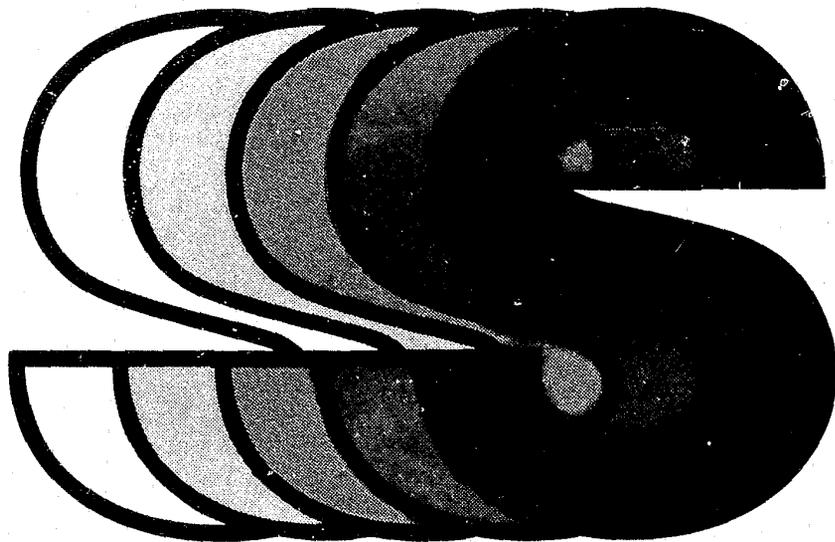


The National Manpower Survey of the Criminal Justice System

Executive Summary

45597



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



March 1978

The National Manpower Survey of the Criminal Justice System

Executive Summary

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



National Institute of Law Enforcement and
Criminal Justice
Blair G. Ewing, Acting Director

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
James M.H. Gregg, Acting Administrator

This project was supported by Contract Number J-LEAA-035-74 awarded to the National Planning Association, Washington, D. C., by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U. S. Department of Justice, under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U. S. Department of Justice.

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D.C. 20402

Stock No. 027-000-00642-6

FOREWORD

The criminal justice system is a labor-intensive enterprise, vital to the nation and beset with manpower problems. One of the most recent attempts to help alleviate some of the problems was the National Manpower Survey. The Congressional mandate for this survey was written in 1973; the survey was begun in 1974 and completed last year.

This Executive Summary briefly describes the study, its findings, and recommendations. The survey results do not provide final answers to all of the manpower issues. In particular, the assumptions built into the model for projecting manpower requirements may have to be modified in light of additional experience. Nevertheless, the Institute believes the study represents a significant advance in the tools available to deal with manpower problems. We hope it will be of value to the many hundreds of state and local officials who must plan for manpower needs.

Blair G. Ewing
Acting Director
National Institute of Law Enforcement
and Criminal Justice

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A. THE NATIONAL MANPOWER SURVEY (NMS)

The National Manpower Survey of the Criminal Justice System was conducted in response to a requirement included in the 1973 Amendments to the Safe Streets Act which provided for a survey of "existing and future personnel needs of the Nation in the field of law enforcement and criminal justice and the adequacy of Federal state, and local programs to meet such needs." Major study objectives were:

- o To assess the adequacy of current personnel resources of law enforcement and criminal justice agencies and to project future manpower needs;
- o To assess training and educational needs in law enforcement and criminal justice occupations, and the adequacy of existing training and educational programs in relation to these needs;
- o To recommend priorities for allocation of LEAA funds for training and academic assistance;
- o To design procedures for use in criminal justice manpower planning, including manpower projection models and data collection methods; and
- o To identify any other needed changes in personnel policies and procedures to improve system performance.

The study incorporates findings based on an extensive data collection program including:

- o Comprehensive questionnaire surveys of about 8,000 executives of state and local agencies -- police chiefs, sheriffs, prosecutors, public defenders, court administrators, wardens, juvenile corrections administrators and heads of probation and parole offices;
- o A mail survey of over 1,600 state trial and appellate courts;
- o A mail survey of over 250 law enforcement academies;
- o An analysis of the results of a 1975 Census survey of nearly 50,000 employees of state and local law enforcement and criminal justice agencies;

- o Field visits to more than 250 agencies and training or educational institutions.

In addition, the NMS study staff received valuable advice and assistance from its 10-member Advisory Board, from over 100 criminal justice officials and experts who participated in various panel groups, from LEAA national office and regional staffs, and from staff of state criminal justice planning agencies.

B. CURRENT PERSONNEL NEEDS AND RESOURCES

Nearly 1.0 million personnel were employed in state and local criminal justice agencies in 1974, the base year of the NMS assessment.

- o Over 580,000 were employed in police protection agencies, of whom about 80 percent were sworn officers.
- o Over 190,000 were in courts, prosecution and legal services, and indigent defense agencies, including about 28,000 judges and other judicial officers, about 21,000 prosecutors, assistant prosecutors and other attorneys in prosecution and legal services offices, and 4,000 defenders or assistant defenders.
- o Nearly 220,000 were in corrections agencies, including about 70,000 correctional officers in adult facilities, 18,000 child care workers, 23,000 probation and parole officers, and 23,000 treatment and education specialists of all types.

Several approaches were used in assessing the adequacy of current agency staffing levels, including:

- o Responses by agency executives to survey questions concerning the manpower needs of these agencies;
- o Comparison of actual staffing ratios with those recommended by various study commissions or professional organizations; and
- o Analysis of the relationship between agency staffing and measures of performance on work backlogs.

Based on responses of agency executives, an increase of 220,000 or 26 percent, in number of employees in state and local criminal justice agencies, other than courts, was needed to enable them to fulfill all agency responsibilities effectively in 1975.

- o Among the major agency categories, the largest relative personnel shortages were reported by probation and parole administrators and by sheriffs; the smallest, by administrators of juvenile corrections agencies.
- o Smaller agencies generally reported higher relative requirements for

additional personnel than did larger agencies. However, heads of large police departments, with 1,000 or more employees, also reported a need for large percentage increases in staff.

Wide inter-city differences in the ratio of police employees to population served were found to be explainable only in part by differences in crime-related workloads.

- o Police employment ratios in larger cities (100,000 to 1 million population) were found to be partially correlated with differences in robbery rates among these cities. In smaller cities, per capita tax levels were found to be more important in explaining inter-city differences in police staffing than were crime-related factors.
- o Higher levels of police staffing have, moreover, not been consistently associated with improved performance, in terms of crime reduction or clearance rates. A number of studies, based on data for states or larger cities, have indicated positive results; other research has been inconclusive in this respect.
- o Although increases in police staffing are probably fully justifiable in many growing or less affluent communities, the limited correlations among police staffing, crime rates, and police performance suggest that, in other communities, improvements in deployment and utilization of existing resources, combined with more active citizen involvement and support, may be as important in improving overall police performance as additional increments of police manpower.

In state trial courts surveyed by the NMS, criminal case delay problems were found to be associated both with inadequate judicial staffing and with court management and procedural policies.

- o For courts with 100 or more felony filings in 1975, felony case backlogs at end 1975 corresponded to a 4.4 month case delay period in courts where judges handled 200-399 felony equivalent cases per year, as compared to 7.1 months, where the caseload per judge-year was 1,000 or more.
- o The proportion of cases disposed of by plea bargaining was found to be significantly higher in courts with high criminal caseloads per judge.
- o However, factors such as observance of strict continuance policies, greater degree of court unification and effective speedy trial laws were also found to be associated with shorter case delay.

In prosecution agencies, criminal caseloads per full-time prosecutor were found to be nearly twice as great in the larger agencies, with 10 or more employees, as in offices with less than five employees.

- o High criminal caseloads per prosecutor (300 or more per full-time

equivalent prosecutor) were found to be associated with a significantly longer average court case delay than in jurisdictions where prosecutor caseloads were substantially lower, based on a matched survey of prosecutor and courts data for 188 jurisdictions.

Estimates of additional manpower needs of public defender agencies were found to differ widely, depending upon the criteria used.

- o These ranged from an increase of only 18 percent, based on public defender estimates of the number of additional staff attorneys needed to "fully comply" with recent Supreme Court decisions, to as much as a six-fold increase, based on full provision of defender services to all individuals charged with felonies, misdemeanors or juvenile offenses, whether through defender agencies or assigned counsel systems.

In corrections agencies, comparisons of actual staffing ratios in key occupations with those proposed by various national commissions or professional associations indicate major deficits of probation and parole officers and of treatment and educational staffs in prisons and local jails.

- o Only about one-half of state prison systems met the American Correctional Association staffing standard for social workers; about one-fourth for psychiatrists, and only about 10 percent, for psychologists, in 1974; whereas 60 percent met or exceeded a ratio of one custodial officer per six inmates, originally proposed by the President's Crime Commission in 1967. Prison wardens responding to the NMS survey in 1975 also reported a much higher relative shortage of treatment staff than of custodial officers.
- o Among probation and parole officers surveyed, only 28 percent met the ACA standard of 50 case units per officer. Caseloads ranged from a median of 42 per month for adult parole agencies and 62 for juvenile agencies to 161 for adult probation agencies.
- o Staffing ratios in most state juvenile institutions in 1975 on the other hand, generally met or exceeded professionally recommended standards, in part because of the substantial recent declines in inmate populations. Juvenile corrections administrators also reported substantially lower needs for additional manpower than any other category of agency executive.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The composite survey evidence tends to support a need for selective increases of personnel in most categories of criminal justice agencies, other than juvenile corrections institutions, in order to enable them to fulfill all their assigned responsibilities and workloads -- particularly for additional judges, prosecutors and defenders, and for additional treatment and caseworker personnel in correctional activities.

2. However, provision of additional resources alone -- in the absence of other needed policy or organizational improvements -- will not necessarily contribute materially or efficiently to the ultimate national objectives of crime reduction and improvement in the quality of justice.

C. THE EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK

Overall employment growth in state and local law enforcement and criminal justice agencies is expected to be considerably slower between 1974 and 1985 than during the early 1970's as the combined result of a projected slowdown in crime rates and of tighter state and local government budgets.

- o The crime rate, as measured by the FBI index for Part I offenses, is expected to experience a relatively slow net growth between 1974 and 1980 and to decline significantly between 1980 and 1985 as a result of (1) a projected reduction in the youth population; (2) increased population decentralization; and (3) a projected reduction in unemployment rates.
- o Criminal justice expenditures and employment growth will also be checked by the more limited increase in state and local government expenditures projected for 1974-1980, as a result of the recent economic recession.
- o Although "full-time equivalent" employment in criminal justice activities is projected to grow by nearly 400,000 or 43 percent between 1974 and 1985, the projected annual growth rate, of about 3 percent, will thus be substantially below the average annual increase of about 5-1/2 percent, experienced between 1971 and 1974.

Employment growth rates between 1974 and 1985 are projected to be substantially greater in the courts and correctional sectors than in law enforcement.

- o Police protection agencies are expected to increase their staffs by about 180,000, or 33 percent, between 1974 and 1985, in full-time equivalents, but their share of total criminal justice employment will decline from about 59 percent to 55 percent over this period. More rapid employment growth is projected for state and county agencies, than for city police departments.
- o Prosecution and public indigent defense agencies are expected to experience the most rapid growth rates -- of 71 percent and 91 percent respectively.
- o Total employment in state and local courts will increase by 54 percent with much more rapid growth for general jurisdiction courts than for courts of limited or special jurisdiction.
- o Overall employment in corrections activities is projected to increase

by 62 percent, but with very divergent growth trends for different agency categories. The most rapid employment growth is projected for probation and parole agencies and in locally based juvenile institutions in contrast to a projected employment decline in state juvenile institutions. Employment in adult correctional institutions is expected to increase by 58 percent as a result of a projected trend towards increased imprisonment of some categories of offenders.

Employment growth will be more rapid in the professional, technical, and administrative occupations than in the "line" law enforcement occupations.

- o In police agencies, the number of non-sworn personnel is expected to increase by 53 percent, as compared to a projected increase of 28 percent in sworn officer employment, as a result of the continued trend towards increased use of civilians in administrative and technical positions.
- o Employment of non-judicial personnel in general jurisdiction and appellate courts is expected to grow more than twice as rapidly as judges, reflecting increased requirements for administrative and technical support personnel.
- o Staff attorneys in prosecution and indigent defense agencies, and probation and parole officers, will also experience relatively rapid employment growth.
- o Child care workers in juvenile institutions are expected to experience very limited net employment growth, as a result of the projected continued trends towards deinstitutionalization and the use of community-based programs.

Analysis of a number of major recent trends or developments in the criminal justice system indicates that they will have mixed impacts upon agency manpower requirements.

- o The trend towards decriminalization of certain victimless offenses, such as public drunkenness, has apparently had limited impact upon police and prosecution manpower needs, based on executive responses.
- o Formal pre-trial diversion programs were reported by about one-third of probation and parole agencies and about two-fifths of the prosecutors. Workload impacts were also reported to be limited. These programs may have contributed, however, to the declining trend in juvenile institutional populations.
- o The impact of the trend towards determinate, and to mandatory minimum sentences, upon manpower needs cannot yet be determined, but these trends are likely to entail more manpower for both correctional and courts agencies, with a probable reduction in parole agency workloads.

- o An increase in court unification is likely to result in economies in judicial manpower by reducing or eliminating various limited or special jurisdiction courts, but may require increases in support personnel in higher level courts and court administrative agencies.
- o Increased reliance upon community-based programs, primarily for juvenile offenders, is a significant factor contributing to a projected reduction in employment in state training institutions, and has also tended to shift some of the correctional employment from the public to the private sector.

The above manpower assessments and projections are necessarily subject to considerable margins of uncertainty because of the limited historical data base available and the need to make numerous assumptions concerning both future criminal justice system trends and broader economic or social trends.

- o A detailed methodology for use in periodic updating of the NMS projections has been prepared, which will allow incorporation of revised policy assumptions and new data as they develop.

D. PERSONNEL RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION

Relatively high personnel turnover rates, as well as difficulties in recruiting qualified applicants, had been experienced by many criminal justice agencies during the early 1970's -- prior to the recent economic recession.

- o Personnel turnover (quit) rates were particularly high for assistant prosecutors and defenders, child care workers, correctional officers, and law enforcement officers in small departments; they were relatively low for police officers in large and medium-sized departments and for probation and parole officers.
- o Recruitment difficulties in the early 1970's were reported by nearly one-half of the chiefs of small police and sheriffs' agencies, by over 40 percent of the wardens (with respect to correctional officers) and by one-fourth of the prosecutor agencies.

Personnel turnover and recruitment problems were, however, greatly reduced by 1975, as a result of the economic recession.

- o NMS survey results and field interviews in late 1975 indicated that quit rates had dropped sharply and that sufficient applicants were available for most categories of positions.

Annual recruitment requirements for most line criminal justice occupations are projected to be substantially lower during 1975-1980, than in 1974, due to continued low turnover and reduced employment growth.

- o Relatively sharp reductions are projected for sworn law enforcement

officers, correctional officers and child care workers; smaller reductions for assistant prosecutors and defenders.

If general labor market conditions improve in the early 1980's, as anticipated, turnover and recruitment rates will increase significantly, but could still remain below 1974 levels in most occupations other than assistant prosecutors and defenders.

Employment of minority personnel in police officer and correctional officer positions increased in the early 1970's, but still remains below the ratios of minorities in the populations served by these two occupations.

- o For law enforcement officers, the lowest proportions of blacks were in state or county agencies. The greatest disparities, in relation to overall population ratios, were in LEAA Regions IV and VI, which include most of the Southern states.
- o Among 17 state prison systems with large proportions of black inmates, only 5 states reported proportions of black correctional officers which were one-half or more of the corresponding black inmate ratios.
- o At the executive level, representation of blacks or other minorities was found to be negligible among police chiefs and sheriffs (one percent or less), but substantially higher among heads of correctional agencies.
- o Continuation of recent minority recruitment ratios for blacks and Spanish-Americans would increase the minority share of total law enforcement officer positions from 9.3 percent in 1974 to 13 percent in 1985 -- still substantially below their projected overall population ratio of 17.6 percent in 1985.

Utilization of women in police officer positions has grown only slightly -- from about 2 percent in 1960 to 3 percent in 1974.

- o Women police officers continue to be disproportionately concentrated in support-type positions rather than in line activities.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The outlook is for lower levels of recruitment in most criminal justice occupations in the next five years than in the early 1970's, hence resulting in a reduced volume but increased quality of entry level personnel.
2. However, if labor market conditions substantially improve, personnel turnover will again increase, with attendant costs and problems for criminal justice agencies. Concerted efforts to upgrade status of criminal justice jobs, for example -- through job enlargement and career development programs -- should be encouraged.

3. Criminal justice agencies -- particularly state and county police and sheriffs departments -- have seriously lagged in minority recruitment and have made limited progress in utilization of women in line positions.

E. HIGHER EDUCATION FOR CRIMINAL JUSTICE PERSONNEL -- THE LEEP PROGRAM

Over \$40 million per year has been expended by LEAA in recent years for academic assistance for criminal justice personnel, mainly through the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP).

- o A basic premise of the program is that higher education for law enforcement and other line personnel is a necessary condition for upgrading their performance and for improving the responsiveness of the system.
- o A number of guidelines, issued by LEAA, establish a sequence of priorities for LEEP eligibility, as well as certain criteria for institutional qualification, in terms of program content, faculty qualifications and faculty-student ratios.

NMS assessments have not confirmed the need for mass higher education for all line law enforcement or correctional officers, but do support the need for a more selective program of support for continuing education, to meet career development needs at the supervisory and managerial levels and to strengthen the system's resources for research, development, evaluation, and training.

- o Occupational analysis studies, based on ratings of skill and knowledge needs for specific police officer tasks, failed to identify any major task of the basic patrol officer which necessitated a college-level educational background, as contrasted to a significant number of line supervisory or managerial tasks, requiring such training.
- o A review of available research findings designed to relate education -- and other attributes -- to police performance or police attitudes, similarly provided limited evidence of superior performance by college-educated officers.
- o Police chief responses to NMS queries concerning relative performance of college-educated officers were quite mixed, and appeared to be highly conditioned by the respondent's own educational background. Of seven performance criteria, college-educated officers were rated as superior by a plurality of respondents in "handling of paperwork," "dealing with juveniles," and "achieving promotions."
- o Only about 5 percent of police agencies responding required completion of one or more years of college as an entry standard for police recruits.
- o Nevertheless, police chiefs and sheriffs -- as well as heads of cor-

rectional agencies -- strongly endorsed continuing education for in-service personnel --- and reported a variety of inducements, ranging from adjustment of work schedules to provision of increased pay based on college credits or degrees.

The LEEP program appears to have significantly contributed to a sharp recent growth in college-educated police officers.

- o Over 80 percent of LEEP assistance has been given to law enforcement employees, although they account for less than half of total criminal justice personnel. About one-fourth of all law enforcement and probation and parole officers received some LEEP assistance, as compared to 14 percent of correctional personnel.
- o This has in turn contributed to a particularly rapid recent growth in the proportion of police officers with one or more years of college education -- from 20 percent in 1960 and 32 percent in 1970 to 46 percent in 1974.
- o Since this trend was influenced by a number of other factors, including the GI Bill and general labor market trends, the net effect of LEEP cannot be clearly isolated.

The quality of much of the LEEP-funded education appears to be seriously deficient, however, even when related to LEAA's own modest standards.

- o At least 15 percent of all LEEP-funded courses were narrowly training-oriented, e.g., procedures, traffic control, polygraph or report writing. This was particularly true of the two-year college programs.
- o Only 77 percent of LEEP faculty, and 60 percent of those in the two-year colleges, had any advanced degrees, as compared to 93 percent of all college and university faculty.
- o Only 73 percent of all LEEP-funded programs had even one full-time faculty member in the 1975-76 academic year.
- o Less than one-half apparently satisfied the LEAA guideline of one full-time equivalent faculty member per 60 full-time equivalent students.
- o Other qualitative problems, not equally amenable to statistical documentation, have included lack of adequate academic performance standards and lack of adequate integration between two-year and four-year college programs.

Projected criminal justice manpower trends will reduce the need for academic assistance for basic line personnel, but are expected to increase educational demands for managerial positions and in the corrections and courts sector.

- o Employment will grow much more rapidly in the latter sectors, as well as for non-sworn police positions, indicating a need to achieve better balance in LEEP recipients and in curriculum offerings.
- o A continued sharp increase in the proportion of police officers with at least one year of college is projected -- from 46 percent in 1974 to 75 percent by 1985 -- due in large part to rapid growth in the proportion of new recruits with some college work. This will further reduce the need for academic assistance programs at the freshman/sophomore levels.
- o There will, however, continue to be a considerable "educational generation gap" in many police forces, as illustrated by the fact that in 1974, only 28 percent of officers in managerial-level positions had completed two years of college, as compared to over 40 percent of all patrol officers and sergeants.
- o Demands upon executives and other managerial-level personnel are also becoming more sophisticated as a result of growing pressures for fiscal performance and accountability, recent court decisions and the growth of public sector unionism.

MAJOR LEEP RECOMMENDATIONS:

1. Upgrade and enforce qualitative standards of LEEP programs, working with appropriate accrediting organizations.
2. Assign priority for LEEP funding to advanced undergraduate and graduate-level programs; phase out aid for first two years.
3. Place greater emphasis on assistance to correctional and court-agency personnel by requiring better balance in course offerings.
4. Initiate programs of grants to assist both highly qualified in-service personnel and pre-service personnel enrolled in full-time graduate programs in crime-related or management fields.

F. TRAINING FOR LAW ENFORCEMENT AND CORRECTIONAL OCCUPATIONS

Although formal entry training was provided by nearly all police or sheriffs' agencies with 25 or more employees in 1975, and by nearly all state adult correctional agencies, substantial proportions of the small police and sheriffs' agencies, and larger proportions of juvenile corrections and probation or parole offices, still provided no formal entry training to their line staff.

- o Among law enforcement agencies with less than 25 employees, 31 percent of the police departments and 22 percent of the sheriffs' agencies provided no formal entry-level training to new recruits. State

or regional academies were used by a majority of the smaller agencies which did provide training.

- o Nearly one-half of all juvenile agencies, and over 40 percent of probation and parole agencies, provided no formal entry training to their line staffs.

A large proportion of entry-training programs in these occupations were shorter in length than the minimum standards recommended by the National Advisory Commission.

- o Recruit training courses for police and sheriffs were less than the recommended minimum of 400 hours in agencies accounting for about two-fifths of law enforcement employment. Only one-fourth of programs for agencies in the smallest size group met this standard.
- o Over one-half of the programs for adult corrections were less than 100 academic hours.
- o Entry-training courses for child care workers averaged about 30 hours; less than one-fourth were in excess of 40 hours.
- o About 55 percent of probation and parole agencies reported entry-training programs of 40 hours or less; only about 20 percent exceeded 100 hours.

Although most agencies provided some formal in-service training for experienced personnel, the proportion of employees receiving such training in 1975 was very small in the case of most police and adult corrections agencies; much larger for juvenile corrections and probation and parole staffs.

- o Over 90 percent of the police and sheriffs' agencies reported that less than one-fourth of their officers had attended an in-service course in 1975. Only 36 percent of all sworn officers reported that they had ever taken a specialized course, other than recruit training, based on the 1975 Census personnel survey.
- o Less than 10 percent of state correctional officers had attended an in-service course in 1975.
- o In contrast, juvenile corrections and probation/parole agencies reported that, where in-service training was provided, a large proportion of their staffs had participated in 1975.

Training courses of both law enforcement officers and of correctional officers place primary emphasis on procedures and on technical skills, relatively little emphasis on human relations aspects.

- o Only about 7 percent of course time in law enforcement academy recruit training courses was allocated to "human values and problems," (e.g.,

community relations, juvenile delinquency, minority relations, crisis intervention), as compared to the 22 percent recommended by the National Advisory Commission for these subjects.

- o Subjects such as inmate-staff relations, inmate rights and race relations similarly received much less emphasis than custodial and security procedures, in courses for adult corrections officers.

Law enforcement academy training methods and faculty resources were found to be in need of substantial upgrading.

- o The formal lecture method continues to be the primary mode of instruction for nearly all classroom subjects, with very limited use of individualized training or other more innovative methods.
- o Field training was included in the recruit training curriculum in only 36 percent of the academies responding to the NASDLET survey, despite strong emphasis on the need for such training by police training experts.
- o Nearly 80 percent of academy faculties consisted of part-time instructors, many of whom are inadequately prepared for non-procedural subjects.
- o About one-half of the surveyed academies reported recruit class sizes in excess of the maximum of 25, recommended by the National Advisory Commission.

Supervisory training -- although strongly endorsed by most executives -- was required by only a small proportion of law enforcement and correctional agencies.

- o Mandatory supervisory training was recommended by the National Advisory Commission; its importance was also confirmed by NMS analyses of supervisory tasks and knowledge requirements.
- o However, only 37 percent of the police agencies, 29 percent of the sheriffs' agencies and about one-tenth of the correctional agencies surveyed by the NMS required that newly appointed supervisors take such courses, either before or shortly after assuming their duties.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Major gaps in provision of training to line law enforcement and correctional personnel include --
 - o Continued absence of any provision for formal entry-level training in large proportions of juvenile corrections, probation and parole, and small police or sheriffs' agencies.
 - o Inadequate participation of line law enforcement and cor-

rectional officers in in-service training.

- o Limited requirements for supervisory training, particularly for correctional officers.
2. Qualitative inadequacies in existing training programs include --
- o Insufficient course lengths, as compared to the minimum standards recommended by the National Advisory Commission.
 - o Inadequate coverage of "human relations" aspects of the law enforcement and correctional officer roles.
 - o Excessive reliance on traditional lecture methods and on part-time faculty in academy programs.

G. MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND EDUCATION

Increased emphasis on scientific management methods and on accountability for use of resources, as well as the growth of unionism among both police and correctional employees, have highlighted the importance of systematic management training programs for criminal justice executives.

- o Courses in administration, personnel management, budget and community relations were among the subjects most frequently recommended by incumbent executives as important for newly appointed heads of police and correctional agencies.

Although nearly all executives of law enforcement and corrections agencies reported having taken some specialized training in their respective fields, substantial proportions had not been specifically trained for their management duties, either in formal degree programs or in special management training courses.

- o Only about one-fourth of police chiefs in jurisdictions with 17,000 or more population, and one-fifth sheriffs in agencies with 10 or more employees, were college graduates in 1975. Among correctional executives, the percentages of college graduates ranged from 63 percent in adult institutions to 91 percent in juvenile agencies.
- o Based on comparisons of executives' training recommendations with their own training background, courses in budgeting, planning and evaluation were consistently identified as the "most needed" training for all categories of executives. Other key areas of management training deficiencies, based on this criterion, included training in personnel management and community relations for law enforcement executives; in facility management and community resource development for correctional institution executives; and in community relations and use of community resources, for probation and parole office heads.

Although a considerable variety of separate management training and education courses are available; many of these programs are too fragmented, too short, and too specialized or -- when university-sponsored -- are too theoretical in approach.

- o Few courses are addressed to such basic management responsibilities as problem identification and establishment of management priorities, or are designed to strengthen leadership skills.
- o The effort to adapt courses to the limited time availability of most executives has resulted in a proliferation of short orientation courses on special subjects, which lack integration or continuity.

Major recommendations for LEAA assistance in management training, include: (1) planning and development of comprehensive management training and education programs for criminal justice executives; and (2) establishment of regional centers for provision of management training programs to all categories of criminal justice executives.

H. PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR JUDICIAL PROCESS OCCUPATIONS

Undergraduate law school courses provide an inadequate preparation for legal practice in the criminal justice system -- whether in prosecution or defender agencies or in judicial roles.

- o Despite some increase in course offerings, criminal justice courses accounted for only 6.8 percent of total law school offerings in 1975. Only about one-third of the law schools offered advanced courses or seminars.
- o Course emphasis is on broad principles and on development of analytical skills, with very limited coverage of procedural and institutional aspects of criminal law practice.
- o About seven out of ten chief prosecutors and defenders considered law school graduates inadequately prepared in procedural and trial advocacy skills.
- o Clinical law programs are designed to partially compensate for these limitations, but only about one-fifth of recent graduates have completed such programs.

Nearly one-half of all prosecution and public defender agencies surveyed by NMS offered no formal entry training, other than brief orientations, to newly-hired staff attorneys.

- o Despite considerable recent growth in national and state-level training programs, 47 percent of both prosecutor and defender offices re-

ported no formal entry training other than basic orientations of one day or less for newly appointed assistants.

- o Availability of formal entry training varied with agency size: less than one-half of the small prosecution offices with fewer than five assistant prosecutors provided such training as compared to 80 percent of the large offices, with 25 or more assistant prosecutors. Smaller offices are more likely, however, to recruit attorneys with prior trial experience, often on a part-time basis.
- o Entry courses were relatively short, typically less than two weeks.

In-service training for experienced staff is mainly provided through external programs, except in the largest agencies, with participation usually on a voluntary basis.

- o Only 28 percent of the defender agencies and 15 percent of the prosecution offices -- mainly those with 25 or more employees -- provide formal in-house training for their personnel.
- o Major sources of external continuing legal education were the national colleges for district attorneys and for defenders, programs sponsored by national prosecutor and defender associations, and those sponsored or conducted by state prosecutor and defender offices.
- o Although a large proportion of agencies provided some assistance for external continuing education, only about one-third had policies requiring staff participation.
- o Training contents of in-service programs tended to parallel those of entry-level courses, but with lesser emphasis on procedural subjects.

Specialized training of many chief prosecutors and defenders is significantly deficient, based on comparisons between recommended courses and courses actually taken by incumbents.

- o In addition to a need for further specialized training in legal subjects, such as law of evidence and trial advocacy, significant proportions of incumbents expressed an interest in management courses and in training in community and human relations whereas very few had actually attended such courses.

Progress in judicial training programs has been uneven, with significant deficiencies in availability of entry-level training and in the quality of in-service training programs and training services.

- o NMS field interviews confirmed that newly appointed judges were inadequately prepared by prior experience or training for most specialized judicial tasks.

- o Entry-level training was only provided, however, by about one-half of the states for judges in trial courts of general jurisdiction, and by about two-fifths of the states, for judges in courts of special or limited jurisdiction.
- o Although virtually all states provided some form of in-service judicial education through state-level and/or national programs, most state programs were limited to short week-end sessions on special topics, as contrasted to the more comprehensive programs provided by the national colleges and by a few of the larger states.
- o Nearly one-third of all states utilizing lay judges had no requirement for formal entry training for these officials, despite the obvious need for such training.
- o Supporting services for new judges, such as bench books, manuals and evidence guides were still inadequate in most states.

Court administrators were found to vary widely in the scope of their managerial responsibilities and in their own professional preparation.

- o State court administrators generally have broad responsibilities for fiscal management, planning and evaluation and statistical management. Over 80 percent have a legal professional background.
- o However, a substantial proportion of trial court administrators have predominantly administrative duties, limited to such functions as calendar management and statistics. Many of the latter have no professional staffs, while those with professional assistants more frequently reported fiscal and personnel management responsibilities among their key functions. Over three-fourths of the latter were college graduates, as compared to less than one-half of the administrators without staffs.
- o Over 70 percent of court administrators had less than five years of service in their current positions. However, about one-half had held prior court administrative positions.

Training and educational needs of court administrators vary with their functional responsibilities.

- o Academic field preferences, for all surveyed court administrators, were management, law and public administration, in that order. Whereas state court administrators strongly prefer a legal background, trial court administrators give first priority to management training.
- o Training courses in court information systems and in planning and evaluation were most frequently recommended by state court administrators, whereas trial court administrators assigned first priority to case flow management.

Although most court administrators had received some specialized training, only about one-fourth had completed a special program in judicial administration before entering their current position.

- o Major sources of court administrator training included the Institute for Court Management, state agencies, the National Association of Trial Court Administrators and university-related centers for continuing education.

Recommendations for upgrading court administrator capabilities include provision of support for graduate level pre-service programs, increased emphasis on development of broader managerial skills in both pre-service and in-service courses, and orientation of judges on the court administrator function.

I. MAJOR PRIORITY RECOMMENDATIONS

Educational assistance priorities under the LEEP program should be shifted from a general objective of upgrading of academic education of all line law enforcement or correctional personnel to a more selective, quality-oriented program, designed to improve competencies of managerial-level personnel, and of professional staffs in planning, research, evaluation and education.

- o LEEP institutional qualification standards should be upgraded and effectively enforced.
- o Priority should be given to qualified students in advanced undergraduate and in graduate-level programs, with a phaseout of support for students in first two years of college.
- o Priority should be given to programs which offer more balanced curriculum offerings, including adequate coverage of corrections and court-related subjects.
- o Special programs of direct grants for full-time graduate study in crime-related or management subjects should be established or strengthened for both managerial-level in-service personnel and for highly qualified pre-service students.
- o Assistance should be provided for development of improved law school curricula educational materials and methods in the field of criminal law practice.

Training assistance programs should concentrate on correcting existing major quantitative and/or qualitative deficiencies, including emphasis on management training, on assistance for smaller agencies, and on enrichment of existing training for line law enforcement and correctional officers.

- o Priority should be given to development of integrated management training programs for criminal justice supervisors and managers, to

be conducted at regional management training centers.

- o Formal entry-level training should be made mandatory for personnel in all line criminal justice occupations, including police officers and deputy sheriffs in small agencies; judges, assistant prosecutors and defenders; correctional officers, child-care workers and probation and parole officers.
- o State and regional academies for training of personnel from smaller agencies should be expanded and improved in quality to assist in achieving this objective.
- o Training assistance for line law enforcement and correctional officers, in entry and in-service programs, should emphasize qualitative improvements in training methods, in training faculty and in scope of training, including improved coverage of "human relations" subjects.
- o Support should be provided for development of model curricula and improved training methods, for law enforcement and correctional academies, including provision for systematic evaluation of training effectiveness.

A positive organizational commitment to criminal justice manpower planning is a necessary condition for improving the long-range effectiveness of assistance programs for manpower development, at both the national and state level.

- o A Manpower Analysis and Planning Office or unit should be established in LEAA for maintaining a continuing assessment of manpower development needs and resources.
- o A specialized unit on criminal justice manpower statistics, as well as a national clearinghouse function on planned or ongoing criminal justice manpower surveys, should be established in the appropriate LEAA or Department of Justice statistical office.
- o Priority in development of the needed criminal justice manpower data should be placed on linkages with existing federal statistical programs, and on development of a cooperative federal-state program, for meeting supplemental data needs.
- o State planning agencies should be encouraged to develop parallel criminal justice manpower planning and data analysis functions, including provision of training assistance to planning staffs.
- o LEAA annual plan guidelines should be revised to require periodical submission of comprehensive manpower assessments, in place of the current requirement for routine manpower statistics in the annual plans.

END