid-point. Compute the average score for each of the three categories and compare them. The check sheet treats each factor equally, and, consequently, each individual using the sheet should consider whether certain factors should be given additional weight because of local conditions. The check sheet is an experimental tool meant to raise important issues and stimulate frank discussion among persons interested in strengthening police departments.

E. Organizational Flexibility

Inflexible organization; departmental units have narrow view of their responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	Appropriate, flexible organization; functions change according to needs.
--	---	---	---	---	---	--

F. Leadership

Style of leadership not suited to needs of the department and the community.	1	2	3	4	5	Leadership style enhances the progress of organization and is responsive to the community.
--	---	---	---	---	---	--

G. Community Awareness

Isolated, unresponsive to community needs; department rejects community input.	1	2	3	4	5	Service ethic; actively interested in public attitudes.
--	---	---	---	---	---	---

H. Resources

Suspicious of outside resources.	1	2	3	4	5	Wise use of all resources; anxious to gain assistance from other agencies.
----------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	--

I. Use of Civilians

No civilians allowed in the police department; strict use of sworn officers only.	1	2	3	4	5	Use of civilians promoted; civilians welcomed by police department.
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

J. Technology

Out-of-date technology used; no familiarity with modern technology	1	2	3	4	5	Modern technology effectively applied by the department
--	---	---	---	---	---	---

APPENDIX B: Form Letter to Finalists from City Administrator, Inglewood, California, 1971

the capacity to influence police services in positive ways.

The local managers who have used the check sheet identified important problems in the external relations of their departments. Departments too often are secretive and unwilling to work closely with other local government agencies. Questions of organizational integrity, including corruption, led

to vigorous discussions when the sheet was used. Police are in sensitive positions, and their conduct must be free from any corruption if they are to carry on their many important duties.

Because of the importance of the police service, these departments must be evaluated carefully, and this check sheet provides a structured method of reviewing the critical aspects of the police function. □



CITY OF INGLEWOOD CALIFORNIA

CIVIC CENTER
105 EAST QUEEN STREET / INGLEWOOD CALIFORNIA 90301

January 27, 1971

Dear :

As you were informed by telegram on Saturday morning, January 23, you are one of the finalists in the selection process for the next Police Chief for the City of Inglewood.

You were selected from eighteen semi-finalists by a seven-member resume and written examination review board. Your application, resume of experience and training, and your written responses to questions sent you in early December were extensively reviewed, discussed, and ranked by this seven-member board. The resume and the written examination were ranked separately, with the examination material being graded by your identification number only.

For your information, the written review board consisted of Covina Police Chief Fred Ferguson; Hollywood Park Assistant General Manager Thore Brekke; Bryman School Director Nate Jackson; Claremont City Manager Keith Mulrooney; former Los Angeles City Deputy Police Chief James Fisk; Inglewood Fire Chief Joe Smith; and Howard H. Earle, Chief of the Administrative Division, Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department.

You are now invited to be hosted by the City of Inglewood beginning at 9:00 a.m., Thursday, February 18. A City department head will meet you in my office to show you around the City, answer your specific questions or find answers for you, and will then forward you to another department head who will give you a rundown from his professional point of view. The same process will be repeated on Friday, but with the exception that you will spend between one and one-and-one-half hours with the seven member oral interview board. Membership of this board is different from the previously mentioned written board.

It is important that you plan to attend both days inasmuch as it will give you an opportunity to have a better insight into Inglewood's operations, our community, and our needs. We will also be able to answer your specific questions about fringe benefits, living conditions, and the like. We will be able to indicate to you by late Friday, February 19, whether or not

OFFICE OF
DOUGLAS W. AYRES
CITY ADMINISTRATOR

TELEPHONES: 213/674-2111
LOS ANGELES 213/670-2221

1
you are a prime candidate to be selected as the next Police Chief of Inglewood. If you are, we will ask you to either return or stay over to be interviewed by the Inglewood City Council at 10:00 a.m. the morning of Saturday, February 20. Depending on the outcome of the oral interview, we may ask as many as three to stay over for this final interview.

Between now and February 19, highly discreet and confidential inquiries are being made about you. Under no circumstances will your name be divulged to anyone until the position is offered and accepted by you. We will then make the final verification and background checks prior to the formal joint announcement.

We're looking forward to seeing you. Should you desire any additional information, please call me or Personnel Director Gary C. Foss. If you incur expenses incidental to your participation in our final selection process, please submit a statement to me and we will immediately reimburse you.

Douglas W. Ayres
City Administrator

DWA:ma

APPENDIX C: Advertisements for Chief
of Police, *Police Chief*
Magazine, 1974-75

(The following examples of advertisements taken from "Positions Open" did not necessarily appear together and were taken from several different issues of *Police Chief*.)

These notices are published without charge as a service to the police profession on basis of information furnished the IACP.

If no closing date is given it is assumed the position will be open at least during the month of this issue.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Farmington, New Mexico. Population approximately 28,000; budget \$861,683. Responsibility for operation of police department under general direction of city manager. Position requires strong leadership, extensive knowledge of modern police administration, and ability to innovate programs. College-level training in law enforcement, administration, and considerable previous command experience preferred. Salary depending upon qualifications \$1256 to \$1682 per month with excellent fringe benefits. Apply by résumé to: C. M. Woodbury, City Manager's Office, P.O. Box 900, Farmington, New Mexico 87401.

POLICE CHIEF, Boulder City, Nevada. Salary \$16,562 to \$18,148. Requires experience and training in modern techniques and supervisory service. Minimum ten years of experience. Apply to: City Manager, P.O. Box 367, Boulder City, Nevada 89005, or telephone 702/293-4302 not later than *July 31, 1975.*

CHIEF OF POLICE, Savannah, Georgia. Police department has 300 employees and an operating budget of \$4.3 million. Present salary range, \$18,722 to \$21,151. Benefits include pension plan, health and hospital insurance. Applicants must have law enforcement experience at the administrative or management level. Bachelor's or higher degree in police administration or related field preferred. Position is in the unclassified service of the city. Appointment is by the city manager. A number of the top candidates will be invited to participate in an assessment center procedure to be conducted in Savannah by the IACP to assist the manager in final selection. Application deadline is *September 1, 1975.* Send résumé to: A. A. Mendonsa, City Manager, City of Savannah, Box 1027, Savannah, Georgia 31402.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Meriden, Connecticut. Population 58,000. Salary, \$15,850 to \$20,052. Responsible for 100-man department. Must have extensive experience in modern police work which has afforded progressively supervisory experience in several police specialties, supplemented by completion of approved course work in police administration, police science, or related fields. EOE. Send letter of application and résumé to: Edward J. Papandrea, Director of Personnel, City Hall, Meriden, Connecticut 06450.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Englewood, Colorado. A major commercial/residential Denver suburb of 35,000. Department has operating budget of \$1.5 million; 65 sworn and 27 civilian personnel. Candidates must possess bachelor's degree in police science or related field and a minimum of five years of supervisory experience. Good public relations and proven administrative ability are a must. Salary range, \$1,664 to \$1,923 per month, plus excellent fringe benefit package. Closing date for applications is *August 1, 1975.* Send résumé to: Andy McCown, City Manager, City of Englewood, 3400 South Elati St., Englewood, Colorado 80110.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Barrington, Illinois. An established community of 10,000 in the northwest suburbs of Chicago, with diversified economy employing 8,000 and a large commuter population. Present police chief is retiring. Requires extensive law enforcement experience with a minimum of three years in a supervisory or administrative capacity. College degree preferred but a combination of extensive law enforcement schooling with progressively responsible work experience will receive equal consideration. Some experience in intergovernmental relations will be helpful. Department comprised of 18 sworn and six civilian personnel; presently expanding to offer contractual services to other communities in the area and will be expanding force during the year; \$600,000 budget. Selections and promotions conducted by Board of Fire and Police Commissioners. Since 1964, village has operated under modified council-manager form of government; village president is appointing authority for the police chief. Salary range, \$21,000 to \$26,000; present salary \$22,500. Psychological interview and polygraph testing will be conducted for final applicants. Send résumé to: Director John D. Madl, Police Service Bureau, Illinois Association of Chiefs of Police, 120 West Eastman Ave., Arlington Heights, Illinois 60004.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Sewickley, Pennsylvania. Wanted for 12-man force in attractive 6,500 population suburb of Pittsburgh. Career opening at excellent salary and benefits. Send confidential full résumé, salary requirement, to: Police Committee, Municipal Building, Sewickley, Pa. 15143. Those with present location within 350 mile radius preferred. EOE.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Forest Park, Illinois. Population 15,472. To command 30 police officers and six civilians. Appointed by council of mayor and commissioners. Salary range \$17,800 to \$20,000. Applicant must have extensive law enforcement experience, particularly at the administrative and management level. College preferred but applicants with extensive law enforcement schooling and training will receive equal consideration. Applicant chosen for position will support community and its activities. Complete physical examination. Submit résumé in confidence with recent photo to: William R. McKenzie, Village Clerk, Village of Forest Park, 517 Desplaines Ave., Forest Park, Illinois 60130.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Camden, Arkansas. Progressive community of 17,000, located in scenic south-central Arkansas, seeks a highly trained person who is capable of developing a professional police force and sound community relations, and who has a record of successful application of modern management techniques. Chief is responsible for the planning, development, and direction of a complete program of police administration and law enforcement services in a department consisting of 24 uniformed and six civilian personnel. Candidates should have a minimum of five years of progressively responsible law enforcement experience and demonstrated supervisory and administrative ability. Salary negotiable depending upon education and experience. Full range of fringe benefits. Send current résumé, including salary history, to: John L. Bloomberg, City Manager, City of Camden, P.O. Box 278, Camden, Arkansas 71701.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Burbank, Illinois. This city, population 32,000, is creating its own police department after four years of contract law enforcement since its incorporation in 1970. Burbank is a suburb of Chicago, located in southern Cook County. Nearly 50 percent of its population is under twenty years old. The city seeks an aggressive and progressive chief of police with a particular emphasis on youth orientation. The chief will build the department with an initial anticipated complement of 20 to 30 officers. Applicants should have at least six years of progressively responsible supervisory and administrative experience in municipal police work, with at least two years of command experience. Associate or four-year degree in law enforcement or related areas, with special emphasis on youth problems preferred. Salary open. Send résumé, before February 15, 1975, to: Chief Arthur G. Hess, Chairman, Police Selection Committee, 960 State National Bank Plaza, Evanston, Illinois 60201.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Greenwood, South Carolina. Established community of approximately 22,000; 55 police employees. Must have extensive law enforcement experience,

particularly at the administrative and management level. College degree preferred but applicant with extensive law enforcement experience, schooling, and training will receive equal consideration. Police chief reports directly to the city manager. Salary negotiable. Submit résumé no later than January 1, 1975, to: R. Travis Higginbotham, City Manager, P.O. Box 40, Greenwood, South Carolina 29646.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Wauconda, Illinois. Village of 6,000 in northern Illinois needs chief of police. Twelve-man force; salary \$17,088. Send résumé to: John E. Dianis, Mayor, Village of Wauconda, 100 Main St., Wauconda, Illinois 60084.

CHIEF OF POLICE, Burbank, California. Seeking applicants with necessary academic training, technical experience, and demonstrated effectiveness in innovative team management of a law enforcement agency employing at least 100 sworn personnel. Requires ten years full-time, paid experience at level of captain or higher. Must hold, or be qualified to hold, an Advanced P.O.S.T. Certificate by the close of the filing period. Salary, \$33,204. Applications received after November 30, 1975, will be held pending need. Apply: Personnel Department, City of Burbank, P.O. Box 6459, Burbank, CA 91510. (213/847-9721)

CHIEF OF POLICE, Emporia, Kansas. Desired qualifications: five years of administrative experience in law enforcement; graduation from accredited college or university; however, experience in combination with college work or professional training may be considered; and understanding of law enforcement structure and administrative techniques and practices. For application and further information, write to: Personnel Officer, City of Emporia, P.O. Box 928, Emporia, Kansas 66801.

PUBLIC SAFETY DIRECTOR, Haverford Township, Pennsylvania. Suburban community adjacent to Philadelphia, population 57,000, area ten square miles. Salary range \$19,000 to \$22,000. Requires college degree or equivalent work experience, at least ten years of experience in the public safety field, a strong leadership and administrative abilities, and working knowledge of modern public safety techniques. Duties include command of 70 uniformed police and attached civilian personnel, coordinating a volunteer firefighter program, civil defense operation, and other related activities. Applications will not be accepted after December 31, 1974, and may be submitted to: Personnel Director, Haverford Township, 2325 Darby Rd., Havertown, Pennsylvania 19083.

APPENDIX D: Memorandum to Applicants for the Position of Chief of the Portland, Oregon, Police Bureau, 1973

1. *Portland, Oregon*

Portland is a city of about 385,000 people situated within a fast-growing metropolitan area of about 1,000,000 people in northern Oregon. It is the commercial, cultural, transportation, and industrial center of the state, the site of a major port situated on the Willamette River near the Columbia River. The city is a prosperous, largely "middle class" community with a strong and diversified economic base. The clean and attractive appearance of the city and the close access to the mountains, the Columbia River valley and the Pacific Coast help to make the city a major tourist and convention center.

2. *Government in Portland*

Portland is the only major American city with the "Commission" form of local government. The Mayor and the four commissioners (all elected at large) are both executives and legislators: they head the various departments of the city and, as a group, form the City Council. By tradition, and by choice of the incumbent, the Portland Police Bureau is situated in a department headed by the Mayor.

Portland has developed several forms of cooperative consolidation with Multnomah County (population outside the city is 176,000) and a City-County Charter Commission is now holding hearings on a draft charter merging the city and county general governments. It is anticipated that a charter providing for a strong chief executive (a "strong mayor" form of government) will be submitted to the voters in May of 1974 and, if approved, will be put into effect in January of 1975.

3. *The Portland Police Bureau*

The Portland Police Bureau, with 739 sworn officers and 945 em-

ployees, operates on an annual budget (1973) of \$16.4 million dollars, up 27 percent from the previous year. Police are the largest single department in the city government in terms of expenditures, representing just under one-quarter of the entire city budget. Something of the arrest and crime activity in the city is illustrated in the Police Bureau 1972 Reports attached to this memorandum.

The command organization of the department was reorganized in the summer of 1973 as illustrated in the following diagram (see p 1A).

The present Chief of the Bureau, Donald I. McNamara announced his plans to retire as Chief in July of 1973 under the provisions of the newly enacted in-grade retirement plan passed by the City Council. Two of the three former deputy chiefs (under the old Bureau organizational structure) have announced their retirement, and the third deputy is expected to retire when he becomes eligible in January of 1974.

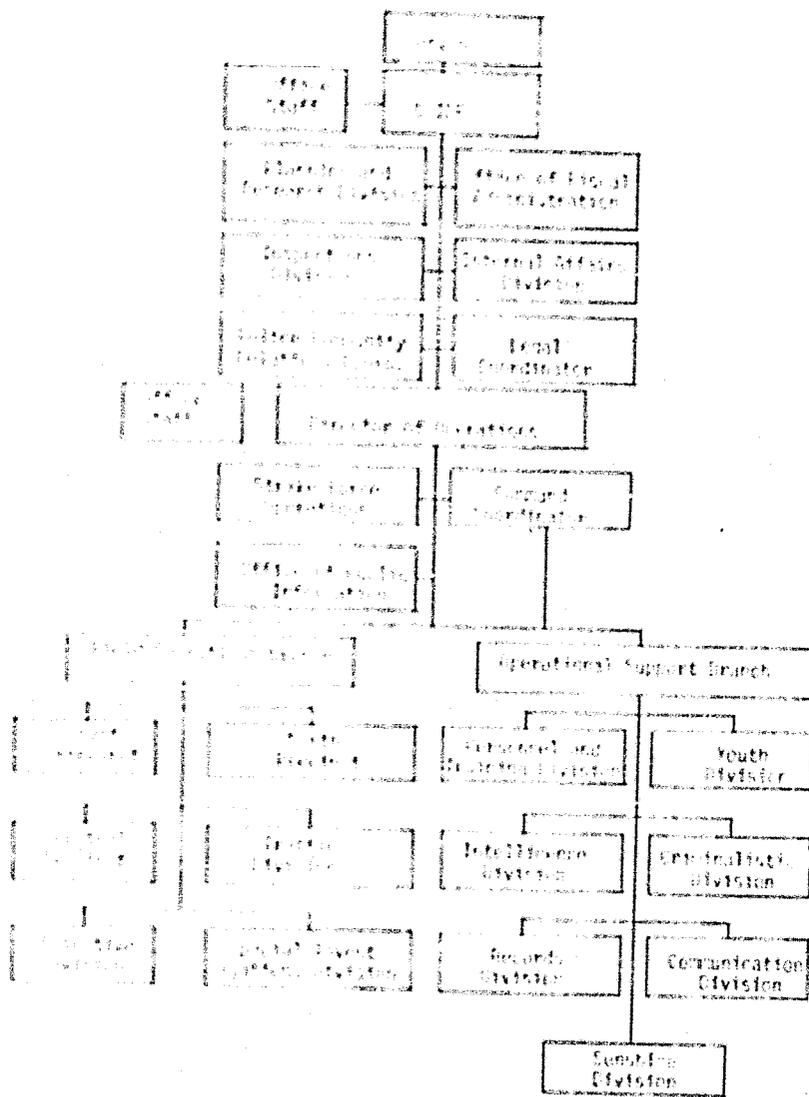
The Police Bureau has a reputation for effective and honest law enforcement, as well as a cooperative attitude toward other criminal justice agencies. The educational level and quality of Bureau personnel and management is high, due in part to the Bureau requirement that officers must have completed at least two years of college within five years of service. The police union is an aggressive bargaining agent and has the reputation of being a progressive and positive force for improvement in the department. A copy of the most recent union contract is attached to this memorandum. The Bureau has five Black officers while 5 percent of the city's population is Black.

4. *Some Recent Developments of Importance to the Portland Bureau*

There is no lack of new funding and new activity in the department. The number and the scale of projects presents the opportunity to initiate change in the Bureau as well as the challenge of controlling and orchestrating so much activity.

The major developments of significance are:

- A) *Reorganization of the Bureau.* Positions noted on the organization chart have been filled with interim appointees awaiting the selection and arrival of the new chief. This reorganization had been under discussion since early in 1972, when proposals for the Bureau's Impact operation (see D below) generated signifi-



staff issues with respect to the Bureau's management structure.

- B. *Police Sheriff Consolidation.* Should the voters approve the proposed new Clatsop County combined charter in May of 1974, a consolidated government would presumably be in operation in January of 1975. In preparation for such a possibility, the city and county have obtained a \$100,000 grant from LEAA to plan for consolidation of the two police agencies. The project director, Mr. John Angell, formerly of the Dayton, Ohio, Police Department, began work on this effort in June of 1973.

The Department of Public Safety of Multnomah County has about 200 sworn personnel out of 350 employees. The budget for the department in 1972 was approximately five million dollars. The Sheriff's office is perhaps best known as being the first local law enforcement agency in the county to require a college degree as a condition of employment.

- C. *The "Resource Maximization" Project* is funded with a \$50,000 LEAA grant and blessed with a rather open-ended description of the program. In simple terms, it makes available to the Chief of Police as Project Director, over a 24-month period, \$12,000 for travel of Bureau personnel to other departments to learn of new developments in policing, \$20,000 for management consultant work, and two personal staff positions (a Special Assistant and an Aide) in order "to achieve improvements in the administration of police functions."

- D. *The Impact Program.* Portland is one of eight "Impact" cities in the nation that have been promised twenty million dollars over a three-year period to launch a major effort against certain serious "street" crimes (murder, robbery, rape, and aggravated assault between strangers) and burglary. The Portland Impact program calls for the allocation of almost 70 percent of the funds to adult and juvenile corrections activities, and a considerable amount of funding for prevention activities like street lighting, youth diversion, and citizen-oriented crime prevention.

The police component of the Portland Impact plan consists of the development of a special "Strike Force" section reporting to the Bureau's Director of Operations that will give special direction and guidance, through the field operations and precinct structure, to

teams of police officers, on overtime, specially deployed to combat burglary and robbery by saturating high-crime areas. Extension and development of mobile crime laboratory facilities will increase investigative capabilities, and the installation of series of silent alarms will be coordinated with the efforts of burglary teams. A complete modern land mobile radio communications system will be installed in the Bureau. Total funding is \$1.5 million for the first year, and a projected \$4.1 million over a three-year period. Special mention should be made of a reservation of \$750,000 of Impact funds under the project title of "Police Models" to permit "implementation of innovative policing models" based on the experience of the Strike Force, communications installation, and police-sheriff consolidation efforts.

- E) *The DUIIL Program.* The Federal Department of Transportation has funded a \$114,600 program in the Bureau to detect drunk driving and reduce accidents caused by drunk drivers.
- F) *The Columbia Regional Information Sharing System (CRISS).* The CRISS system is part of the state connection with NCIC in Washington, D.C., and the Bureau has a \$55,000 grant to implement a section of the information system in the department.
- G) *Other grants* include a \$12,800 negligent homicide investigative project, a minority recruitment program (\$30,000), the DALE program (\$30,000) and an LEAA-funded (\$236,000) regional narcotics unit.

5. *The Terms of Employment of Chief.*

The Chief of the Police Bureau is exempt by law from the rights and requirements of the Portland civil service system. The Chief is required by the City charter to have had "at least ten years active police experience". He is appointed by the Mayor and is accountable to, and serves at the pleasure of, the Mayor. The annual salary for the position is \$26,000, but legislation is now under consideration which would raise the salary limits beyond this figure. Retirement is permitted at age 55 after 30 years of service with pension benefits equal to ___ percent of the average salary of the last two years of employment in the Bureau.

6. *The Mayor and his Priorities in Policing.*

Policing and Criminal Justice problems have been high priorities for Mayor Goldschmidt in his personal and political career. Until 1971, when he ran for City Council, the Mayor was an attorney for the Legal Aid Society. Although Legal Aid in Portland does not handle criminal defense work, the Legal Aid experience did increase his awareness of police-community problems in the city. While he was a member of the City Council, Goldschmidt became intimately involved in criminal justice issues: he led the successful effort to consolidate the courts; prosecution, detention and probation agencies of the city and county, and he was head of the city LEAA and Impact efforts and is still the city's representative on the Oregon Law Enforcement Council, the State Planning Agency responsible for the allocation and planning of LEAA funding.

When he announced and ran for Mayor, Goldschmidt was identified politically as a police-concerned candidate, something of a departure from the Portland tradition of Fire Department-oriented mayors. Goldschmidt was elected Mayor in May of 1972 as a result of receiving a plurality of the votes in the elimination primary, and when he was Mayor-elect, he undertook from the retiring Mayor the job of Public Safety Commissioner.

The Mayor's priorities with respect to police are reflected in the departmental reorganization. He supports simplification of the command structure to focus accountability; abolition of a separate police-community relations program in favor of the infusion (as a matter of command policy) of community relations attitudes in the operational structures of the department; the integration of internal inspections, citizen complaint response, and planning and research into the policy-making structure of the Chief's office; and broadening decision-making authority to permit a higher degree of responsibility on the part of precinct commanders and officers in the field.

The Mayor has particular interest in measures affecting relationships between the police and the communities they serve, e.g., the extent to which police understand and utilize other components of the social services system, the nature of police training and attitude formation with respect to community life, and the recruitment of minorities and women into the department. He is less committed to a particular model of police organization and activity than to the critical importance of a Chief who demonstrates effective management skills and who shares some of his primary policy concerns.

APPENDIX E: Application for the Position of Superintendent of Police, St. Louis County, Missouri, 1972

Social Security No. _____

Mr. _____
Mrs. _____
Miss _____

Are you an American citizen? Yes No

DATE _____

MIDDLE _____

FIRST _____

LAST _____

Address _____ STREET _____ CITY _____ STATE _____ ZIP _____

APPLICATION
for the position of
SUPERINTENDENT OF POLICE

Office of Executive Secretary to the
Board of Police Commissioners
Post Office Box 11528
St. Louis, Missouri 63105



INSTRUCTIONS

Type or print. Complete the application thoroughly and accurately.
If any questions do not apply to you indicate by entering N/A.
Attach additional sheets in instances where insufficient space is
provided in the application for you to complete your answer.

(NOTICE: The completion of this application authorizes the St. Louis
County Police Department to conduct an extensive background
investigation of the applicant.)

EDUCATIONAL STATUS

2

Type of School	Name and Address of School	Courses Majored in	Check Last Year Completed				Graduate? Give Degree		Last Year Attended
			5	6	7	8	Yes	No	
Elementary							Yes	No	19
High School			1	2	3	4	Yes	No	19
College			1	2	3	4			19
Graduate School			1	2	3	4			19
Business or Trade School			1	2	3	4			19
Corresp. or Night School			1	2	3	4			19

ARE YOU TAKING COURSES AT PRESENT TIME? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>	Enter foreign languages and indicate your knowledge of each by placing "X" in proper columns.	Reading		Speaking		Understanding		Writing	
		Excl	Good/Fair	Excl	Good/Fair	Excl	Good/Fair	Excl	Good/Fair
WHERE?	MAJOR								

HEALTH STATUS

Height Ft in. Weight lbs. Are you in good health? Yes No Date of birth

Do you have now, or have you ever had any of the following ailments? Yes No If yes, indicate which

High Blood Pressure Heart Trouble Nervous Disorders Ulcers Epilepsy Tuberculosis Hernia

Arthritis or Rheumatism Back Injury Varicose veins Diabetes Have you any handicaps in the following:

Hearing Speech Feet Hands Sight Any serious illness, injury, or operation? Have you ever been injured on the job?

Date of last physical examination? Are you willing to submit to physical examination?

MARITAL STATUS

Single Married Separated Divorced Widowed

Number of Children Ages

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

If single, are you engaged to be married?

If married, name of spouse Spouse's age

In case of emergency or accident whom shall we notify? (other than spouse) Name

Address Relationship Telephone Number

MILITARY RECORD

Have you served in the U.S. Armed Forces? Yes, No. (If yes) In what branch did you serve?

Dates on active duty: From / / 19 To / / 19 Rank at discharge

Type of discharge Overseas Service

Are you a member of an active reserve organization or national guard?

Special Training Received

Are you now, or have you ever been a member of or sympathetic with any organization cited as subversive by the Attorney General of the U.S.?

If yes, explain

ECONOMIC STATUS

Do you rent? House ; hotel ; apt. ; room private home ; own home .

Is your spouse employed? No, Yes. What kind of work?

Name of employer How many people are dependent upon you for support?

Do you carry life insurance? Amount \$ Has your application for surety bond ever been declined?

Do you own a car? Make Model Year

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL STATUS

Have you ever held leadership position in social, fraternal, or civic organizations? Yes No If so, what?

Have you ever been arrested, charged, or held by any law enforcement agency (federal, local, or military)? for other than a minor traffic violation? Yes No (If "yes" give details)

Hobbies or interests (past and present)

Father: Name Address City/State Living Yes No

Mother: Name Address City/State Living Yes No

What is (was) your father's vocation, position or business? mother's?

If related to anyone in our employ, state name and department

EMPLOYMENT RECORD

List your present employment followed by the history of changes in title and employment with dates of each change.

Employer's Name	Your Title	Date - Mo. Yr.	Mo. Yr.
Address	Reason for leaving	From	To
Work Description	Salary per Month: First		Last
	<input type="checkbox"/> Full Time		
	<input type="checkbox"/> Part Time	Hrs. per week	
Title & name of Supervisor			
Supervisory: Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>			
Employer's Name	Your Title	Date - Mo. Yr.	Mo. Yr.
Address	Reason for leaving	From	To
Work Description	Salary per Month: First		Last
	<input type="checkbox"/> Full Time		
	<input type="checkbox"/> Part Time	Hrs. per week	
Title & name of Supervisor			
Supervisory: Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>			
Employer's Name	Your Title	Date - Mo. Yr.	Mo. Yr.
Address	Reason for leaving	From	To
Work Description	Salary per Month: First		Last
	<input type="checkbox"/> Full Time		
	<input type="checkbox"/> Part Time	Hrs. per week	
Title & name of Supervisor			
Supervisory: Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>			

SUPERVISORY RECORD

List the information requested concerning each position you have held in which you had supervisory responsibilities. If you have worked in more than one organization, indicate each organization and the data separately. Under the column heads "Nature of Positions Supervised" list appropriate terms as indicated by the following: administrative, supervisory, technical, investigative, patrol, clerical, etc.

POSITION HELD	PERIOD POSITION HELD		NUMBER OF POSITIONS SUPERVISED	NATURE OF POSITIONS SUPERVISED
	FROM	TO		

ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE

- Have you designed or performed any major administrative or systems analysis studies? Yes No
If yes, explain _____

- Describe your experience, if any, in the preparation of operational and capital budgets. _____

- Describe your experience, if any, in planning and/or directing community relations programs. _____

- Have you had experience in designing or working with computer based records and statistics systems? Yes No
If yes, explain _____

- In your _____ years of administrative and supervisory experience, you have recommended disciplinary measures against _____ persons of whom _____ were actually disciplined.
- In your _____ years of administrative and supervisory experience, you have recommended the dismissal of _____ persons, of whom _____ were actually dismissed.

ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE (Cont.)

7. State briefly your opinion of formal performance evaluation systems and their appropriateness for use in determining salary increases and promotions. _____

RESIDENCES

PRESENT: (DAYS) FROM _____ TO _____ TELEPHONE NO. _____ NUMBER & STREET _____ CITY & STATE _____ ZIP CODE _____

NEXT PREVIOUS: FROM _____ TO _____ TELEPHONE NO. _____ NUMBER & STREET _____ CITY & STATE _____ ZIP CODE _____

NEXT PREVIOUS: FROM _____ TO _____ TELEPHONE NO. _____ NUMBER & STREET _____ CITY & STATE _____ ZIP CODE _____

PERMANENT ADDRESS: Enter what you consider your permanent home address if different from present address. _____ NUMBER & STREET _____ CITY & STATE _____ ZIP CODE _____

REFERENCES

List three persons who are NOT related to you and who have definite knowledge of your qualifications and fitness for the position for which you are applying. Do not repeat names of supervisors.

Name	Business or Profession	Position	Address	Telephone	How long Known
1. _____					
2. _____					
3. _____					

List three personal references who are not related to you.

4. _____					
5. _____					
6. _____					

PRE-EMPLOYMENT STATEMENT

I certify that to the best of my knowledge the foregoing statements and medical history information given by me are accurate and complete. I understand that any misrepresentation or omission by me herein will be sufficient cause to eliminate me as a candidate for the position.

Signature _____ Date _____

CONTINUED

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