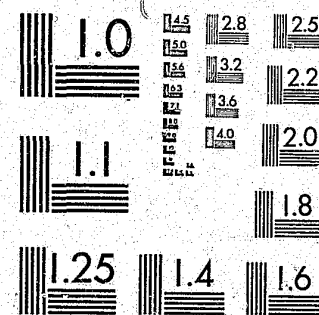


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# Judicial Planning in Transition

1977-1981

by

Harry O. Lawson  
Barbara J. Gletne

January 1982

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CRIMINAL COURTS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE PROJECT

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## Preface

The current era of resource scarcity and fiscal conservatism has caused governmental agencies on all levels to concentrate on survival, and cutback management has the major attention of public officials and administrators. Long-range planning, indeed any planning effort other than to meet the newest crisis or financial disaster, seems to have been relegated to secondary importance by many government agencies.

This diminished emphasis on planning has resulted in part from the reduction or elimination of federal funding for various kinds of planning at the state and local levels. An important example is judicial system planning, which is the subject of this monograph. This is not to say that judicial system planning is everywhere moribund. Rather, it is alive and well, or at least still receiving nourishment, in a number of jurisdictions, despite the elimination of federal funding.

The authors hold the opinion (which has been expressed in their other joint writing efforts) that public officials and administrators should respond to diminishing financial resources by placing more emphasis, rather than less, on planning. The judicial branch is no more immune to reduced finances than are other public entities, no matter whether courts are state or locally funded, or funded by some combination of the two. It is imperative that those responsible for administering state-funded judicial systems or locally-funded trial courts plan to meet future workload increased with little, if any, increase in resources and, perhaps, with reduced resources.

As it was true of personnel and fiscal management, development of productivity measures, and other public management concepts and tools, planning as a viable and important function arrived much later on the judicial scene than it did for other public entities. In most jurisdictions, planning, at least in a formal sense, was virtually unheard of until 1976. In that year, Congress passed the Crime Control Act of 1976 (P.L. 94-503) which extended the life of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA). This law provided a mechanism for state court systems to develop planning capabilities. Funding was made available for the planning function and for the creation of judicial planning committees or councils (JPCs).

This monograph examines how the various states made use of this opportunity to develop planning capability, the scope of that capability, composition and functions of JPCs, and related matters. This information was taken from responses to a questionnaire sent by the authors to state court administrators or judicial system planners during the first quarter of 1981, as refined by additional information from some jurisdictions. Responses were received from forty-six states, District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico, although some of the data supplied did not fit the tabular format used in Chapters III, IV and V of this monograph.



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LEAA assistance for planning ended on September 30, 1981, and, even before that date, the amount of state funding provided for this function constituted a significant portion of total resources in some jurisdictions. This monograph, also using information from the questionnaire, examines the court planning picture in 1981, as compared with 1977, in the responding jurisdictions.

The first two chapters set the stage for what is to follow by presenting briefly the concept of planning and its meaning in a court context. Attention is also given to the six jurisdictions selected for pilot planning projects funded by LEAA prior to the implementation of the 1976 legislation. The final chapter is concerned with the status of judicial planning and JPCs immediately after the termination of LEAA funding and in future years.

This monograph represents the initial stages of a more comprehensive study of the history, development, and evolution (and also the demise in some instances) of judicial planning councils and the planning function within state judicial systems. The comprehensive study will also include an examination of the institutional and environmental forces which shaped or affected the major or dominant patterns of judicial planning council organization and operations, as well as the ways in which planning is used by the courts. This broader study is funded by a grant from the Mabel Y. Hughes Research and Development Fund, University of Denver College of Law, which was received subsequent to the distribution of the questionnaire providing information for this monograph.

The authors express their appreciation to the Criminal Courts Technical Assistance Project, Institute for Advanced Studies in Justice, The American University Law School, and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration for the opportunity to write and publish this monograph.

Invaluable assistance was provided by research assistants, Nancy Kahaner, senior law student, James G. Benway, 1981 Masters of Science in Judicial Administration graduate, and Thaddeus J. Spaak, graduate student in the judicial administration program, University of Denver College of Law. Once again, the authors are greatly indebted to Marion Weaver Lawson for her thorough editing of this manuscript. Annie Aamodt is thanked for typing this monograph in its various revisions.

This monograph would not have been possible without the help of the state court administrators and judicial planners who took the time to respond to our seemingly insatiable demands for information. We also thank the National Council for Judicial Planning for providing us with the opportunity to discuss this study at its annual meeting in San Diego.

Finally, the authors take full responsibility for any sins of commission or omission as to substance and interpretation.

January 20, 1982

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## Contents

PREFACE	iii
I A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE PLANNING CONCEPT	1
Major Planning Traditions	4
II PLANNING IN STATE COURT SYSTEMS	7
Federal Support for State Court Planning	8
Six-State Pilot Project	9
Effect of Pilot Project	13
III JUDICIAL PLANNING IN 1977	14
Introduction	14
Pertinent Provisions of P.L. 94-503 (1976)	15
Judicial Planning Committees (Councils)	17
Planning Staff in 1977	24
Planning Budgets FY1977	28
Summary	29
IV JUDICIAL PLANNING IN 1981	32
Introduction	32
Pertinent Provisions of P.L. 96-187 (1979)	33
JPCs in 1981	33
Size and Composition	33
JPC Functions	38
Planning Staff 1981	41
Planning Budgets in FY1981	42
Budget Comparisons FY1977 and FY1981	43
Summary	47
V THE FUTURE OF JUDICIAL PLANNING	48
Introduction	48
Future Plans for JPCs	48
Activities	53
Authority	56
Planning - A Vital Administrative Function in an Era of Limited Resources	56

## LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1 A Synoptic Guide to Major Traditions in Planning Theory	6
TABLE 2 Judicial Planning Council Composition	18
TABLE 3 Authority for JPC Creation	22
TABLE 4 Judicial Planning Councils, Functions, 1977	23
TABLE 5 Size of Planning Staff and Administrative Location	26
TABLE 6 Planning Budgets, FY 1977	30

TABLE 7 Judicial Planning Council Composition	35
TABLE 8 Changes in JPC Composition, 1977-1981	36
TABLE 9 Judicial Planning Councils, Functions, 1981, Changes from 1977	39
TABLE 10 Planning Budgets, FY1981	45
TABLE 11 Judicial Planning Budget Comparison, FY1977-1981	46
TABLE 12 Future Plans for Planning Staff in State-Funded Jurisdictions, Post 1981	50
TABLE 13 Future Plans for Planning Staff in Non-State-Funded Jurisdictions, Post 1981	51
TABLE 14 Future Plans for JPC Activities in State-Funded Jurisdictions, Post 1981	54
TABLE 15 Future Plans for JPC Activities in Non-State-Funded Jurisdictions, Post 1981	55

## APPENDIX

APPENDIX A Planning Questionnaire	60
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## I. A Brief History of the Planning Concept

Planning can be described as an activity "centrally concerned with the linkage between knowledge and organized action."<sup>1</sup> It is a "process by which management decisions are made in light of organizational goals."<sup>2</sup> According to one author:

Planning usually requires a considerable level of effort in policy analysis, evaluation and programming. Plans are specifications of future events that are set ahead of time for less than one, five or even ten to twenty years.

Planning in the more socialistic countries of the Soviet Union and France was highly centralized. In this country, "policy analysis, programming, evaluation, and planning remain the most difficult and therefore more difficult to describe or influence in their totality."<sup>4</sup>

Governmental planning in the United States can be traced to the early days of governmental intervention with the "creation of the Interstate Commerce Commission in 1887, the passage of the Sherman

1. John Friedman and Barclay Hudson, "Knowledge and Action: A Guide to Planning Theory," Readings on Human Services Planning, Gerald Horton, ed. (Atlanta, Ga.: The Research Group, Inc., 1975), p. 147.
2. Russell R. Wheeler, "Planning in the State Courts," Managing the State Courts, Larry C. Berkson, Steven W. Hays and Susan J. Carbon, eds. (St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Co., 1977), p. 357.
3. Guy Benveniste, The Politics of Expertise, 2nd ed., (San Francisco, Cal: Boyd and Fraser Publishing Company, 1977), p. 9.
4. Ibid., p. 95.



Antitrust Act of 1890, the establishment of the Federal Trade Commission, and the development of the conservation commission under President Theodore Roosevelt."<sup>5</sup>

War and depression brought more planning entities into government with the War Industries Board, the War Trade Board, the Shipping Board, and the War Labor Board during World War I. The depression brought such programs as the Tennessee Valley Authority and other planning activities by such agencies as the National Forest Service, the Bureau of Reclamation, the Corps of Engineers, and the U.S. Geological Survey.<sup>6</sup>

In 1936, this country came close to having a national planning body. The National Resources Planning Board was created by President Roosevelt to be an advisory board under the executive branch. The board made recommendations in resource use, population trends, and other socio-economic issues. Due to the controversial nature of the board, it was abolished by Congress in 1943.<sup>7</sup>

During the 1960's and 1970's, the federal government required planning capabilities within most state government agencies as a prerequisite to their receiving federal funds. The emphasis reached its peak with President Johnson's introduction of Planning Programming Budgeting in 1965. According to Ott and Ott, "the aim of PPBS is to specify (and where possible to quantify) to objectives of 'output' of federal spending programs and then to minimize the cost of achieving

5. Ibid., p. 96.

6. Ibid.

7. Ibid., pp. 96-97.

these objectives to ascertain whether the program benefits exceed the costs."<sup>8</sup>

From 1965 to the current era of reduced federal funding, many federal, state, and local agencies developed federal planning capabilities for federal grants-in-aid programs. Any systematic or long-range planning that occurred in most of these organizations was secondary to grant writing or federal compliance reporting. As a result, in many agencies, the concept of organizational decision-making in light of goals or objectives was forgotten.

Any discussion of the history of planning must include a review of planning in the private sector. In government, the planning emphasis is on efficient and effective use of resources. Planning in the private sector addresses these issues, but the underlying theme is profit.

In 1937, Luthor Gulick published his famous, "Notes on the Theory of Organization." In that work he coined his acronym POSDCORB for the work of a chief executive. The first element of POSDCORB was planning. He said, "Planning, that is working out in broad outline the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them to accomplish the purpose set for the enterprise."<sup>9</sup>

Today's complex market activity has caused the private sector to emphasize planning. According to John Kenneth Galbraith:

8. David J. Ott, Attiat F. Ott, "The Budget Process," Planning Programming Budgeting: A Systems Approach to Management, 2nd ed., Fremont J. Lyden & Ernest G. Miller, eds. (Chicago, Ill.: Rand McNally Publishing Co., 1972), p. 44.

9. Luthor Glick, "Notes on the Theory of Organization," Classics of Public Administration, Jay M. Shafritz & Albert C. Hyde, eds. (Oak Park, Ill.: Moore Publishing Company, Inc., 1978), p. 46.

See also: Luthor Gulick and Lyndall Urwick, ed., Papers on the Science of Administration, 1937), pp. 3-13.

For understanding the economy and polity of the United States and other advanced industrial countries, this reaction against the word planning could hardly have been worse timed. It occurred when the increased use of technology and the accompanying commitment of time and capital were forcing extensive planning on all industrial communities. This has not been sensed. And, in many quarters, the word planning is again acquiring a measure of respectability.<sup>10</sup>

#### Major Planning Traditions

A short history of planning, while useful in understanding the background of court planning, does little to enlighten the reader as to the basic philosophical roots of the concept. While it is not the intent of the authors to dwell on philosophy or theory, the interested reader may wish to pursue the subject of planning in a more academic manner than this monograph provides. This section will provide guidance to those readers.

Friedman and Hudson, in "Knowledge and Action: A Guide to Planning Theory," review the development of planning theory from 1935 through 1970, as to philosophical synthesis, rationalism systems theory, organization developments, and empiricism.

Earlier, it was noted that Friedman and Hudson defined planning as "the linkage between knowledge and organized action"<sup>11</sup> (emphasis added). The four intellectual traditions listed above encompass this definition in a number of ways. Philosophical synthesis stresses planning as a social process. The writers in this category go beyond

10. Guy Benveniste, The Politics of Expertise, p. 107.  
See also: John Kenneth Galbraith, The New Industrial State (New York: Signet Books, 1968).

11. Friedman and Hudson, "Knowledge and Action: A Guide to Planning Theory," p. 147.

the boundaries of their own disciplines (sociology, economics, philosophy, political science, social psychology, and planning) to find an integrated view of planning.<sup>12</sup>

The tradition of rationalism is primarily concerned with how decisions can be made more rationally.<sup>13</sup>

The tradition of organization development "is primarily focused on ways to achieve desired changes in organizational structure and behavior."<sup>14</sup> There exists in the literature a "central preoccupation with innovation, the role of 'change agents,' and the web of interpersonal relationships of which organizations are constructed."<sup>15</sup>

Finally, the tradition of empiricism focuses on "the functioning of large scale political and economic systems."<sup>16</sup> Two mainstreams converge upon this tradition, one with its source in national planning efforts (generally in other countries), the other stemming from the study of urban politics in the United States.<sup>17</sup>

Table 1 provides a guide to major traditions in planning theory.

12. Ibid., p. 148.

13. Ibid.

14. Ibid.

15. Ibid.

16. Ibid., p. 150.

17. Ibid.



TABLE 1  
A Synoptic Guide to Major Traditions in Planning Theory

	Philosophical Synthesis	Rationalism Systems Theory	Organization Development	Empiricism	
				Studies of National Planning	Studies of Urban Planning
1935	Karl Mannheim (planning as social reconstruction)		Chester Barnard		
1945	The Great Debate F. V. Hayek and Barbara Wootton Karl Popper		Hawthorne Studies		
			Kurt Lewin		
		Decision Making Herbert Simon		Oliver Franks Beis Gold Philip Selznik	
1950	Robert Dahl and Charles Lindblom (economizing and control as social processes)	Kenneth Arrow Jan Tinbergen		Ely Devons Herman Somers	
1955			Ronald Lippitt Jeanne Watson and Bruce Westley		Martin Meyerson and Edward Banfield
1960		George Miller, Eugene Galanter, and Karl Pribram	W. Bennis, K. Benne, and R. Chin (eds)	P. J. D. Wiles Everett Hagen Albert Hirschman Aaron Wildavsky	Edward Banfield W. H. Brown and C. E. Gilbert
		Jan Tinbergen	Chris Argyris		
1965	Philosophical Synthesis	Rationalism Systems Theory	Organization Development	Studies of National Planning	Studies of Urban Planning
		Charles Lindblom Policy Science	Chris Argyris	Bertram Gross John Friedmann Albert Waterston	Alan Altshuler
	Amirai Etzioni (planning as societal guidance)	Olat Helmer R. Bauer (ed) David Novick (ed) R. Bauer and N. Gergen (eds) C. W. Churchman Erich Jantsch (ed)	Warren Bennis Paul Lawrence and Jay Lorsch Rensis Likert Garin Jones Edgar Schein	B. Akzin and Y. Dror Bertram Gross Albert Hirschman Stephen Cohen	James Wilson Francine Rubinovitz Stephen Thernstrom
1970	The New Humanism Charles Hampden-Turner (psycho-social development) Edgar Dunn (psycho-social development) Jenski Schott (learning systems) John Friedmann (transactive planning)	Harold D. Lasswell Yehoshua Dini C. W. Churchman		Guy Behevisse Mike Faber and Dudley Sears (eds)	Hubert Fried

- a. John Friedmann & Barclay Hudson, "Knowledge & Action: A Guide to Planning Theory," Readings on Human Services Planning, Gerlad Horton, Ed., (Atlanta, Ga.: The Research Group, Inc., 1975), p. 149.

## II. Planning in State Court Systems

Prior to 1975, concentrated, long-range planning in state court systems was nearly non-existent. In a 1976 report, the National Center for State Courts wrote: "Many courts have planned for specific purposes, such as management of federal grants or implementation of statutory or constitutional changes in court structure and procedures. Few courts of court systems have planned in a disciplined fashion to identify and attain long-term goals."<sup>1</sup>

Reviewing the history, if any, is reviewing the history of state court administrative agencies.<sup>2</sup> According to Russell Wheeler, the failure of most judicial councils, established in the 1920's, caused state supreme courts to ally themselves with state court administrative offices to assume what central court management authority there was, "including the real or potential authority to exercise management's major substantive function, planning."<sup>3</sup>

Wheeler goes on to review surveys of state court planning units in 1976:

1. Planning in State Courts: A Survey of the State of the Art (Washington, D.C.: National Center for State Courts, 1977), p. 13.
2. Russell R. Wheeler, "Planning in the State Courts," Larry C. Berkson, Steven W. Hays, and Susan J. Carbon, eds., Managing the State Courts (St. Paul: West Publishing Co., 1977), p. 340.
3. Ibid.

According to the Council of State Governments, 22 of the 24 planning units reported in its 1976 survey were created after 1970. This recent surge of planning units reflects the impact of the federal anti-crime program that was initiated in 1968. All but seven of the existing planning units reported by the COSG survey rely in part on federal funds, most on a 10:90 state:federal ratio. Furthermore (although the COSG report does not so hold), this heavy increase in court planning units may not represent a judicial commitment to comprehensive planning as much as it does a desire to take advantage of funds available for that purpose.

It is the intent of this monograph to review the extent of state court planning since federal funds were provided for that purpose. Before assessing the intent of comprehensive planning since 1976, it is important to review the history of federal funding for court planning units.

#### Federal Support for State Court Planning

In 1975, a special study team on LEAA support of state courts (The "Irving Report") found that state courts "have not received the interest, technical assistance, or financial support from LEAA that are absolutely essential for sound growth and progress."<sup>5</sup> The report came as a result of several years of disagreement among state court systems, state criminal justice planning agencies, and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) over adequate federal funding for courts.

4. Ibid., p. 341.

5. as cited in Daniel J. Elazar and Ellis Katz, "Final Report on the Court Planning Capabilities Project of the National Center for State Courts - Phase 1, October 1, 1975 - October 31, 1976" (Philadelphia: Center for the Study of Federalism, Temple University), p. 1. Also see John F. Irving, Peter Haynes, and Henry V. Pennington, Report of the Special Study Team on LEAA Support of State Courts, (Washington, D.C.: The American University Criminal Court Technical Assistance Project, 1975).

#### Six State Pilot Project

As a result of this report, "LEAA began a multi-faceted two million dollar set of interrelated projects."<sup>6</sup> One of those projects was the availability of discretionary funds for the development of state court planning capabilities. In addition, the National Center for State Courts (NCSC) conducted three phases of a project to assist state court systems in developing planning capabilities. This project was called the State Court Planning Capabilities Project.<sup>7</sup>

The combination of the LEAA discretionary funds and the NCSC project, provided six "pilot" states for judicial planning. The pilot states were Georgia, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, North Dakota, and Oregon. What follows is a summary of the activities of those pilot states.

Georgia. An LEAA discretionary grant was awarded in June, 1976.<sup>8</sup> With that grant, the state provided staff work for a Long-Range Planning Committee (LRPC), a committee of the judicial Council. The LRPC was:

- (1) to become involved in long-range planning in order to anticipate future needs of the Georgia court systems;
- (2) to identify methods to simplify and expedite the administration of justice in the State of Georgia;
- (3) to recommend policies and procedures to create a continuing court planning capacity in the Administrative Office of the Courts and for the State of Georgia; and,

6. Ibid.

7. Ibid.

8. Ibid., p. 13



- (4) to provide guidance to the planning staff of the Administrative Office of the Courts in the development of planning documents which will obtain maximum utilization of all available resources to meet recognized objectives of the Georgia court system.

In December, 1977, the Judicial Council created a Judicial Planning Committee (JPC).<sup>10</sup> The JPC did not have the same membership as the LRPC, but its membership included "all members of the Judicial Council, thus creating overlap not only between the Council and the JPC, but the LRPC as well."<sup>11</sup>

Because many of the functions of the LRPC and the JPS were the same, the LRPC was disbanded in September, 1977, leaving future planning to the JRPC.<sup>12</sup>

Louisiana. Louisiana began its federally-funded activities in June, 1976. According to Court Planning Capabilities Project's evaluation, the Louisiana effort was a success in several respects:

- (1) A grant application was developed to fund a Judicial Planning Council that was easily and quickly converted the state's JPC with the passage of P.L. 94-503.
- (2) A plan was developed that was recognized by the LEAA Regional Office as a model.
- (3) Several short-term changes in areas such as small claims, court reporting and public information were developed and implemented.

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9. Daniel J. Elazar and Ellis Katz, "Three Years of Court Planning - Final Evaluation of the Court Planning Capabilities Project," (Philadelphia: Center for the Study of Federalism, Temple University), June 26, 1979, p. 15.

10. JPCs will be discussed in detail in later sections of this monograph.

11. Elazar and Katz, "Three Years of Court Planning: Final Evaluation of the Court Planning Capabilities Project," p. 17.

12. Ibid.

- (4) A long-range planning process began - most significant was its attention to court finance.<sup>13</sup>

Maine. Maine hired a planning staff at the end of 1977. Due to an "anti-planning" atmosphere in that state, the process in those early years had to function within that philosophy.<sup>14</sup>

An Advisory Committee on Court Management and Policy was developed to serve as a screening committee for administrative matters to the Supreme Court. In its first report to the Supreme Court, the Committee stated that, "The process will involve some thought of the future, but will primarily be an attempt to deal with issues that need resolution in the present."<sup>15</sup>

Thus, in its early phase in Maine, planning covered such issues as jury sequestering, trial de novo, judicial orientation, small claims, security, ball commissioners, salaries for active required justices, retirement, and uniform court protocol.<sup>16</sup>

Maryland was the most centralized of the pilot states. It also had a highly professional administrative staff before the introduction of federal planning funds in 1976. As a result, the planning effort was to be a decentralized one, modeled after the "strategic business unit" planning system of General Electric.<sup>17</sup>

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13. Elazar and Katz, "Three Years of Court Planning: Final Evaluation of Phase III of the Court Planning Capabilities Project," pp. 29-30.

14. Ibid., p. 35.

15. Ibid., pp. 36-37.

16. Ibid., p. 36.

17. Ibid., pp. 39-41.

Unfortunately, there seemed to be little support for the local planning process among the trial judges. Thus, the planning efforts were limited to the identification of a number of locally specific court problems.<sup>18</sup>

Finally, an informal administrative docket process was developed to solve some administrative problems.<sup>19</sup>

North Dakota. North Dakota's early efforts at a formal planning process were, perhaps, the most successful of all the pilot states.

At the time the planning unit was established, the state was facing a constitutional amendment to unify the courts. Upon its passage, the planning unit was instrumental in drafting rules and legislation for implementation of the amendment.<sup>20</sup> While the legislation was not enacted in its entirety the first time it was submitted to the legislature, the planning effort did develop into one of the most comprehensive judicial plans in the country. It also developed a "rule on rules" which could be used as a model in other states.<sup>21</sup>

Oregon. While Oregon was considered a pilot state, planning activities did not begin there until after the passage of P.L. 94-503<sup>22</sup>

Much of the early activity in Oregon centered on the state criminal justice process. Toward the end of the project, trial judges identified several types of cases that they believed should be handled in a

18. Ibid., pp. 45-46.

19. Ibid., p. 46.

20. Ibid., pp. 47-54.

21. Ibid.

22. Ibid., p. 56

different format and made suggestions for arbitration, mediation, and conciliation procedures.<sup>23</sup> By the end of the project, the planning effort had begun to address some long-range issues.

#### Effect of Pilot Projects

The work of the six pilot states became the bases for much of the court planning which occurred after the 1976 amendments to the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968. Those amendments, which are discussed in Chapter 3, provided funds for the establishment of Judicial Planning Committees. While the underlying theme of those committees was planning for LEAA funds, court systems that developed planning with an eye toward more long-range integrated functions appear to have survived the initial round of fiscal cut-backs better than those that didn't. The jurisdictions with long-range integrated planning may well be the innovators, pointing the way to survival in an era of limited resources.

23. Ibid., p. 59.



### III. Judicial Planning in 1977

#### Introduction

As indicated in the previous chapter, state judicial systems and many appellate and trial courts were concerned over the amount and proportion of LEAA grant funds allocated for judicial purposes by state criminal justice planning agencies. This concern was prompted in part by the small proportion of judicial branch representation on the state criminal justice planning council in many jurisdictions. In part, it was a result of what judicial spokesmen saw as a lack of significant involvement in the planning, development, and presentation of judicial projects and programs for federal funding. Finally, courts perceived a lack of understanding by state criminal justice councils of the judicial process and a failure to recognize that the judicial system constituted a separate branch of government.<sup>1</sup>

With judicial concern focused on the amount of grants and the funding process, it is not surprising that many jurisdictions viewed planning narrowly when judicial councils or committees were first

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1. In fact, the 1975 Report of the Special Study Team on LEAA Support of State Courts (known popularly as the "Irving Report," for its principle author) was followed by another task force which analyzed LEAA block grant financial assistance to state courts. This task force was formed in response to both Congressional and state judicial concern over the level of federal funding for judicial projects and programs. See: Peter Haynes, et al, Analysis of LEAA Block Grant Financial Assistance to State Courts, 1972-1975 (Washington, D.C.: Criminal Courts Technical Assistance Project, The American University Law Institute, 1976).

created. In fact, in some jurisdictions, the acquisition of federal funds was the major, if not the only purpose of the JPCs and the planning function during the time they were federally supported.

#### Pertinent Provisions of P.L. 94-503 (1976)

Congress addressed state judicial concerns through several provisions of P.L. 94-503 (1976), also known as the Crime Control Act of 1976. This act amended and extended the Crime Control Act of 1968. The provisions affecting courts were designed to make it possible for state judicial systems to play a greater role in the criminal justice planning process, particularly in the allocation of LEAA funds for judicial projects and programs. The act did this in four ways:

- (1) It increased judicial system representation on state criminal justice councils.
- (2) It authorized state judicial systems to create judicial planning committees or councils (JPCs), as explained below.
- (3) It made at least \$50,000 per year available to each JPC from LEAA funds granted to the states' criminal justice planning agencies.
- (4) It required the state criminal justice planning agency to provide an adequate share of the state's LEAA block funds for "the support of improved court programs and projects, including projects relating to prosecutorial and defender services."<sup>2</sup>

The court of last resort in each state or a judicial agency authorized by law, if it had statutory membership of a majority of court officials (including judges, administrators, prosecutors, and defenders),

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2. P.L. 94-503, Laws of 94th Cong. - 2nd Session, § 111.

could establish or designate a judicial planning committee for the preparation, development, and revision of an annual state judicial plan.<sup>3</sup> The committee so established or designated was to be reasonably representative of the various state and local courts, including appellate courts, and had to include a majority of court officials (including judges, administrators, prosecutors, and public defenders).<sup>4</sup>

Judicial planning committees were given the following functions:

- (1) to establish priorities for improvements of the courts in the state;
- (2) to define, develop, and coordinate programs and projects for the improvement of courts in the state;
- (3) to develop an annual state judicial plan for the improvement of courts in the state to be included in the state comprehensive criminal justice plan.<sup>5</sup>

The JPC was required to submit the plan to the state criminal justice planning agency. The state criminal justice planning agency was required to incorporate the JPC plan in the state plan. If a JPC was not appointed, or failed to submit a plan, the responsibility for preparing and developing the plan remained with the state criminal justice planning agency.<sup>6</sup>

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3. Ibid., § 105.

4. Ibid.

5. Ibid.

6. Ibid.



### Justice Planning Committees (Councils)

Thirty-one of the forty-eight jurisdictions responding to the questionnaire indicated that they had either created a JPC or designated an existing judicial system entity to serve as the planning committee. The total of thirty-one included four of the six jurisdictions with pilot planning projects. Maine and Maryland did not create JPCs.

### Size and Composition

Size. Information on judicial planning committee size was provided by twenty-nine jurisdictions. As shown in Table 2, these twenty-nine JPCs ranged in size in 1977 from a low of five members to a high of thirty-six members. Seven had fewer than ten members; twelve had between ten and fourteen members; six had between fifteen and nineteen members; three had between twenty and twenty-four members; and one had more than twenty-five members.

TABLE 2

## Judicial Planning Council Composition, 1977

Jurisdiction

JPC Composition:	CO	AS	CA	CO	DC	FL	GO	IL	KY	LA	MA	MI	MN	MO	MT	NV	NH	NJ	NM	NC	OR	PA	RI	SC	TN	UT	VT	WI	WN
Total Members	17	5	9	18	19	17	23	12	21	17	5	10	17	13	36	10	7	10	11	13	11	10	9	9	13	10	10	24	9
Appellate Judges	4		1	2	3	3	3	1	5	1	1	1	1	3	2	1	2	9	3	2	1	4	2	1	3	1	2	2	1
Gen'l Jur. Judges	4		4	4	4	3	9	2	7	11	4	2	3	3	7	2	1	1	5	1	1	3	1	3	2	4	2	13	3
Lim. Jur. Judges	2		2	2		2	6		4	1		2	4		8	3	1		3	1	2		2		1	3	2		2
Other Judges	1			2								1								1				1					
Bar Assn.				1	1	1	2	1	1			1		1	2	1	1			2	1				2	1		2	1
Prosecutors	1	1		1	2	1	1	1		1		1	2	1	2	1	1			1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Public Defenders	1	1	1 <sup>a</sup>	1	1	1	1					1	1	1	2	1				1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Legislators						2								1	3					2									
Press								1						1						1									
State Court Admin.	1	1	1 <sup>a</sup>	1	1	1		1	1			1	1	1	2	1				1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1
Trial Court Admin.	1			1			1										1			1					1				
Clerk of Court	2					1			3	1					4					1									
Probation				1																		1							
Public				2	1 <sup>b</sup>	1		3		2			5 <sup>c</sup>	1	3					2					1		1	3	
Other		2				1		2						1													1		

- a. Advisory, non-voting.  
b. All attorneys  
c. Four producing attorneys.



Alaska and Massachusetts had the smallest JPCs (five members), and Montana had the largest (thirty-six members). The average (mean) size was thirteen members, and the median was eleven members. New Mexico and Oregon were at the median, and nine jurisdictions were close to it (between ten and thirteen members).

Composition. Not only did JPCs vary in membership size in 1977, they also differed considerably in composition. Usually, the larger the JPC membership, the more diverse was that membership. For example, Montana with thirty-six members had eleven categories of membership: appellate judges, general jurisdiction, judges, limited jurisdiction judges, prosecutors, public defenders, legislators, press, state court administrator's office, clerks of court, and the public. The other two states with eleven categories of representation were Colorado and Florida, with JPC memberships of eighteen and seventeen respectively. At the opposite end of the spectrum, Massachusetts and New Jersey had only two categories of membership: appellate and general jurisdiction judges.

Appellate judges were represented in twenty-nine jurisdictions shown in Table 2, as were general jurisdiction judges. The state court administrator or his staff was represented on twenty-three JPCs, as were prosecutors. Public defenders had representation on twenty JPCs, the same number as trial judges of courts in limited jurisdiction. Trial court administrators or clerks were represented on nine JPCs.

Outside the judicial system extended family (including prosecution and defense), the greatest representation was accorded to bar association (seventeen jurisdictions). In contrast, only nine JPCs had

public members, and only two had press representation, as such.<sup>7</sup> Except for one lonely probation officer in one jurisdiction, there were no corrections representatives. (In this jurisdiction, probation is a judicial system responsibility).

It appears from JPC composition in 1977, as shown in the twenty-nine states, that judicial systems approached court improvement and grant review as primarily, if not strictly, an in-house affair. This attitude may well have been a reaction to frustration with the grant and planning processes, because of a lack of meaningful involvement in decision making prior to the 1976 amendments to the Crime Control Act.

Even though the JPCs were primarily advisory to the supreme court, chief justice, or state court administrator, there was an obvious reluctance to include "outsiders." Nevertheless, seventy percent of the twenty-nine jurisdictions included bar representation (perhaps not viewed as outsiders), and thirty percent opened membership to the public.

#### Authority for Creating JPCs

Twenty-six states responded to the question concerning state authority for the creation of their JPCs, as shown in Table 3. Supreme court order was, by far, the most prevalent method of JPC creation (twenty states). In two states (Colorado and Florida), the JPC was created by order of the chief justice. The JPC was created by statute

7. Some of the public representatives reported by nine jurisdictions may have been members of the press.

in three states (California, North Carolina, and Vermont), and, in Georgia, the JPC was created by order of the judicial council.

JPC Functions

The major functions of JPCs in 1977, as previously indicated, were preparation of the state judicial plan for court improvement and grant review. Usually, the state judicial plan was concerned solely with the use of federal grants, almost exclusively from the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. In a few jurisdictions, the JPC also had the responsibility for grant administration and project evaluation. In only four jurisdictions in 1977 was the JPC concerned with non-grant related research.

Twenty-seven states responded to questions about JPC functions in 1977, and these responses are tabulated in Table 4. Most of these twenty-seven JPCs acted in an advisory capacity to the supreme court, chief justice, or state court administrator, or to some combination of the three. Four jurisdictions indicated that the JPC was responsible for grant review only, but did not indicate to whom and in what capacity this review was presented.

Table 3  
Authority for JPC Creation, 1977

Jurisdiction	Supreme Court Order	Chief Justice Order	by Statute	Other
Alabama	X			
California			X	
Colorado		X		
Dist. of Columbia	X			
Florida		X		
Georgia				X <sup>a</sup>
Illinois	X			
Kentucky	X			
Louisiana	X			
Massachusetts	X			
Michigan	X			
Missouri	X			
Montana	X			
Nevada	X			
New Hampshire	X			
New Jersey	X			
New Mexico	X			
North Carolina			X <sup>b</sup>	
Pennsylvania	X			
Rhode Island	X			
South Carolina	X			
Tennessee	X			
Utah			X	
Vermont	X			
Wisconsin	X			
Wyoming	X			

a. By order of Judicial Council.  
b. Appointed by Supreme Court pursuant to statute.



TABLE 4  
Judicial Planning Councils,  
Functions, 1977

Jurisdiction	Advisory To Sup. Ct.	Advisory To C.J.	Functions Advisory To SCA	Grant Review Only	Research	Other
Alabama		X	X			
California				X		
Colorado		X	X		X	
Dist. of Columb.	X	X	X			
Florida	X	X				
Georgia					X <sup>b</sup>	X <sup>a</sup>
Illinois	X		X			X <sup>c</sup>
Kentucky				X		X <sup>d</sup>
Louisiana	X	X	X		X	
Massachusetts	X					
Michigan	X	X				X <sup>e</sup>
Minnesota			X			
Missouri	X	X	X			X <sup>b</sup>
Montana	X	X	X			
Nevada		X				
New Hampshire	X					
New Jersey	X	X	X			X <sup>ef</sup>
New Mexico	X					X <sup>g</sup>
North Carolina	X					
Oregon	X	X	X		X	
Pennsylvania			X			
Rhode Island	X			X		
Tennessee						X <sup>h</sup>
Utah	X		X			
Vermont	X	X	X			X <sup>i</sup>
Wisconsin						
Wyoming			X			

- a. Comprehensive planning for courts, prosecution, and defense.  
b. Including program evaluation.  
c. Coordinate and administer grant-funded programs; also recommend programs.  
d. Program development and legislative drafting.  
e. Prepare state plan.  
f. Develop and implement plan.  
g. Advisory to Governor's Crime Commission.  
h. Advisory to Judicial Council.  
i. Advisory to Judicial Conference for grant review, annual plan, and project oversight.

## Planning Staff in 1977

### Size of Planning Staff

Thirty-six states responded to questions concerning the size of planning staffs in FY1977, as shown in Table 5. Some jurisdictions did not answer this question, because a planning unit was not established as a separate entity until FY1978 or later. This was also the situation in two states (South Dakota and Texas) which responded that they had no planning staff in 1977. Three states reporting no planning staffs at that time never did create a planning unit (Nebraska, Ohio, and Oklahoma). Four states had planning staff in 1977, but no JPC (Connecticut, Maine, Maryland, and New York).

New York had the largest staff in 1977 with thirty-four members. In addition to planning, this staff was responsible for management analysis, systems development, facility planning, and statistical analysis. All thirty-four positions were state funded; New York did not receive any LEAA money for planning after 1975.

A few states besides New York reported that the planning staff had other duties, but none indicated as broad a range of functions as in New York. In a few jurisdiction, e.g., Montana, South Carolina, planning staff services were performed in varying degrees by regular AOC staff. Median staff size was two in 1977, reflecting, in most jurisdictions, the dependence on LEAA funding for the planning function.

### Administrative Location of Planning Staff

Twenty-seven states responded to questions concerning the administrative location of planning staff in FY1977. Only two (Illinois and Kansas) reported that planning staff was directly responsible to the JPC. In Kansas, JPC functions were carried out by the Judicial Council.

In twenty-five states, the planning staff was located in the AOC. In twelve, planning was a separate unit. It was under research in eight, under budgeting in two, and under some other AOC division in three.

TABLE 5  
Size of Planning Staff  
and Administrative Location, 1977

State	Planning Staff No.	Under JPC	Under AOC		Research & Develop.	Other
			Separate Unit	Budgeting		
Alabama	2				X	
California	4		X		X	
Colorado	3				X	
Connecticut	9				X <sup>b</sup>	
Dist. of Col.	a					
Florida	10					
Georgia	2		X			
Idaho	c					
Illinois	4	X				
Iowa	2		X			
Indiana	0					
Kansas	3	X <sup>d</sup>				
Kentucky	e			X	X	
Maine	1		X		X	
Maryland	2					
Massachusetts	2		X			
Michigan	2		X			
Minnesota	3		X			X <sup>f</sup>
Missouri	3					
Montana	2					
Nebraska	0					
Nevada	1		X			
New Hampshire	2					
New Jersey	3		X			
New Mexico	1.5					X
New York	34		X <sup>g</sup>			
North Carolina	4				X	
Oklahoma	0					X <sup>h</sup>
Oregon	1					

- a. None full-time.
- b. Some had other duties.
- c. No staff especially assigned.
- d. Judicial council staff.
- e. All staff units were involved with planning to varying degrees, primarily the budgeting and research and development staffs.
- f. Under division of court services primarily, other SCAO staff also involved to varying degrees.
- g. Planning, management analysis, systems development, facility planning, and statistical analysis.
- h. Part of AOC staff.

TABLE 5 (cont.)  
Size of Planning Staff  
and Administrative Location, 1977

State	Planning Staff No.	Under JPC	Separate Unit	Under AOC Budgeting	Research & Develop.	Other
Pennsylvania	2				X	
Rhode Island	3 <sup>1</sup>		X			
South Carolina	9 <sup>1</sup>					
South Dakota	0					
Tennessee	2		X			
Texas	0					
Utah	2			X		

- i. No separate planning staff as such; AOC staff involved to varying degrees.
- j. With budgeting, research, and evaluation department.
- k. Under court operations.
- l. Part of AOC central staff.

### Planning Budgets FY1977

Information on budgets for the JPCs and planning staff in FY1977 was supplied by twenty-eight states. Several others stated that it was not possible to separate budget allocations attributed to planning from other categories. Still others did not have budgets for planning until FY1978.

As can be seen from Table 6, total budgets varied considerably among the twenty-eight jurisdictions. Six states (Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, Minnesota, North Carolina, and Tennessee) had total budgets in excess of \$100,000, topped by Connecticut, with \$161,700. At the opposite end of the spectrum, three states (Maine, Nevada, and Vermont) reported budgets of less than \$20,000. Those states with the largest budgets either had state funding in addition to federal funding besides the \$50,000 made available for planning by P.L. 94-503 (1976), e.g., Illinois.

FY1977 budgets of \$50,000 or less reflect the dependence of most jurisdictions on the LEAA funding made available for judicial planning. They also reflect the fact that 1977 was a planning start-up year for many jurisdictions, some of which were in operation for less than twelve months. The average (mean) budget was \$52,681, and the median budget was \$50,000.



### Summary

It is difficult to draw conclusions or identify and categorize operational models from the data on JPCs and judicial planning functions in 1977, primarily because the jurisdictions reporting were in varying stages of development. There were some similarities among the majority of states responding to the questionnaire, and they may be generalized as follows:

TABLE 6  
Planning Budgets, FY1977

State	Total	Personnel	Operating	Travel	Equip. & Furniture	Other
Alabama	\$ 50,000 <sup>a</sup>					
California	90,000	\$ 79,457	\$ 7,061	\$ 3,482		
Colorado	33,500	24,770 <sup>b</sup>	1,072	2,438	\$ 5,220	
Connecticut	161,700	130,000	16,000	6,300	9,400	
Illinois	155,555	110,733	11,233 <sup>d</sup>	17,154	880	\$ 15,555
Kansas	109,363 <sup>c</sup>	49,997	59,366 <sup>d</sup>			
Maine	11,542	9,745	1,559	238		
Maryland	60,000	60,000				
Massachusetts	83,527	75,000	5,000	3,527		
Michigan	50,000 <sup>a</sup>					
Minnesota	103,333	60,347	24,370	13,017	5,599	
Missouri	50,000	22,500	27,500 <sup>d</sup>			
Montana	50,000	29,000	8,500	14,000	1,500	
Nevada	19,755	2,182	7,080	10,493		
New Hampshire	41,000	33,000	3,000	2,000	3,000	
New Jersey	57,605	53,755	3,000	700	150	
New Mexico	50,000	24,084	14,019	9,768	2,129	
No. Carolina	126,914	109,775	15,460	894	785 <sup>e</sup>	
Oregon	50,000	31,129		14,083		
Pennsylvania	45,000	35,500	5,000	4,500		
Rhode Island	60,558	60,558				
South Carolina	50,000 <sup>a</sup>					
Tennessee	110,000	40,000	35,000	15,000	20,000	
Utah	50,000	39,200	4,800	2,400	3,600	
Vermont	17,600	15,400	50	950	1,200	
Washington	33,687	27,138	823	5,361	365	
Wisconsin	25,000	15,500	2,800	3,400	3,300	
Wyoming	50,000 <sup>a</sup>					

- a. Breakdown not available.
- b. Includes consultants.
- c. Judicial council.
- d. Apparently includes all non-personnel categories.
- e. Includes supplies.

(1) Those states with JPCs were most likely to limit JPC membership to judges and others within the judicial system, with the exceptions being prosecutors, public defenders, and bar association representatives.

(2) Virtually all JPCs were created or designated by supreme court or chief justice order.

(3) Most JPC activities were limited to grant review and development of the annual state plan for court improvement, and the JPCs were most likely to serve in an advisory capacity to the supreme court, chief justice, or state court administrator, or to some combination of the three.

(4) Planning staffs were almost exclusively placed within the AOC, with separate units or research and development units the most likely locations.

(5) Most jurisdictions depended on the special LEAA allocation to fund the JPCs and planning staffs.

#### IV. Judicial Planning in 1981

##### Introduction

In the five years from 1977 to 1981, the concept of judicial planning became well established in most states, including some that did not create JPCs. A few jurisdictions that did not establish JPCs or planning staff units in 1977 continued not to do so., e.g., Indiana, Ohio, and Oklahoma. A few strongly supported planning as an AOC function, but did not use LEAA funds, e.g., Idaho and New York.

A number of jurisdictions, while still using LEAA funds, were receiving partial state funding. Included in this category were court systems which were state funded, and also some which were not, except for appellate courts, administrative office of the courts, and, at least, some trial court judicial salaries.

In a sense, 1981 was a year of transition and uncertainty for a number of jurisdictions as far as judicial system planning was concerned. The major question was whether state funding would replace federal funding which was being phased out, and to what extent. State court systems were faced with seeking state funds on the one hand and with having to develop possible alternatives to keep the planning function viable, on the other, if state funding was not to be forthcoming or in short supply. Some jurisdictions decided to abandon planning as a discrete function, and a number of JPSs were disbanded.

#### Pertinent Provisions of P.L. 96-157 (1979)

In 1979, Congress made changes in the Crime Control Act, some of which affected the courts. In summary, these amendments:

(1) changed the name of judicial planning committees to judicial coordinating committees (although only a few jurisdictions changed the name of their JPCs);

(2) changed the annual plan for court improvement to a three-year plan; and

(3) emphasized the following projects in connection with court grants and court planning;

a) reduction in the time between arrest or indictment and disposition of trial,

b) implementation of court reform,

c) provision of competent defense counsel for indigent and eligible low-income persons accused of criminal offenses, and

d) development of statistical and evaluation systems to measure indicators of court project success.

#### JPCs in 1981

##### Size and Composition

Size. Twenty-five states reported on JPC membership size in 1981. As shown in Table 7, JPC size varied between six and twenty-seven, as compared with a range of five to thirty-six in 1977. In general, JPCs enlarged their membership over the four years. The 1981 median JPC membership size was 13, as compared with median of 11 in 1977. Eleven states increased JPC size, and only three jurisdictions

had JPCs with fewer members in 1981 than in 1977. Three others changed JPC composition slightly, but not overall size.

Changes in JPC membership size are explained in Table 8. Minnesota and Colorado had the greatest gain in JPC membership, from seventeen to twenty-seven and eighteen to twenty-five, respectively. The largest reduction in membership was in Florida, where the JPC decreased from seventeen to ten members.

Composition. As JPCs became larger in size, their membership tended to be more diversified. This diversification was both within and outside of the judicial family. Trial courts of general jurisdiction had their representation increased, as did trial court administrators and clerks of court. Prosecutors were represented on sixteen of the twenty-five JPCs covered in Table 7, and public defenders on seventeen.

Bar association representation remained high (sixteen jurisdictions). Public and legislative representation was either added or increased in some jurisdictions, but press representation remained virtually non-existent. Table 8 shows by state the specific changes in JPC membership size and composition between 1977 and 1981.



TABLE 7

## Judicial Planning Council Composition, 1981

Jurisdiction

JPC Composition	AL	CA	CO	DC	FL	GO	IL	IO	KY	MA	MI	MN	MO	NV	NH	NJ	NC	PA	RI	TN	TX	UT	WA	WI	WY
Total Members	21	13	25	19	10	24	12	13	19	6	12	27	13	17	10	10	16	11	9	13	20	10	9	23	17
Appellate Judges	5	2	1	3	1	2	1	2	3	1	2	1	3	2	2	8	2	5	2	4	3	1	4	2	1
Gen Jur. Judges	6	2	4	4	3	11	2	2	6	4	3	4	3	5	1	1	1	3	1	2	8	4	2	13	3
lim. Jur. Judges	3	3	3		2	8		1	4	1 <sup>d</sup>	1	3		10	2		1		2	1	2	3	2		4
Other Judges	1		1														1								
Bar Assn			2	1	1	2	1	1	1		3		1		1		5			2	1	1		2	1
Prosecutors	1	1 <sup>a</sup>	1	2	1			1			1	1	1		1		1	1	1	1	1			1	1
Public Defenders	1	1 <sup>a</sup>	1	1			1	1			1	1	1		1		1	1	1	1	1			1	1
Legislators			2					1				4	1				2								2
Press							1																		1
State Court Admin.	1	1 <sup>a</sup>	1	1	1		1	1	1		1	1	1			1	1	1	1	1		1			1
Trial Court Admin.	1	1 <sup>a</sup>	1					1				2			2									1	
Clerks of Court	2	2 <sup>a</sup>	1		1	1			4								1				2			1	1
Probation			1																1						
Public			6				3	2				1	1							1	2			2	1
Other				7 <sup>b</sup>			2 <sup>c</sup>					9 <sup>e</sup>	1												

a. Advisory non-voting.

b. All attorneys.

c. Retired judges.

d. Administrative justice for trial courts.

e. Includes four attorneys, secretary of state, county gov't representative, attorney general, law professor, and organized labor representative

TABLE 8  
Changes in JPC Composition<sup>a</sup>  
1977-1981

<u>Jurisdiction</u>	<u>Changes</u>
<u>Alabama</u>	Total increased from 17 to 21; one appellate judge, two general jurisdiction judges, and one limited jurisdiction judge added.
<u>California</u>	Total increased from 9 to 13; number of general jurisdiction judges reduced from four to two; one limited jurisdiction judge added; also added: one prosecutor, one trial court administrator, and two clerks of court.
<u>Colorado</u>	Total increased from 18 to 25; added were one bar assn. representative, two legislators, one clerk of court, and four public representatives; the number of appellate judges was reduced from two to one.
<u>Dist. of Columbia</u>	No change.
<u>Florida</u>	Total reduced from 17 to 10; number of appellate judges reduced from three to one; bar association and legislative representatives eliminated, as were the public member and the director of the judicial council.
<u>Georgia</u>	Total increased from 23 to 24; two general jurisdiction judges added; two limited jurisdiction judges added, as was one clerk of court; prosecutors, public defenders, and trial court administrators no longer represented; number of appellate judges reduced from three to two.
<u>Illinois</u>	Prosecutor no longer represented; one retired judge added.
<u>Iowa</u>	Non-existent in 1977.
<u>Kentucky</u>	Total decreased from 21 to 19; number of appellate judges decreased from five to three; number of intermediate appellate judges decreased from seven to six; one clerk of court added.
<u>Massachusetts</u>	Total increased from five to six; administrative justice for the trial courts added.
<u>Michigan</u>	Total increased from 10 to 12; one appellate judge and one general jurisdiction judge added; two bar association representatives added; one limited jurisdiction judge eliminated; also one retired judge.
<u>Minnesota</u>	Total increased from 17 to 27; one general jurisdiction judge added; four legislators added, as well as two trial court administrators; "other" members increased from four to nine; one prosecutor representative and one limited jurisdiction judge were eliminated.

TABLE 8  
Changes in JPC Composition<sup>a</sup>  
1977-1981

<u>Jurisdiction</u>	<u>Changes</u>
<u>Missouri</u>	No change.
<u>Nevada</u>	Total increased from 10 to 17; one appellate judge added; three general jurisdiction judges added; seven limited jurisdiction judges added; representatives of the bar association, prosecutors, public defenders, and state court administrator deleted.
<u>New Hampshire</u>	Total increased from seven to 10; added were one limited jurisdiction judge, one bar association representative, and one local court administrator.
<u>New Jersey</u>	State court administrator added; one appellate judge deleted.
<u>North Carolina</u>	Total increased from 13 to 16; three bar association representatives added.
<u>Pennsylvania</u>	Total increased from 10 to 11; one appellate judge added.
<u>Rhode Island</u>	No change.
<u>Tennessee</u>	One appellate judge added; one trial court administrator deleted.
<u>Texas</u>	Non-existent in 1977.
<u>Utah</u>	No change.
<u>Washington</u>	Non-existent in 1977.
<u>Wisconsin</u>	Total reduced from 24 to 23; state court administrator's staff no longer represented; one public member deleted; one trial court administrator and one clerk of court added.
<u>Wyoming</u>	Total increased from nine to 17; added were two limited jurisdiction judges, two legislators, one press representative, one clerk of court, and one public member.

a. States reporting JPCs in 1977, but not in 1981, included: Alaska, Montana, New Mexico, Oregon, South Carolina, and Vermont.

### JPC Functions

As in 1977, the major JPC functions were plan preparation and grant review. Some were branching out into project evaluation and research, especially the latter. Eight of the thirty jurisdictions which reported on JPC functions in 1981 listed research, an increase of four over 1977. Legislative and judicial education were other functions reported by at least one jurisdiction. Even with these changes, the JPCs primarily reported to the supreme court, chief justice, or state court administrator, or to some combination of the three. Table 9 shows JPC functions in 1981 and indicates the changes, if any, since 1977.



TABLE 9  
Judicial Planning Councils  
Functions 1981, Changes from 1977

Jurisdiction	Functions					Other	Changes, if any, from 1977
	Advisory To Supreme Ct.	Advisory To C.J.	Advisory To SCA	Grant Review only	Research		
Alabama		X	X				None
California				X			None
Colorado		X	X		X		None
Dist. of Columbia	X	X	X				None
Florida		X					None
Georgia						X	No longer advisory to supreme ct. Comprehensive planning for courts only
Illinois	X		X		X <sup>a</sup>	X <sup>b</sup>	None
Iowa	X						Non-existent in 1977
Kentucky				X			None
Louisiana							No 1981 information
Massachusetts	X						No longer reviewing annual plan
Michigan	X	X					None
Minnesota	X	X	X		X		Now also advisory to SC and CJ; research added
Missouri	X	X	X				None
Montana							Defunct
Nevada	X	X	X		X	X <sup>c</sup>	Now also advisory to SC and SCA; research added, along with legislative drafting and Jud. Ed.
New Hampshire			X				Now also advisory to SCA, no longer to SC
New Jersey	X	X	X				None

- a. Including program evaluation.  
b. Coordinate and administer grant-funded programs; also recommend programs.  
c. Draft judicial legislation; oversee judicial education.

TABLE 9 (continued)

Judicial Planning Councils  
Functions 1981, changes from 1977

Jurisdiction	Functions					Changes, if any, from 1977
	Advisory To Supreme Ct.	Advisory To C.J.	Advisory To SCA	Grant Review only	Research Other	
New Mexico						Defunct
North Carolina	X				X <sup>d</sup>	None
Oregon						Defunct
Pennsylvania			X			None
Rhode Island		X				None
Tennessee				X		None
Texas					X <sup>e</sup>	Non-existent in 1977
Utah	X	X	X	X	X <sup>f</sup>	Now also advisory to CJ
Vermont						Defunct
Washington	X	X	X		X	Research added
Wisconsin	X		X		X <sup>g</sup>	Research added, also now advisory to SC and SCA
Wyoming	X		X		X	Research added, now advisory to SC

d. Advisory to Governor's Crime Commission.

e. Also grant review.

f. Advisory to Judicial Council.

g. Advisory to Judicial Conference for long-range planning and project oversight.

#### Planning Staff 1981

It is not possible in a meaningful way to describe planning staff size in 1981 in tabular form, because of the transformations which took place between 1977 and 1981. These changes took several forms. In some jurisdictions, planning staff was absorbed by other AOC units; in others, planning staff was eliminated and staff functions assumed by other AOC units, if assumed at all; in still others, planning staff activities were broadened considerably into research, management analysis, program evaluation, and statistical collection and analysis. These activities were usually concerned with overall judicial system operations and not limited to federal grants.

The elimination or gradual reduction of federal funds specifically for planning had a pronounced effect on planning staff activity and size in a number of jurisdictions. The elimination or reduction in federal funding for planning was not the only reason for change, nor was the availability of state funding as partial or total replacement for federal funds, although it too was important. Rather, in a number of jurisdictions, the planning function had been broadened to cover related disciplines and to involve all judicial system activities, not just those related to federal grants.

Between 1977 of 1981, eleven states had a reduction in planning staff, as such, and twelve had an increase. In the other jurisdictions responding to the questionnaire, staff size remained the same, including those that had no planning positions in 1977 and none in 1981, e.g., Indiana, Ohio, and Oklahoma. Some states transferred planning staff,

or a portion thereof, to other activities; a prime example is Connecticut. In 1977, there were nine planning staff members, some involved primarily in the conversion to a one-level trial court. By 1981, four of these staff members were transferred to operational positions, the conversion having taken place.

By 1981, twenty-two jurisdictions could be identified as engaging in broadened planning activities relating to the system as a whole. These included: Colorado, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Florida, Idaho, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New Hampshire, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin.

#### Planning Budgets in FY1981

Twenty-six jurisdictions provided budget information for FY1981, as shown in Table 10. This total excludes eight states that had separate budgets for planning in 1977, but, in 1981, either had planning funding combined with some other activity or eliminated entirely. It also includes five jurisdictions that had no separate planning budget in 1977.

Florida had the highest budget by far, \$507,346. In all, there were nine jurisdictions with budgets in excess of \$100,000, as compared with six in 1977. Only five of the twenty-five jurisdictions had budgets of less than \$50,000, indicating that most of those reporting either had federal funds in addition to the \$50,000 made available specifically for planning, or else they had partial or total state funding. The median budget for the twenty-five jurisdictions was



\$87,977, as compared with \$50,000 in 1977. The mean was not computed, because the results would have been skewed considerably by Florida's large budget.

#### Budget Comparisons FY1977 and FY1981

Twelve jurisdictions which had planning budgets both in 1977 and 1981 had a decrease in 1981, and sixteen had increases, as shown in Table 11. Seven of the twelve states with decreases had zero funding in 1981, because federal funding had stopped and was not replaced or offset by state funding. Five of these states indicated that the planning function was absorbed by another division of the AOC.

The amount of decreases ranged from a high of \$53,000 in Connecticut to a low of \$11,542 in Maine. In actuality, Connecticut's decrease represented a transfer of four positions from planning to operations. The percentage of decrease ranged from a high of 100 percent in those states which lost but did not replace federal funding to a low of .09 percent in Tennessee. The median amount of decrease was \$41,808, and the average percent of decrease was 66.7 percent.

Eight of the state with budget decreases indicated total state funding, but this meant funding for the AOC which absorbed planning in five states (Montana, New Mexico, Oregon, Washington, and Wyoming; the other three were Alabama, Connecticut, and North Carolina). Two states with decreases reported partial state funding (California and Tennessee), and two reported no state funding (Maine and South Carolina).

Among the sixteen jurisdictions with budget increases, the range was from a high of \$81,400 in Vermont to a low of \$7,743 in Utah. The

percent of increase ranged from a high of 462.5 percent in Vermont to a low of 12.5 percent in Illinois. The median amount of increase was \$31,311, and the median percent of increase was 49.2.

Six states with budget increases between 1977 and 1981 reported total state funding (Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Vermont, and Virginia). Nine states reported partial state funding (Colorado, Illinois, Maryland, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Rhode Island), and one state (Nevada) reported no state funding.

TABLE 10

## Planning Budgets, FY1981

State	Total	Personnel	Operating	Travel	Equip. & Furn.	Other
Alabama	\$ 37,211	\$ 26,429	\$ 1,270	\$ 8,462	\$ 1,050	
California	65,826	41,655	12,210	11,328	633	
Colorado	104,594	95,703 <sup>a</sup>	2,103	6,788		
Connecticut	108,700	97,200	10,000	1,200	300	
Dist of Col.	31,872	31,872				
Florida	507,346	347,468	132,752 <sup>b</sup>		27,126	
Georgia	24,557 <sup>c</sup>					
Illinois	175,000	126,222	20,416	15,832	30	\$ 12,500
Iowa	42,868	36,153	3,365	3,350		
Kansas	150,015	91,045	58,780		190	
Maryland	136,500	135,000		1,500		
Massachusetts	95,220	90,220	e	5,000	e	
Michigan	87,977	77,982	5,139	4,856		
Minnesota	172,000 <sup>c</sup>					
Missouri	72,112	19,412	50,000	2,700		
Nevada	30,000	23,598	2,927	3,400		75
New Hampshire	50,700	45,000	3,700	1,500	500	
New Jersey	74,677	69,927	3,750	850	150	
North Carolina	108,568	107,503	1,065			
Pennsylvania	75,000	60,000	7,500	7,500		
Rhode Island	93,180	93,180				
Tennessee	100,000	80,000	15,000	5,000		
Texas	52,000	28,000	24,000			
Utah	57,743	47,748	7,795	2,200		
Vermont	99,000	95,000	e	4,000	e	
Virginia	62,963	56,963	e	e	e	6,000

- a. Includes consultants.  
b. Includes travel.  
c. Breakdown not reported.  
d. Judicial council.  
e. Included in overall AOC appropriation.

TABLE 11  
Judicial Planning  
Budget Comparison,  
FY1977-1981

State	Total 1977	Total 1981	Difference 1977-81		FY 1981
			\$	%	
Alabama	\$ 50,000	\$ 37,211	(\$12,789)	(25.6)	T
California	90,000	65,826	( 24,174)	(26.9)	P
Colorado	33,500	104,594	71,094	212.2	P
Connecticut	161,700	108,700	( 53,000)	(32.8)	T
Dist. of Col.	a	31,872			T
Florida	a	507,346			P
Georgia	a	24,557			N
Illinois	155,555	175,000	19,445	12.5	P
Iowa	a	42,868			P
Kansas	109,363	150,015	40,652	37.2	T
Maine	11,542	-0-	( 11,542)	(100.0)	N
Maryland	60,000	136,500	76,500	127.5	P
Massachusetts	83,527	95,220	11,693	16.9	T
Michigan	50,000	87,977	37,977	75.9	T
Minnesota	103,333	172,000	68,667	66.4	T
Missouri	50,000	72,112	22,112	44.2	P
Montana	50,000	-0-	( 50,000)	(100.0)	T <sup>e</sup>
Nevada	19,755	30,000	10,245	15.2	N
New Hampshire	41,000	50,700	9,700	23.7	P
New Jersey	57,605	74,677	17,072	29.6	P
New Mexico	50,000	-0- <sup>c</sup>	( 50,000)	(100.0)	T <sup>e</sup>
North Carolina	126,912	108,568	( 18,344)	( 14.4)	T
Oregon	50,000	-0- <sup>c</sup>	( 50,000)	(100.0)	T <sup>e</sup>
Pennsylvania	45,000	75,000	30,000	66.7	P
Rhode Island	60,558	93,180	32,622	54.1	P
So. Carolina	50,000	-0- <sup>c</sup>	( 50,000)	(100.0)	N
Tennessee	110,000	100,000	( 10,000)	( .9)	P
Texas	a	52,000			N
Utah	50,000	57,743	7,743	15.5	P
Vermont	17,600	99,000	81,400	462.5	T
Virginia	39,922 <sup>b</sup>	62,963	23,041	57/7	T
Washington	33,616	-0- <sup>c</sup>	(33,616)	(100.0)	T <sup>e</sup>
Wisconsin	25,000	d			T
Wyoming	50,000	-0- <sup>c</sup>	(50,000)	(100.0)	T <sup>e</sup>

- a. FY1979 was first year of funding reported on questionnaire.  
b. FY1978.  
c. Planning function absorbed by AOC.  
d. Now part of court operations budget, can not be broken out.  
e. As part of administrative office, but may be scaled-down effort.

T - Total state funding.  
P - Partial state funding.  
N - No state funding.

### Summary

By 1981, the patterns of state planning activity were more clear than they were in 1977. Three basic models could be discerned, with each model divided into subcategories:

(1) Planning as a separate activity was defunct, although the absorption of at least some of the planning function by other units of the AOC was reported. The JPCs, if in existence in prior years, were terminated, so planning in 1981 was strictly a staff activity. Both state-funded and nonstate-funded jurisdictions are included in this category.

(2) Planning was continued more or less at the same level of funding, but planning activities were expanding to include judicial system concerns other than federal grants. These jurisdictions usually had partial or total state fundings, but a small number were still operating totally with federal funding. To continue beyond 1981, total state funding would be required. This model contained both state-funded and nonstate-funded jurisdictions, some with JPC's still in existence and others without JPCs.

(3) Planning was continued at a higher level of activity encompassing a broad array of judicial system concerns, rather than being limited to federally-funded projects. Some jurisdictions in this category still had JPCs, but others did not. All of them were partially or totally state funded for planning, and included both state-funded and non-state-funded jurisdictions. To maintain or increase the level of planning activity achieved in 1981 would require total state funding in subsequent years.

## **V. The Future of Judicial Planning**

### Introduction

Many have assumed that judicial planning capabilities would vanish with LEAA funding. This chapter reviews the future of planning entities as indicated by the questionnaires. The remainder of the chapter will discuss the need, arising from limited resources, for some form of planning capability within each court system.

### Future Plans for JPCs

The questionnaires asked for the future plans of JPCs, planning staff, authority and functions<sup>1</sup>. This was an open-ended question, and, unfortunately, very few jurisdictions responded in any detail. What follows is a description, based on limited responses, of the future of judicial planning entities.

This discussion is divided into responses from state-funded and non-state funded jurisdictions. One could assume that the planning that exists after the demise of federal involvement is more extensive and comprehensive in state-funded courts than in non-state-funded jurisdictions.

1. Since the questionnaire was distributed in early 1981, many responses indicated that they were uncertain of the future; at least some of these may now be in a position to answer in more detail.



Staff. Tables 12 and 13 illustrate the plans for JPC staff in state funded and non-state-funded jurisdictions. The tables draw a distinction between those states that indicated that the planning function was to continue and those states whose planning staff was absorbed. The distinction was necessary to identify those states where the functions and staff were continued as they were during federal funding, versus those states where the functions or staff were absorbed into the existing structure of the administration of the courts. In any case, both categories indicate that some form of planning will continue.

Only six of the thirty-nine states responding to the questions indicated that there would be no planning staff after 1981. It is surprising that five of those states were state funded.

TABLE 12  
Future Plans for Planning Staff  
in State-Funded Jurisdictions  
Post 1981

<u>Jurisdiction</u>	<u>Staff</u>			
	<u>Continue</u>	<u>Absorbed</u>	<u>None</u>	<u>Unknown</u>
Alabama	X			
Colorado	X			
Connecticut	X <sup>a</sup>			
Kansas	X <sup>b</sup>			
Kentucky		X <sup>a</sup>		
Maine			X	
Maryland		X <sup>a</sup>		
Massachusetts	X <sup>a</sup>			
Michigan	X			
Missouri	X			
New Hampshire		X		
New Mexico			X	
New York	X <sup>d</sup>			
North Carolina	X			
Oregon			X	
Rhode Island				X
South Dakota			X	
Utah				X
Vermont	X <sup>a</sup>			
Virginia	X <sup>a</sup>			
West Virginia			X	
Wyoming		X		
Dist. of Col.	X			

- a. Combined with research.  
b. Judicial Council staff.  
c. Never a separate planning unit.  
d. Combined with other functions.

TABLE 13  
Future Plans for Planning Staff  
in NonState-Funded Jurisdictions  
Post 1981

Jurisdiction	Staff			
	Continue	Absorbed	None	Unknown
California				X
Florida	X			
Georgia				X
Idaho	X <sup>a</sup>			
Illinois				X
Iowa	X			
Minnesota	X			
Montana		X <sup>a</sup>		
Nevada	X			
New Jersey	X			
Pennsylvania		X <sup>a</sup>		
South Carolina		X <sup>a</sup>		
Tennessee			X	
Texas	X			
Washington		X		
Wisconsin	X			

a. Never a separate planning unit.

Activities. The responses to this question were difficult to categorize. Many states responded that they intend to continue long-range planning activities. Others talked about integrating planning into overall administration of the court system. Finally, several states indicated that they no longer had a planning body, but some form of planning activities were carried out.

What is clear is that planning has become an integrated function of most administrative offices. State-funded systems seem to emphasize the advisory nature of the planning function, with eight of the twenty-three jurisdictions indicating the advisory functions of their planning bodies.

Non-state-funded jurisdictions were somewhat vague about the future of their planning bodies, with most indicating a continuation of long-range planning. Two non-state-funded jurisdictions are integrating planning into their management and budgeting functions. Four state-funded court systems are taking the more comprehensive view of planning by integrating it with management and budget.

Tables 14 and 15 illustrate the responses to the question concerning the future activities of planning bodies.

TABLE 14

## Future Plans for JPC Activities in State-Funded Jurisdictions (Post 1981)

Jurisdiction	Activities							
	Policy Formulation	Research & Statistics	Advise SCA/SC	Planning	Development of Rules & Proced.	Public Education/Commun.	Grant Review	Management Budget/Admin. None Unknown
Alabama	X		X				X	
Colorado		X <sup>h</sup>	X	X		X		X
Connecticut <sup>a</sup>								X
Kansas <sup>a</sup>					X <sup>f</sup>			
Kentucky			X <sup>b</sup>					
Maine <sup>d</sup>								X
Maryland <sup>d</sup>				X <sup>e</sup>				
Massachusetts <sup>a</sup>				X <sup>e</sup>			X <sup>e</sup>	
Michigan			X	X		X		
Missouri			X	X		X		
New Hampshire			X					
New Mexico <sup>a</sup>								X
New York				X <sup>c</sup>			X	
North Carolina			X					
Oregon								X
Rhode Island	X		X	X				
South Dakota								X
Utah							X	X <sup>g</sup>
Vermont								
Virginia <sup>a</sup>		X <sup>h</sup>		X				
West Virginia								X
Wyoming					X			X
Dist. of Col.								X

a. States which do not have a JPC, but which conduct planning activities.

b. JPC had grant review authority only. The staff now serves the Judicial Council which is an advisory body to the Supreme Court.

c. Includes facilities planning and training.

d. Maine and Maryland were pilot states, but did not establish a JPC (see Chapter II).

e. Emphasizes trial court operations.

f. Includes committees on the civil, criminal, and juvenile codes, family law, bench books, jury instructions.

g. Includes trial court administrators.

h. Includes annual report.



TABLE 15  
Future Plans for JPC Activities in State-Funded Jurisdictions (Post 1981)

<u>Jurisdiction</u>	<u>Activities</u>							<u>None</u>	<u>Unknown</u>
	<u>Policy Formulation</u>	<u>Research &amp; Statistics</u>	<u>Advise SCA/SC</u>	<u>Planning</u>	<u>Development of Rules &amp; Proced.</u>	<u>Public Education/ Comm.</u>	<u>Grant Review</u>	<u>Management Budget/Admin.</u>	
California									X
Florida			X	X					
Georgia <sup>a</sup>				X					
Idaho								X <sup>b</sup>	
Illinois									X
Iowa				X				X <sup>c</sup>	
Minnesota		X			X <sup>i</sup>				
Montana <sup>a</sup>			X	X <sup>c</sup>		X <sup>d</sup>			
Nevada				X <sup>f</sup>					
New Jersey				X <sup>g</sup>					
54 Pennsylvania				X <sup>g</sup>					
South Carolina <sup>a</sup>									
Tennessee									X
Texas									X
Washington				X <sup>h</sup>					
Wisconsin				X	X				

- a. States which do not have a JPC, but which conduct planning activities.  
b. Idaho develops an administrative plan, thus planning activities may encompass all categories.  
c. Will attempt to integrate planning and budgeting; also includes judicial education and legislation.  
d. Primarily concerned with legislative and state bar liaison.  
e. Includes seeking federal foundation funds, judicial education, and legislation.  
f. Function assumed by Judicial Council.  
g. Planning council not to be reestablished.  
h. JPC abolished, established a new Board of Judicial Administration.  
i. Includes bench books.

Authority. Very few states responded to the question concerning the future authority of planning bodies. Of those jurisdictions responding, four (Alabama, Michigan, New Jersey, and Wisconsin) indicated they would be operating under the authority of a supreme court order. Colorado is operating under a chief justice order. North Carolina's planning body is established pursuant to statute. In Kansas and Pennsylvania, the planning function is carried out by the judicial council.

While not many states responded to the question, it was assumed that those states with planning activities, as indicated in Tables 14 and 15, are operating under the same authority as they did when they were first established, unless they indicated otherwise. Table 3 in Chapter III delineates the authority for the JPCs established in 1977.

While the questionnaires did not indicate the future plans for JPCs in as much detail as the authors would like, it is clear from Tables 12-15 that planning, in some form, is alive and well in most jurisdictions. Future studies in this area should address the extent of integration of the planning function with other administrative functions in state court systems.

#### Planning - A Vital Administrative Function

##### In an Era of Limited Resources

This monograph has attempted to outline the extent to which state court systems developed planning capabilities with available federal funds. The authors have also indicated that while the absence of federal funds has, in some instances, reduced the amount of staff

available for planning, most jurisdictions have incorporated planning into the overall administration of the courts.

Since the questionnaire was first distributed a year ago, much has happened to affect judicial administration throughout the country. Spending limitations, major federal and state budget cuts, and hiring freezes have, in some instances, severely handicapped governmental functions. Courts are not immune from this phenomenon.

The questionnaire did not address the impact of reduced funding in any detail, nor did it ask for information concerning the ways in which state court systems are planning for diminished resources. Thus, there is no information available concerning the extent to which planning entities are being used to help judicial administrators forecast the effect of scarce resources at a time when court workloads are growing at an unprecedented rate.

The authors assume, through limited observation, that few court systems are planning for diminished resources. Any planning that is being done in this area is probably being carried out by legislative committees looking at such issues as increased docket fees, alternatives to dispute resolution, and more extensive use of parajudges in limited and special jurisdiction courts.

While legislative studies may produce economical alternatives to current court operations, judicial administrators are remiss if they are not reviewing their own operations for possible cutbacks.

Planning staff and planning bodies, where they still exist, are the ideal entities to conduct this review. The expertise needed for successful planning (policy analysis, evaluation, and programming)

mentioned in Chapter 1 are those skills necessary to assist judicial administrators in the difficult tasks that lie ahead.

In addition to major procedural changes, areas which should be reviewed include:

- A. Personnel Services
  - 1) Number employed
  - 2) Classifications
  - 3) Vacancy savings
  - 4) Workload standards
- B. Operating Costs
  - 1) Telephone systems
  - 2) Bulk purchasing
  - 3) Law library standards
- C. Travel
  - 1) Use of telephone conferencing
  - 2) Better case scheduling in rural areas
- D. Use of Automation
  - 1) Cost-benefit analysis
  - 2) Evaluation of alternatives
- E. Facilities
  - 1) Space standards
  - 2) Long-range plans

Those court systems which integrate the planning function into the administrative structure of court operations, for the purpose of planning for reduced resources, may well be the new leaders in judicial administration.

## APPENDIX



APPENDIX A

PLANNING QUESTIONNAIRE

1. How many staff are involved in the planning function today? \_\_\_\_\_  
In 1977? \_\_\_\_\_

2. Where is the planning staff located with the administrative structure of the AOC?

A separate unit \_\_\_\_\_

With Budgeting \_\_\_\_\_

With Research &  
Development \_\_\_\_\_

Other (explain) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

3. Describe the job responsibility of each person on the planning staff.

Position

Responsibility

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

4. What was the planning budget in 1977, and in the last two years of LEAA funding?

	1977	1979	1981
Personnel	\$ _____	\$ _____	\$ _____
Operating	_____	_____	_____
Travel	_____	_____	_____
Equip. and Furniture	_____	_____	_____
TOTAL	_____	_____	_____

5. What is your 1981 planning budget?

Personnel \$ \_\_\_\_\_  
Operating \$ \_\_\_\_\_  
Travel \$ \_\_\_\_\_  
Equip. and Furn. \$ \_\_\_\_\_

6. Of the 1981 budget, how much is federal and how much is state?

Federal \$ \_\_\_\_\_  
State \$ \_\_\_\_\_

7. Have the costs of the planning function been assumed by the state?

Partially \_\_\_\_\_  
Totally \_\_\_\_\_  
Not at all \_\_\_\_\_

8. If you responded "Partially," explain the "cutbacks."

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

9. If you answered "Partially" or "Totally" to question 8, when were the costs assumed? (the effective date:)

\_\_\_\_\_

10. Was the planning function in your state funded by LEAA part B funds? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

11. If so, what year was the JPC (JCC) established? \_\_\_\_\_

12. If so, indicate the number of members in each category in 1977 and today.

	1977	1981
Appellate Judges	_____	_____
General Jurisdiction Judges	_____	_____
Limited Jurisdiction Judges	_____	_____
Other Judges (explain)	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
Bar Association Representatives	_____	_____
Prosecutors	_____	_____
Public Defenders	_____	_____
Legislators	_____	_____
Press	_____	_____
State Court Administrative Staff	_____	_____
Local Court Administrators	_____	_____
Clerks of Court	_____	_____
Probation	_____	_____

	<u>1977</u>	<u>1981</u>
Other Correctional Personnel (explain)		
Public		
Other (explain)		

13. By what authority was the JPC (JCC) established?

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14. Which statements describe the function of the JPC (JCC) in 1977 and today?

	<u>1977</u>	<u>1981</u>
Advisory to Supreme Court		
Advisory to Chief Justice		
Advisory to State Court Administrator		
Grant Review Only		
Research Group		

	<u>1977</u>	<u>1981</u>
Other or Combination of Above (explain)		

15. To whom is the JPC responsible?

Chief Justice	
State Court Administrator	
Supreme Court	
Other (explain)	



16. What are the future plans (if any) for the JPC? (use an extra sheet if necessary)

Staff

Authority

Functions