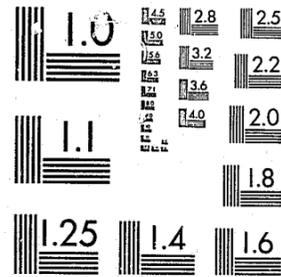


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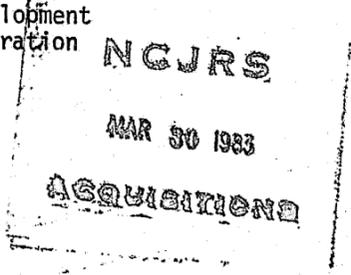
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National Institute of Justice
United States Department of Justice
Washington, D. C. 20531

11/3/83

REVIEW AND ANALYSIS OF THE NATIONAL MANPOWER SURVEY OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE

Submitted to:
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Submitted through:
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Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
Washington, DC

January 1979

89439

THE NATIONAL MANPOWER SURVEY
OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

The National Manpower Survey of the Criminal Justice System was a comprehensive and systematic effort conducted in response to Part D, Section 402(c) of the Crime Control Act of 1973. The Congressional Mandate for the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration to adequately address human resource needs in the field of law enforcement and criminal justice is clearly indicated in the following excerpt from the Act:

The Institute shall, before the end of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1976, survey 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. Such survey shall specifically determine the effectiveness and sufficiency of the training and academic assistance programs carried out under this title and relate such programs to actual manpower and training requirements in the law enforcement and criminal justice field. In carrying out the provisions of this section, the Director of the Institute shall consult with and make maximum use of statistical and other related information of the Department of Labor, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Federal, State and local criminal justice agencies. The Administration shall thereafter, within a reasonable time, develop and issue guidelines, based upon the need priorities established by the survey, pursuant to which project grants for training and academic assistance programs shall be made.

The National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice was responsible for assuring that the survey was conducted and the findings were published. After the establishment of the Office of Criminal Justice Education and Training, OCJET assumed responsibility for coordinating the agency-wide effort to analyze the survey findings, develop appropriate guidelines, and implement programmatic responses.

U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

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INTRODUCTION

The role of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration in human resource development can be traced to the passage of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968. For approximately a decade, funds have been channeled into human resource development in an attempt to improve and strengthen the productivity of the criminal justice system. When placing these programs in historical perspective, it is clear that millions of federal dollars have been expended on numerous human resource development activities which have included training and academic programs, construction of training centers, and recruitment and selection programs. While past efforts have played a significant role in advancing the field of criminal justice more rapidly than most occupational areas in recent years, the need for continued emphasis of human resource development is reflected in the National Manpower Survey. The survey clearly indicates the pressing demand for technology in such areas as task analysis, determining training/educational needs, curriculum development, evaluation and human resource planning in long-term perspective.

Funding support by the Administration for human resource activities can be found at all levels of government. Block grant funding has spawned programs at both the state and local levels. In addition, Discretionary funding, along with other funding, has played an integral part in bolstering these efforts. The federal role in human resource development is vital to system improvement. Training and educational programs will play an important part in shaping the future direction of the criminal justice system in the years ahead. In addition to funding support, a comprehensive view of human resource needs and problems can be achieved at the federal level along with the establishment of assistance priorities. In short, activities can be put into motion to address such needs and problems in a system that has become progressively complex in nature. The National Manpower Survey underscores the need to move from a quantitative to a qualitative approach in future programmatic efforts.

The National Manpower Survey Working Group was established in response to a memorandum directed to J. Price Foster, Director of the Office of Criminal Justice Education and Training, from Henry S. Dogin, Deputy Administrator for Policy Development in the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. This Working Group was established to review the National Manpower Survey and prepare a written summary of findings and conclusions. The members of the group were selected on the basis of their expertise in the areas of law enforcement, courts and corrections. Listed below are the persons responsible for conducting the analysis and their respective assignments. This list also acknowledges those persons who were responsible for providing clerical support.

NATIONAL MANPOWER SURVEY WORKING GROUP

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- * Volume Lead Responsibility
- ** Overall Coordination and Volume Lead Responsibility
- *** Typing Coordination Responsibility

Each of the individuals listed on the preceding page should be commended for superior performance under very limited time parameters. The Office of Criminal Justice Education and Training sincerely appreciates the work conducted by the National Manpower Survey Working Group. Also, the cooperation received from various administrators throughout the agency enabled this office to successfully complete its assignment.

The review and analysis of the National Manpower Survey focused on Volume Two, Law Enforcement; Volume Three, Corrections; Volume Four, Courts; and Volume Five, Education and Training. It was felt that the structuring of the analysis was of utmost importance in light of future priorities and program funding. It is clearly articulated in the Act that "The Administration shall thereafter, within a reasonable time develop and issue guidelines, based upon the need priorities established by the survey, pursuant to which project grants for training and academic assistance programs shall be made." Therefore, the analysis performed was designed to result in tentative guidelines addressing programmatic thrusts in accordance with established priorities. This effort is also important from the standpoint of a legislative mandate, Congressional hearings and future decision-making by the Administration.

The analysis performed was conducted on a chapter-by-chapter basis, with reviewers utilizing their subject expertise to develop comments on their respective assignments. These comments focus on four primary areas, namely, the National Manpower Survey findings, needs, conclusions, and recommendations. Also, consideration is devoted to "need priorities established by the survey."

A "Reviewer Conclusion" section follows the review and analysis of each chapter. This particular section addresses anything reviewers felt they needed to point out, with primary focus placed on rank ordering priorities identified in the National Manpower Survey. If additional priorities were developed by reviewers, based on the analysis conducted, these were also included in the rank ordering process. All priorities developed by reviewers are identified by an asterisk.

Chapter I of Volumes Two, Three, Four and Five is merged with the analysis of chapters that follow in each respective volume. This particular chapter is the "Executive Summary" of each volume and addresses pertinent information in subsequent chapters. Also, an attachment accompanies each chapter reviewed. Rank order priorities are listed in the attachment along with identified examples of responsive LEAA activities.

In conclusion, it should be pointed out that areas pertaining to juvenile justice in Volumes Three and Four were reviewed and analyzed by the School of Social Service Administration at the University of Chicago. The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention designated an outside expert because they had no training program staff available. The work performed by the above referenced university appears in the attachment to this report.

NATIONAL MANPOWER SURVEY ANALYSIS: VOLUME TWO

LAW ENFORCEMENT

NATIONAL MANPOWER SURVEY ANALYSIS: VOLUME TWO

LAW ENFORCEMENT

Introduction

Volume II of the National Manpower Survey is an attempt to assess the current status and the future personnel needs of law enforcement agencies. Written in five chapters, in addition to an Executive Summary (Chapter I), the document addresses the following issues: Current Manpower Assessment - Chapter II, The Outlook for Law Enforcement Employment: Manpower Projections to 1985 - Chapter III, Recruitment and Retention of Police Officers - Chapter IV, Education for Law Enforcement Occupations - Chapter V and Training for Law Enforcement Occupations - Chapter VI.

Each chapter is reviewed separately and provides for overview and major findings of the study, the reviewer's assessment of the study, recommendations and conclusions, and a prioritization of needs to be addressed as a result of the study data. The Executive Summary is not reviewed separately but is incorporated within the discussions of individual chapters.

Chapter I - Executive Summary

Chapter I of Volume II of the NMS is a summary of pertinent information gleaned from subsequent chapters. It should be noted that reviewers considered information presented in the "Executive Summary" when analyzing respective chapters in the review process.

Chapter II - Current Manpower Assessment

Overview and Major Findings of the Study

As the title suggests, the emphasis of this chapter was on identifying current patterns and projected needs for the employment of police manpower. The primary data source utilized to determine current manpower levels was an LEAA sponsored 1974 U.S. Census Bureau study. Data for projected needs were derived from a NMS survey of police executives, a 1965 survey by the National League of Cities and from analyses of several experimental studies that have been undertaken to address issues concerning police productivity.

In terms of the current manpower status within the country, some of the key findings of the study were:

- About one-half of all police personnel serve in the patrol function.
- City police departments have the largest proportion of their total employees in areas that are directly concerned with primary operations, i.e., supervising, patrolling, traffic control, criminal investigation, line or supervisory functions and management and directing, than do county and state agencies.
- County sheriff offices have sufficient proportions of employees assigned to custodial duties.
- State police departments employ relatively large proportions of personnel in clerical and other support positions.
- Police population ratios tend to be highest in the largest cities. The number of law enforcement employees per 1,000 inhabitants range from 3.5 in cities with more than 250,000 population to 1.9 in cities with 10,000 to 100,000 population.
- Also, crime rates in larger cities are higher than in smaller cities.

An attempt was made to determine explicit reasons for variations in manpower levels within the various cities since it was apparent to the researchers that crime rates could not have been the sole reasons for such differences. In fact, it was hypothesized that several variables, in addition to crime, were highly significant in this regard. The results were:

- Variables most likely to impact on the police-population ratio were found to be incidence of street crime, amount of taxes per capita, the proportion of low income families in jurisdictions, and black males.
- Large city (100,000 to 1 million) police employment was found to be most sensitive to robbery rates, taxes per capita and proportion of black males (ages 15-25) in the population, in that order.
- Medium size and smaller cities based employment on, first, per capita taxes, robbery rates and then black male youth and low income families.

Data provided in the NMS indicate that law enforcement has not been a static field in terms of employment patterns. For example, the number of police increased from 74 per 100,000 population in 1910 to 182 per 100,000 in 1970, to 217 per 100,000 in 1975. Finally, however, it is believed that a plateau has been reached in police employment. The

latter exists in spite of the fact that many police executives feel that additional manpower is needed to do an effective job. The latter data about police executives came from a 1975 survey conducted for the purpose of this study which asked them to identify in rank order the most serious manpower problems in their agencies. The results were:

- The most serious problem was an inadequate number of authorized positions for law enforcement personnel.
- The next most serious concern was the inability to achieve or maintain authorized strength.
- One in five chiefs of small police departments in jurisdictions with less than 17,000 population reported that inadequate training and personnel were serious problems.
- General budgetary problems were also indicated as serious concerns.

In terms of additional personnel that law enforcement executives felt were needed, this same survey found that:

- Total manpower needs exceeded actual employment by about 27 percent for police and 34 percent for sheriffs.
- The greatest average percentage increases needed, 54 percent and 65 percent respectively, were reported by police and sheriffs in agencies with fewer than 10 employees.
- In the case of police, the average percentage increase reported as needed declined progressively with size of agency to about 17-18 percent for agencies with 150-999 employees.
- An average increase of 29 percent was needed by the largest police departments, those with 1,000 or more employees.

Another survey in 1965 conducted by the National League of Cities presented a somewhat different picture of projected manpower needs in police departments:

- The most striking difference was with major cities, 250,000 population or more. This category reported the smallest percentage requirement for additional officers, 11 percent. The National Manpower Survey reported a needed increase of 29 percent.

- For medium sized agencies, i.e., cities ranging from 50,000 to 250,000, the average percentage increase needed was virtually identical in the two surveys. They averaged 18-19 percent.
- Smaller departments, with populations of less than 50,000, reported an average need of 17 percent additional officers in the National League of Cities survey. Conversely, for this same group, the NMS reported needs ranging from 24 percent up to 54 percent.

Finally, this chapter ended with a deviation away from simply attempting to provide census-type data to an attempt at addressing a major policy and research issue regarding police and crime rates. The attempt was to establish if a relationship existed between the level of police manpower and the incidences of crime. The approach taken was an analysis of data from some of the most prominent studies that have been conducted addressing this issue. It was soon found that existing data do not answer this question. The problem is that definitive research results do not exist at this time.

Review of NMS Study Results

For the most part, data presented in this chapter do not go beyond giving a rather sketchy outline of where police resources are located (i.e., by occupational level) within law enforcement departments, by size of departments. Such data as employment trends by geographical areas, data for comparisons among specific departments and the like are not provided.

Data provided on manpower needs are insufficient. One reason is that the methodology employed, survey of police executives as to what they thought needs were, is too subjective to yield good results. The problem highlighted by this effort is that attempts at obtaining true manpower needs would require a more careful approach.

In attempting to extrapolate results from the experiments that have been undertaken, the study perhaps overlooked some very significant considerations regarding police presence and its impact on crime. The NMS makes the classical statement that the increase in the number of police employed over the years has resulted in an increase in the crime rate, indicating an inverse relationship between higher police employment and the deterrence of crime (page II-27). This statement fails to take into consideration alternative variables that may influence this pattern such as with more police there is a strong probability that there will be more arrests and that there has been a concomitant increase in crime reporting along with the increase in police employment, probably due to more liberalized thinking and more educated publics about some crime problems. In the end, as oftentimes happens in studies of this nature, more questions are raised than are answered.

Recommendations and Conclusions

The study provided no explicit recommendations or conclusions in this section. What does surface from the study, however, are a number of needs for additional study and action.

Perhaps the most patent need identified by the study is for a well designed, comprehensive, ongoing manpower survey for law enforcement personnel. This type of effort would be designed to obtain numerous relevant data items that would assist the practitioner and the researcher. A great deal of careful thought would have to be given to its design and conduct.

Further needs identified by the study are for data on police jobs/tasks and productivity requirements. If possible, standards for productivity should be established. The latter, of course, has far reaching implications for other problem areas within police departments, which were not a concern of this study, such as selection, promotional and training criteria, etc.

Another need identified was for further testing of various hypotheses concerning police omnipresence and its impact on crime. Studies discussed in this report, the Kansas City Preventive Patrol study, et.a have only begun to surface issues regarding this matter. Other research along these lines is indicated.

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
ATTACHMENT

VOLUME II
NEED PRIORITIES BY NMS CHAPTERS

EXAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED
PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

Chapter II

- *1. Ongoing law enforcement manpower study
- *2. Job/task needs research
- *3. Productivity research and performance standards
- *4. Police strategies in responding to crime

- 1. None
- 2. "Police Role and Its Implications for Organization Restructuring" 78-NI-AX-Q056
- 3. "National Project to Develop Police Performance Measures" 76-NI-99-0119
- 4. "Replication of Kansas City Citizens Reporting" 78-NI-AX-0107
"Managing the Police Demand" 77-NI-99-0074
"Police Referral Systems" 78-NI-AX-0020

*Priority developed by reviewer

Chapter III - The Outlook for Law Enforcement Employment: Manpower Projections to 1985

A major objective of this chapter was to "project future personnel needs of state and local criminal justice agencies, by occupation, for a 10 year period to 1985."

The approach taken for obtaining data for projections differed from that of the preceding chapter which relied upon information derived directly from an opinion survey of police executives. In this chapter attempts were made to forecast and analyze future needs in the law enforcement field based on such variables as crime rates, economic factors and other changes that might occur in such areas as decriminalization and the increased use of civilians in police departments.

The following findings were extrapolated from the data analyzed:

- Summarily, moderate, continued growth in law enforcement is anticipated during the 10 year period, although at a substantially slower rate than in recent years.
- Though in the past police protection accounted for a major share of total criminal justice expenditures and employment, the rate of growth has begun to taper off and will show further declines in the future.
- Recent employment growth has been more rapid for state and county agencies (about 4 percent annually) as compared to cities (about 2 percent annually).
- Sworn officer employment is projected to grow at a rate of 2.2 percent annually, as compared with an estimated growth rate of 4.0 percent for nonsworn employees. The indication here is that civilianization will continue to be popular in the future.

As stated earlier, major bases for projections about future police manpower needs were determined by anticipations of future crime rates and public financial support for law enforcement. In reference to these two indicators, the study hypothesizes the following:

- Part I offenses are expected to grow (but at a slower rate than the present time) between 1974 and 1980 due, in part, to continued high average unemployment.
- A significant decline in the crime rate (3.9 percent annually) is projected for the period of 1980-1985. This reduction is thought to be associated with the reduction in the proportion of youth in the population and the assumed reduction in unemployment.

- The index of the general ability of state and local governments to pay for law enforcement services are projected to grow at a relatively low annual rate of 3.3 percent between 1974 and 1980. This will be a result of the continuing effects of the recent economic recession upon state and local revenues and the limited recovery projected to 1980. A more rapid growth of expenditures, at a rate of 4.8 percent per year is projected for 1980-1985, reflecting the assumed recovery to a high employment economy by the latter year. In effect, there will be more money available for law enforcement as the crime rate declines, according to the findings of this study.

Several policy changes that may influence the role of police in the future are addressed in the latter section of this chapter. They refer to the following areas:

- Decriminalization of such offenses as public drunkenness, narcotics and drug abuse, gambling, prostitution, and sexual deviance may relieve the police officer's responsibility in these areas. The study postulates that if police are not involved in such matters, they will be free to perform other duties that are more in need of their efforts.
- Increased utilization of civilians, according to the study, is progressively becoming more prominent. One of the major benefits thought to be associated with this approach is that there are substantially lower costs associated with the use of civilian personnel than with sworn officers.
- Team policing is thought to be associated with increased crime solution, and the most advantageous use of the time and talents of officers. A NMS study conducted expressly for this project indicated that police departments ranked team policing in the following order: (1) improved police-community relations, (2) more efficient deployment of manpower, and (3) better coverage of patrol areas.
- Consolidation of small police agencies was discussed as another factor that could influence the utilization of police manpower. A clear approach to consolidation, according to the study, has yet to be defined.

Review of NMS Study Results

The purpose of this chapter was to portray the probable future trends in employment of law enforcement personnel. Major variables examined, future economy and future crime rates, were only estimates, thus posing problems of accuracy. In addition, statements made that implied

a definite or significant relationship between unemployment/employment and crime, urban vs. non-urban crime problems and youth and crime, are primarily conjecture. The latter, youth and crime, has a more substantive relationship than the others stated, however, it is difficult to project, with certainty, what this relationship will be in the future without considering a variety of other variables not considered by this study. At the present time, the impact of the former two variables on the incidences of crime has not been clearly defined.

Equally unclear in the literature are the possible effects of decriminalization, team policing, civilianization and consolidation. Team policing has been the subject of considerable debate and consolidation has been explored to some extent, however, more is needed in these areas before accurate future projections can be made. The remaining areas, decriminalization and civilianization have received little attention.

In this end, this chapter appears to provide few substantiated insights into the future for law enforcement employment.

Recommendations and Conclusions

Though this section of the chapter does not explicitly provide recommendations, some statements as to conclusions are listed. The conclusions, in summary, concern the slow-down effect that the economy will have on law enforcement hiring until 1980 and the accelerated pace of hiring, due to a stronger economy that will follow that period. Crime rates are expected to diminish during the period of 1980-1985.

As a result of information provided in this study, certain recommendations have become apparent to the writer. These recommendations concern the following:

- More scientific methods for projecting crime trends and other data relevant to forecasting law enforcement personnel needs.
- Additional research to provide definitive results about police manpower deployment to include issues concerning decriminalization, civilianization, team policing and consolidation.

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
ATTACHMENT

VOLUME II
NEED PRIORITIES BY NMS CHAPTERS

EXAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED
PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

Chapter III

- *1. Scientific method for projecting crime trends
- *2. Methods for determining future manpower
- *3. Level needs for law enforcement and criminal justice
- *4. Decriminalization studies
- *5. Civilianization studies
- *6. Team policing
- *7. Consolidation studies

- 1. LEAA's victimization survey addressed some issues
- 2. OCJET effort to develop a generic planning model for human resource development
- 3. None
- 4. 74-NI-99-0055 "The Impact of Decriminalization on the Intake Process of Public Inebriates"
- 5. None
- 6. None
- 7. 76-NI-99-0093 "Consolidation of Small Law Enforcement Agencies"

*Priority developed by reviewer

page 9

Chapter IV - Recruitment and Retention of Police Officers

This section of the volume assesses recruitment and retention trends of police department personnel. The data sources for these assessments are varied but primarily include a special NMS of police executive opinions (already discussed in preceding sections), a 1965 National League of Cities survey of police departments, the decennial Censuses of Population by the Bureau of Census and a 1973-1974 survey by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Major findings of data provided by the above-mentioned sources, as extrapolated by the contractor, are discussed below. In terms of recruitment and turnover:

- The special NMS of police executives' opinions indicated that few executives felt that a lack of qualified applicants was a "major problem". In rare cases where it was a "problem" however, it generally was related to a shortage of qualified minorities.
- The same survey found that qualifications of recruits, in general, had improved over the years. "Qualifications" are thought to be equated with educational levels.
- Turnover rates tended to be influenced by unemployment rates: lower turnover rates were exhibited with the rise of unemployment.
- The study speculates that since the preponderance of turnovers that occur, even during periods of high unemployment, are largely confined to smaller departments, it probably reflects the fact smaller departments have fewer incentives in the way of salaries and career opportunities. Also, small department personnel are less likely to be protected by civil service regulations, collective bargaining agreements and many of them hire personnel on a part-time basis.
- Sheriffs who also receive relatively low salaries and generally lack civil service protection, display a higher turnover rate than police in departments of all sizes. An additional factor associated with the sheriff turnover is attributed to the dullness of the job.

The report attempts to project personnel recruitment needs for the future. According to the report, hiring rates are determined by at least two factors: turnover and change in total authorized personnel. Since a slower growth rate in the economy is expected, fewer new positions will be authorized for police personnel. In this case, probably the majority of positions to be filled will be those to replace resignations, i.e., deaths, retirement and other such causes. Data provided in this regard are:

- The rate of personnel losses by death and retirement were estimated to average about 1.5 percent per year during 1974-1985. These findings are based on an analysis of the 1974 age distribution of sworn officers and retirement rates by age groups.
- Voluntary separation or quit rates were estimated at 6.4 percent for 1974-1980 and 7.9 percent for 1980-1985.
- Based on the above data about attrition rates and the perceived state of the economy, the contractor speculated that recruitment needs will show new entrants declining from 61,700 in FY 1974 to an annual average of 50,400 during the period of FY 1974-1980. It is expected to increase, however, to an average of 56,350 per year during the period of 1980-1985 as a result of increased turnover, under assumed improved labor market conditions.
- In terms of supply, the prime age group for recruitment of sworn officer personnel is projected to increase as are the educational levels of new entrants into the labor force.

Issues of ethnic minority employment and recruitment and, to a lesser degree, the employment of women in police work are discussed in this section of the document. According to the study, the situation is as follows:

- The police executive survey (mentioned earlier) found that executives felt that there was a "serious" problem in recruiting minorities and women. (It is assumed that the "serious" problem refers to a shortage of qualified persons within both groups.)
- A statement is made to the effect that, in fact, minority representation and the rate of increase in police departments was less than it should be. For example, the percentage of black law enforcement officers increased from only 3.6 percent in 1960 to 6.5 percent in 1974.
- Black and Spanish-American officers employed were lowest for state police agencies, as a group, and generally higher for city and county departments.
- The most pronounced disparity in minority police as to their representation within the population was found in the southern states. Pennsylvania was in the unique position of having attained parity in its proportion of minority police officers by 1974.

- Blacks and Spanish-Americans occupy a relatively small proportion of officer and managerial positions.

Data were extrapolated from three data sources, the decennial Censuses of Population for 1960 and 1970, the Uniform Crime Report and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission survey, to determine that a small but measurable increase in the proportion of women employed as police was evidenced.

It is thought that the recruitment rate of women will result in a gradual increase in their share of police officers, from about 3 percent in 1974 to about 3.9 percent in 1985.

Reviewer Comments Regarding the NMS

Data provided about current trends in recruitment and retention provide some insights into the areas of concern. The information gathering process could have been greatly enhanced, however, by the use, in some cases, of original data as opposed to secondary data sources. This is particularly true in the case of data on the employment of women in law enforcement. Data sources used, such as UCR, do not provide comprehensive statistics. The UCR report is limited to employment at the local (i.e., municipal or county) level of government.

Instead of utilizing an opinion survey to determine "perceptions" about turnover rates and recruitment needs, more accurate data could possibly have resulted from a first-hand examination of records or other means of assessing available data or generating new data.

Another concern regarding this chapter is that the aforementioned data are used to project future trends and needs. This fact casts an element of doubt on the utility of information provided in this regard.

Recommendations and Conclusions

Most of the recommendations provided in this section are exact quotations from the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. Basically they concern the need for better minority recruitment programs.

Other concerns that the reviewer derived from reading this chapter are the following: portable pensions, police unions, a variety of issues concerning recruitment practices as they relate to ethnic minorities and women and concerns about higher education and its impact on law enforcement personnel performance.

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
ATTACHMENT

VOLUME II
NEED PRIORITIES BY TMS CHAPTERS

EXAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED
PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

Chapter IV

- *1. Recruitment practices relating to minorities and women
- *2. Portable pensions for police personnel
- *3. Police unions
- *4. Higher education and police performance

- 1. 78-DF-AX-0111 "Assessing the Status of Women in American Policing"
- 2. None
- 3. None
- 4. OCJET Symposium on Higher Education for Police Officers on February 4-7, 1979. This will be based on the findings of the National Advisory Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers, funded by the Police Foundation.

*Priority developed by reviewer

Chapter V - Education for Law Enforcement Occupations

The purpose of this chapter is to present information on the current status and projected future levels of educational attainment of sworn law enforcement personnel and to consider educational standards and recommendations.

I. The Case for Higher Education

A. Need for Education

The need for higher education in the law enforcement field is predicated on two distinct but interrelated postulates. They are as follows:

1. The tasks performed by sworn law enforcement personnel are sufficiently complex and it is important that college training is relevant and useful.
2. On the average, college-educated personnel perform better than those who are not college graduates.

B. Review of Arguments in Favor of Higher Education for Police

The Police Foundation, American Bar Association, International Association of Chiefs of Police and the National Institute of Mental Health are proponents of higher education for police. In addition, two national commissions, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice (1967) and the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973), strongly recommended the implementation of college degree entrance standards.

This section of the NMS discussed the arguments used to support higher education for police personnel. The discussion is directed in three areas: the first being the complexity of police work, secondly the hypothesized abilities of college graduates to perform the required tasks and finally the assumption that college education acts as an effective selection device.

1. The Complexity of the Job

The NMS points out that while a lot of the policeman's job is routine he must:

- a. Understand the intricacies of the law almost as well as a lawyer.

- b. Provide counseling in crisis situations with the knowledge and diplomacy of a social worker. He must act most often during explosive situations when not one but several professional skills are called for simultaneously.

In addition an officer must:

- c. Exercise discretion in the use of arrest and force.
- d. Rely on his own judgment away from his supervisor.
- e. Be self-motivated.

Finally, the complexity of the job is exacerbated by the inherent role conflicts, e.g., officers are perceived as crime fighters, but they also have other roles including a peacekeeping function.

Our everchanging society and the advance of technology are also causing the policeman's job to become more complex. Some examples of this are:

- a. Computerization of records;
- b. Consolidation of political areas;
- c. Specialization and
- d. Team policing.

As a side note, the NMS points out that mid and top-level administrators have even more complex sets of responsibilities.

2. Relevant Abilities of College-Educated Personnel

If one accepts the given that a police officer's job is complex, the NMS points out that the problem becomes one of how to ensure that the job is performed fairly and effectively.

The NMS cites different authorities such as Larry Hoover who states "the kind of training necessary to create tolerant, humane and skilled professionals is characterized by the work education". Hoover also stated that a police officer needs higher education as higher education promotes--self motivation, better ability to handle role conflicts and upgrades his ability to best use discretionary power.

3. Organizational Considerations

It is presented that if the job is very complex, requires the use of a large amount of discretion and other high level skills that are taught in college, then selection and promotion should be geared to attract such people. In addition, a most important factor arguing for increased educational standards for police personnel concerns the increasing education attainment of the general population. In addition, since most police departments are organized almost exclusively around a single level of entry (line patrolmen), the selection procedure that chooses this level also determines the pool from which all higher levels of supervision and management come from. Therefore, unless people are selected that have the necessary education to do the job then education must be obtained after employment and before promotion or promotion decisions must be made from a small number of qualified applicants.

II. Job Analysis Conclusions Relating to Higher Education

The NMS conducted a job analysis for six positions in the law enforcement field. The following information summarizes those results that relate to the desirability of higher education for law enforcement personnel.

Two measures to ascertain if higher education was needed to do police work were used. They are the general educational development rating scale and the second was an appraisal by several incumbents in each of the occupations considered.

As a result of this action, none of the tasks identified as pertinent to the police officer's job (line patrolman) were rated by either method as requiring college training. These appraisals are not conclusive due to the fact that GED ratings are intended to measure the complexity and sophistication of a given task but not explicitly to indicate whether college is required and the small sample of people used in the survey.

III. Empirical Studies of Higher Education and Police Performance

A. Studies Conducted

In the past ten years a number of attempts have been made to see if college education improves police performance. There are at least two ways to approach this: one being looking at agency performance, e.g., comparing an agency(s)

with college-educated personnel with an agency(s) with no college-educated personnel and the other is to compare individual performance. Unfortunately, the complexities involved in the attempt to compare two agencies makes it next to impossible to isolate the single variable of education as responsible for any differences that exist. For this reason, all but one of the studies that addressed the performance issue considered individual employees and not agencies.

The following is a listing of those studies with the major findings:

Police Background Characteristics and Performance by Cohen and Chaiker. In this study 1,915 police officers were used as the sample over a period of time that encompassed 1957 through 1968.

The correlation analysis indicated that those with higher levels of education are more likely to be promoted out of patrol duty and less likely to be the objects of civilian complaints.

The Effect of Education on Police Attitudes (1969) by Norman L. Weiner. In this study, a positive relationship was determined between education and promotion.

Predicting Police Failures by Ruth J. Levy (1967). Levy found that resignations are positively correlated with high levels of education. Levy provides the following caveat in regard to this finding. ". . . police departments, in general do not sufficiently meet the needs of their better educated officers. The better officers . . . may leave for more challenging employment."

Police Recruit Educational Background Analysis by Larry Hoover. Hoover reports in this 1974 study that the level of education does not consistently influence anticipated tenures.

Psychological Assessment of Patrolmen Qualifications in Relation to Field Performance by Baehr, Furcon and Fraimel (1968). This study disclosed that higher educational achievements are a significant explanatory variable for the rating score of police officers in one of the white groups but not in any of the black groups in the Chicago study.

B. Studies that Correlate Education with Psychological Constructs

The following list of studies makes three assumptions:

(1) that the attitude being measured is desirable for police work, (2) that the test accurately measures the attitudes and (3) that if an individual's attitude is poor his or her performance is also bad.

Weiner, p. 327. Weiner tested the relationship between education and 15 attitudinal factors. Only five of the factors are determined to be significantly related to the level of education. The results indicate that the more highly educated officer is more likely to understand Black rights, approve of Black protests, etc.

Authoritarianism in College and Non-College Oriented Police by Smith, Locke and Wolher. Smith, et al., undertook three studies of the effect of education on the degree of authoritarianism in a police officer's attitude profile.

The first study indicated that newly appointed New York City police officers attending college are significantly less authoritarian than comparable officers not attending college.

The second study shows that police officers attending John Jay College are less authoritarian than other students at John Jay.

The third study shows that those with bachelor's degrees are less authoritarian than their counterparts without degrees.

C. Conclusions

The available empirical data which was cited in the NMS does not strongly support the assertions of the National Commission that education is highly correlated with performance.

The methodological shortcomings of the cited studies make it reasonable to conjecture that the studies may underestimate the effects of education on performance.

It is abundantly clear that the hypothesis relating higher education to police performance remain to be tested.

In the absence of conclusive empirical evidence to the contrary, the *a priori* case for the recommendations that college education be vigorously promoted among law enforcement personnel remains persuasive to most authorities.

IV. Chief Executives' Appraisals of College and Non-College Personnel

A. Opinion Survey

The NMS surveyed 1,093 police chiefs in 1975 and asked their opinion on a number of questions. The following is a delineation of more important findings of the opinion survey.

Compare the performance of officers who have earned college degrees with that of those who have not on several dimensions.

- 40 percent indicate that college graduates are superior.
- 46 percent indicate that there is no difference or that they do not know.
- The dimensions that are most associated with the essentials of police work and differentiate between acceptable and unacceptable performance ("patrol," "making quality arrests," "generating fewer citizen complaints") show little differentiation between college and non-college officers.
- "Handling paperwork and achieving promotions" are the areas in which college graduates are rated the highest.
- College degree holders also rated highly on two performance dimensions that suggest the peacekeeping and service functions.
- College-educated personnel are often perceived as superior to other officers by chiefs of large agencies rather than by chiefs of small agencies.
- Executives overall appraisals of college and non-college personnel are strongly correlated with their own educational achievements and their ages.
- 40 percent of the chiefs surveyed feel that college-educated personnel are superior to non-college personnel. 46 percent of the chiefs stated that there were no substantial differences between the two and 13 percent feel that non-college officers are superior.

The NMS states that based on the data and opinions it reviewed, that at the patrol officer level there are no tasks that are typically performed at this level for which college work is either "required" or "highly desirable." It must be concluded that evidence that conclusively demonstrates that college graduates perform better does not now exist.

The NMS further states that despite the absence of conclusive evidence of the effect of education on performance, it is nonetheless reasonable for departments to pursue the policy of encouraging higher education among their personnel.

B. Analysis of Recent Trends in Educational Attainment

The purpose of this section is to point out the current levels of education attained by law enforcement personnel. Current levels of attainment are compared with the levels in the recent past and the trends in the labor force as a whole.

In addition, the extent to which rising attainment at entry and in-service educational upgrading are contributing to the trends is also considered. The relationship of rank and tenure to education level is analyzed. Differences in educational attainments among states and regions are then considered and lastly the education levels of incumbents with the recommendations discussed in the preceding section.

1. Increase in the Educational Level of Sworn Personnel 1960-1974

a. Major increases in the educational attainment of sworn law enforcement personnel occurred during the years from 1960-1974. Some of the major findings are as follows:

- The proportion of police officers with less than high school educations declined from 37 percent in 1960 to 10 percent in 1974.
- In 1960, 20 percent of sworn police personnel had completed one or more years of college. In 1974, 47 percent of the police officers in the country had done so.
- The rate of growth in the education level of sworn personnel between 1970-1974 was somewhat higher than what would have been predicted by extending the average annual growth rate between 1960-1970 through 1974.
- The number of individuals (in 1974) who had completed at least one year of college increased significantly more than would have been expected on the 1960's trend.

- The actual rate of decline in the number of those without high school diplomas exceeded the rate that would have been expected.
- The growth in the percent of personnel with some college between 1970 and 1974 was significantly higher for police officers than it was for all male workers.
- The educational level of police recruits at entry has been rising steadily over the last 15 years, e.g., 20.2 percent of those entering police service in 1960-1964 had 13-15 years of schooling, in 1965-1969 the figure was 19.9 percent and in 1970-1974 it was 29.8 percent.
- 1.7 percent of the individuals in the 1960-1964 cohort earned an associate degree during either their first five to nine years, 1965-1969, and 0.4 percent earned a bachelor's or a master's degree. In contrast, 8 percent of the 1965-1969 cohort earned associate degrees during 1970 and nearly 4 percent earned bachelor's degrees.
- In 1974, the education of law enforcement officers was positively correlated with age. The older the officer the less likely he is to have completed high school and to have attended or completed college.
- Among current incumbents almost twice the percentage of the 1970-1974 new entrants had attended college at entry as had entrants during the period 1965-1969.

2. The Relationship of Rank Order to Education Level

- a. The purpose of this section is to compare the educational levels of law enforcement personnel by occupational categories to test the hypothesis that education is directly correlated with advancement. The survey displayed the following data:
- 60 percent of all investigators and supervisors have some college education. 47 percent of line patrolmen have completed at least one year of college while only 42 percent of the managers surveyed had attended some college.

- Part of the reasons, thus, for the relatively low educational standing of managers is the effect of an educational generation gap which means that managers with relatively long service reflect the lower average educational levels at entry that were present when they entered police work.

3. Educational Attainment by Region and State

There were vast differences between regions and states in regard to the educational attainment of sworn law enforcement officers. Some of the more significant data are as follows:

- A total of 13 states had proportions of college-educated officers more than 10 percentage points below the national level which is 46 percent.
- The two extremes are the Pacific and East South Central regions. Seventy-seven percent of all sworn personnel in the Pacific region in 1974 had completed at least one year of college, compared with only 37 percent in the East South Central regions.
- The extent to which a state supports higher education affects the percentage of officers in the state with some college experience.

V. Comparison of Current Attainment with Desired Standards

The purpose of this section is to compare the educational attainment of incumbents with the standards that have been proposed. None of the standards proposed have been proven by use of criterion-related validation research.

A. & B. High School Diploma and Some College Attainment

Two of the standards cited in this area are (1) the high school diploma as the minimum educational level at entry, and (2) some college attainment as an entry-level standard for sworn personnel.

It was noted in the NMS that a very small percentage of agencies have entry-level educational standards above the high school level (7 percent). There are many possible reasons for this fact but it seems that civil service restrictions may be the biggest factor.

Research disclosed that 87 percent of all police and 84 percent of all sheriff agencies have the requirement of a high school diploma for employment.

C. Higher Education Requirements for Management and Supervisory Personnel

It has been proposed that there is a pressing need for higher education for managers and supervisors. The task analysis study undertaken by the NMS also shows that there are several tasks performed by managers and supervisors for which college education is either necessary or highly desirable. It is to be noted that only about 10 percent of incumbent supervisors and managerial level personnel were college graduates in 1974.

D. College Degree Requirements for Chief Executives

The Police Chief Executive Committee recommended that a baccalaureate requirement should be immediately established for future police chiefs in agencies with 75 or more employees.

Only 34 percent of all chiefs of agencies with 75 or more employees have a bachelor's degree. The break out of this percentage is as follows: 43 percent of chiefs of agencies with 400 or more employees have a four year degree while only 30 percent of the chiefs of agencies with 75 to 399 employees have graduated from college. When looking at agencies of less than 75 employees, it is noted that only 13 percent are college graduates.

VI. Projections of Educational Attainment in 1980-1985

Although requirements for higher education as a condition of entry into sworn status have been implemented by no states and few individual agencies, the increase in college attainment has nevertheless proceeded with extraordinary rapidity. By 1985 better than three out of every four sworn officers nationwide can be expected to have completed at least one year of college. Nearly two out of every ten officers should be college graduates, and fewer than 5 percent should be high school dropouts.

VII. Recommendations and Conclusions

The NMS suggests that elaborate and expensive policies designed to accelerate the rate of growth in the number of college-educated line personnel will be hard to justify.

The NMS recommends that:

- A. Education for mid-level managers should be assigned a higher priority than it appears to have at the present.
- B. Restructure the line patrol job to utilize the skills of the college-educated individual.
- C. Increases in the education standard at entry or increased financial incentives for continued educational upgrading do not appear to be called for.
- D. A certain percentage of LEEP funds should be earmarked for lieutenants, captains, and other managers.
- E. Management training programs which often offer college credit should be expanded.
- F. Departments should require higher education for promotion to managerial positions.
- G. Police administrators should restructure their organizations to take advantage of these abilities.
- H. State standards and training commissions should adopt and enforce a high school graduation entrance requirement.
- I. Standards and training commissions or state planning agencies should provide financial assistance to small agencies that cannot otherwise compete for qualified personnel.
- J. Consolidation of small agencies that are unable to adequately meet their training responsibilities should happen.

- K. LEAA should encourage higher educational attainment among incumbents of smaller agencies by giving their incumbents priority standing for LEEP funding or by allocating additional funds to LEEP-funded schools that are in the proximity of small agencies.

Reviewer Conclusions

Chapter V of the NMS addressed generally education for law enforcement occupations. It touched on subject areas such as a case for higher education for law enforcement officers, complexity of the job, relevant ability of college-educated personnel, etc. The major portion of this chapter was based on the writings of other experts in the field. Very little empirical data was used as a base for the notion that law enforcement officers need higher education.

There was mention in this chapter of job analysis of law enforcement positions. The NMS method of conducting a job analysis used too small of a sample to really reflect a national picture. In fact it may be better to have statewide job analyses completed and then have the data aggregated at the Federal level. In this way we would be better able to ascertain what tasks are performed nationally, what are peculiar to the different states and finally what tasks are peculiar to each local unit of government. This form of job analysis would then make up the data base from which recruitment, selection, testing, training, education, etc., programs would be developed.

It is noticed that the NMS favors the status quo when there is no conclusive evidence to show otherwise. The question is posed: why didn't the NMS commission original research in those areas that there was inclusive evidence to indicate just what the actual conditions are?

It is recommended by this writer that LEAA commission NCJISS to update the NMS as it is of utmost importance that a proper data base be established by which LEAA can direct its human resource development program. The evidence found in this section of Chapter V leaves one to believe that much work is to be done in this area.

The chapter also touched on the effects of education on police performance. It was obvious from what was presented that there is a need to further study the relationship of education and the performance of law enforcement officers. It is recommended by this writer that a state of the art project be undertaken to ascertain what has been, what it means and recommend what the next step is to be taken so we can better discern just what effect education has on law enforcement personnel to be efficient, effective and just.

Likewise in the area of correlation of education with psychological constructs. Much of the work cited indicated that the results are inconclusive. Additional work in the area is a must if we are to ensure that the best people are chosen in the job of peace officer.

In the section of the chapter that addressed the chief executives opinion survey it is noted that in certain critical areas the opinion of the chiefs differ from the actual practice, i.e., "40 percent indicate that college are superior" only 7 percent of the agencies have college education requirements.

This writer recommends that additional research be conducted to see why the major differences exist.

In the section of Chapter V that addressed comparison of current attainment with desired standards, a caveat is offered which states in essence the standards which are used as the bench marks are not criterion related to the jobs. This situation should not be allowed to exist. In the 1970's we must develop our programs based on empirical evidence not on what is believed or what we have a gut feeling for. I recommend that LEAA undertake a thorough study of all job analysis projects which have been conducted in the last five years to see if the data can be compared. If not, then a major effort with the Department of Labor should be undertaken to ascertain just what the job entails so when projects are developed in the areas of recruitment, testing, selection, training, education career development, etc., they will be based on empirical data.

The NMS as it stands is a first step in the right direction. The document as it stands is not a quality product. The need to have this type of information available so state and local as well as federal programs can be planned for and developed in the human resource area is a must.

An update of the survey including new research in the areas where data was not available or of questionable value should be undertaken by LEAA immediately.

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
ATTACHMENT

VOLUME Two
NEED PRIORITIES BY NMS CHAPTERS

EXAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED
PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

Chapter V

- * 1. Conduct a thorough study of all job analysis projects that have been conducted in the United States in the field of law enforcement. See what is compatible--fill in gaps with additional research.
- * 2. Commission NCJISS to update the NMS.
- 3. Restructure the line patrol job to utilize the skills of the college-educated individual.
- 4. Education for mid-level managers should be assigned a higher priority than is now here.
- 5. A certain percentage of LEEP funds should be earmarked for lieutenants, captains and other managers.
- 6. Management training programs which offer college credit can be expanded.

*Priority developed by reviewer

- 1. National Institute has a project that identifies all known law enforcement job analysis projects. No evaluation is undertaken. OCJET has two projects on job analysis--one in the State of Florida and one to California. This information is being fed into the National Institute project. No comprehensive project is underway.
- 2. No project is underway.
- 3. No project is underway.
- 4. OCJET's Special Emphasis LEEP Program addressing manager's higher education.
- 5. See #4.
- 6. National Sheriff's Institute, USC, gives college credit.

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
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PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

Chapter V

7. Police administrators can restructure their organizations to take advantage of the abilities of college-educated personnel.
8. Departments could require higher education for promotion to managerial positions.
9. Commissions could adopt and enforce a high school graduation entrance requirement.
10. Study the relationship of education and the performance of law enforcement officers.
11. Standards and Training Commissions or State Planning Agencies may wish to provide financial assistance to small agencies that cannot otherwise compete for qualified personnel.
12. Give small agency incumbents priority standing for LEEP funding or allocate additional funding to LEEP funded schools that are in proximity of small agencies.

*Priority developed by reviewer

7. IACP could address this area but does not at this time.
8. No program underway.
9. Not LEAA's responsibility.
10. No program underway.
11. No program underway.
12. No program underway.

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
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PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

10. Provide open enrollment in training academies to individuals who are considering applying for police work. SPA and POST's should encourage training untrained personnel a priority.
11. States should provide substitute personnel to fill in for personnel of small agencies while they are attending regional training.
12. All agencies should provide training to new personnel at the time of hire.

10. Not LEAA responsibility.
11. Not LEAA responsibility.
12. Not LEAA responsibility.

*Priority developed by reviewer

NHS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
ATTACHMENT

VOLUME Two
NEED PRIORITIES BY NMS CHAPTERS

EXAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED
PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

Chapter V

13. Consolidation of small agencies that are unable to adequately meet their training responsibilities.
- * 14. Study the correlates of education with psychological constructs as it relates to law enforcement personnel.
- * 15. Conduct research in how police chief executives opinions in regard to what should be done in law enforcement differs from what is actually happening in the field.

13. No program underway.
14. No program underway.
15. No program underway.

*Priority developed by reviewer

Chapter VI - Training for Law Enforcement Occupations

I. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the current requirements for entry-level, in-service, and supervisory training and to measure the extent to which current training is sufficient with respect to these perceived needs.

A. Methodology

Current levels of training are designed in two ways:

1. Reporting the length and content of training offered; and
2. Utilizing job analysis information.

Information in regard to current training is derived from the following sources:

1. NMS Law Enforcement Executive Survey
2. U.S. Bureau of the Census Survey of incumbent employees
3. National Association of State Directors of Law Enforcement Training Survey

Several sources concerning requirements for training were used:

1. Recommendations from prescriptive literature
2. NMS job analysis findings
3. Appraisals by law enforcement chief executives

B. Assessment of Current Levels of Training

The purpose of this section is to review the current status of entry-level, in-service, and supervisory training for law enforcement personnel.

1. Recent Growth in Entry-Level Training

The following findings were reported by the NMS. The information reported was compared with a survey conducted in 1967.

- All agencies in jurisdictions of 25,000 or more surveyed in 1975 offered some formal recruit training to new employees. In 1967 only 89 percent of the same sized category provided such training.
- Ninety-nine percent of agencies serving jurisdictions of between 10,000 and 25,000 population offered training in 1975. In 1967 only 75 percent of the same sized agencies offered entry-level training.
- Of the 240 agencies that responded to the survey, 20 percent were founded within the last five years. Sixty-six percent were established within the last ten years.
- Almost 80 percent of the agencies surveyed increased the duration of their entry-level training between 1970-1975.

C. Current Incidence of Entry-Level Training

1. More than three-fourths of all sworn law enforcement personnel on duty in 1974 had attended a police training academy. The extremes that made up this number are 95 percent of all incumbents in agencies with 1,000 or more but only 52 percent of incumbents in agencies of 25 or fewer had received formal academy training.
2. The ranking of the states with respect to the proportion of officers who have had entry-level training is not dissimilar from the ranking based on the educational level of incumbents discussed in the preceding chapter.
3. States with high levels of college attainment among their sworn personnel also have high percentages of trained personnel.
4. Most of the new hires not receiving training are employed by agencies with fewer than 25 employees.
5. Recruits in agencies with fewer than 25 employees make up 20 percent of all recruits, they account for approximately 86 percent of all untrained new incumbents.

The survey goes on and states that only 26 percent of all agencies give training immediately upon entry. The range is 20 percent to 56 percent.

In 90 percent of agencies of 400 or more employees, the number of hours given to new recruits is 400 hours. This figure is somewhat different in agencies with less than 400 employees.

1. 75-399 employees - 55 percent offer more than 400 hours.
2. 25-74 employees - 42 percent offer more than 400 hours.
3. Fewer than 25 employees - 18 percent offer more than 400 hours.
4. Almost 60 percent of all new recruits received 400 or more hours of training.
5. Only 34 percent of sheriffs' recruits received 400 or more hours of training.
6. Neither the percentage of high school dropouts or the percentage of personnel without training appears to have changed appreciably in the last four years.

D. Content of Entry-Level Training

The NMS opinion survey of police executives asked (1) what topics they felt require at least a moderate amount of training and (2) are covered by the training their recruits receive. The following are the major results of that survey.

1. Of the 14 percent subject areas presented in the survey, large police departments reported a range of percentages that offered the subjects in this training program from 91.49 percent to 99.7 percent. Small police departments range from 88.9 percent to 98.2 percent. Large sheriff departments range of subjects offered was 80.2 percent to 99 percent, while small sheriff departments reported a range of 80.6 percent to 98.9 percent.
2. The major differences between the large and small police departments was in the area of community and race relations. Ninety-seven point five percent for the large agencies and 88.9 percent for the small agencies. Both large and small sheriffs' departments reported 92 plus percent.
3. In regard to sheriff departments, the major difference in subjects being offered was in the area of departmental policies and procedures. 84.2 percent for large agencies and 99.8 percent for small.

4. The major difference reported between large police departments and large sheriff departments was in the area of traffic accident investigations. 97.2 percent for large police departments and 80.3 percent for large sheriff departments.
5. In comparing small police departments with small sheriff departments, it is observed that two subject areas show a wide range of difference. Traffic control, 93.19 percent to 80.6 percent, respectively and accident investigation 96.7 percent to 85.5 percent respectively.
6. The major differences found between large and small agencies were in the areas of community relations and weapons use policy.

As a side note the NMS conducted a job analysis in which respondents were asked where the performance of an identified task was learned. In all but five of the 28 tasks, the majority of the respondents report that they learned the task primarily through on-the-job experience.

In an attempt to get a handle on the adequacy of entry-level training, 54 line supervisors and knowledgeable incumbents were asked about the average recruit proficiency in 66 skills and areas of knowledge. Trained recruits were rated as very deficient in 12 of the 66 areas. It would appear that the training programs offered are not doing the job or the expectation of supervisors and knowledgeable incumbents is beyond reality.

The findings in this part of the chapter are not conclusive due to the shoddy research methodology utilized. The area of the quality of training needs to be studied further. Until we have adequate knowledge of the tasks that are performed and what levels of knowledge, skills, behavior sets and values are needed to do the job of a law enforcement officer in the most efficient, effective and just manner then we will not be able to make a determination as to if the training being offered is of the quality needed and in sufficient amounts.

II. In-Service Training

According to the census employees characteristics survey, 36 percent of all sworn personnel report having completed at least one specialized training program. Patrol officers reported the lowest percentage (34) while 42 percent of all investigators and 45 percent of supervisors and managers reported as having participated in at least one specialized training course.

Other highlights of the chapter are as follows:

- 68 percent of the agencies responding to the executive opinion survey indicated that they provide or arrange for in-service training for at least some of their employees. Small agencies reported a low of 63.4 percent and the large 96.1 percent.
- Most agencies only provide it (in-service training) for a small fraction of their sworn personnel in a given year.
- Executives in 27 of the 31 agencies surveyed perceived a need for considerable expansion of in-service training.

III. Supervisory Training

The job of supervisor requires planning and administrative ability as well as a mastery of law enforcement processes and techniques. The following are the most critical findings in regard to supervisory training.

- 16 percent of all incumbent supervisors have received administrative training. This breaks down as follows: 15 percent patrol and 25 percent detective supervisors.
- 37 percent of police and 29 percent of sheriff agencies responding to the NMS executive survey require such (supervisory) training.

The NMS states that as a result of their field job analysis there is some doubt on the effectiveness of supervisory training. One hundred and sixty-five patrol supervisors and 96 detective supervisors from 31 agencies were asked to indicate where they learned to perform the tasks involved in their jobs. A large majority of those surveyed judged that they learned all the tasks specific to their jobs primarily through on-the-job experience.

Newly appointed supervisors were reported to be deficient in five major areas. They are as follows: planning and decisionmaking, personnel administration, issues requiring legal interpretation, motivation, morale and police productivity and crowd and riot control.

IV. Comparison of Current Training with Desired Standard

This section reviews the recommendation suggested by the literature and the information garnered by this project relative to the

characteristics of desirable training and compares these perceptions with the data on current training that were described in Section A.

None of the proposed standards have been demonstrated by criterion-related validation to be significantly related to performance.

A. Entry-Level Training

The Peterson Commission and the President's Crime Commission recommended 400 hours of formal classroom work as the minimum length of time required to train a recruit properly. Approximately 63 percent of new recruits (in 1975) received at least 400 hours of formal classroom training. The 37 percent who received less than 400 hours of training or no training at all are concentrated in the smaller agencies.

Of the six topic areas the Peterson Commission recommended to be addressed in the 400 hour curriculum, there were major differences in two areas from the actual distribution of time allotted to the six topic areas in the academies surveyed. These were:

1. Human values and problems - The Peterson Commission recommended 22 percent of this time be allotted to this area. The distribution of actual time in academies surveyed was 7 percent.
2. Police proficiency - The Peterson Commission recommended 18 percent of time while 28 percent was allotted in the academies surveyed.

B. In-Service Training

Both the Peterson Commission and the President's Commission recommend that all sworn police personnel receive periodic formal in-service training.

The Peterson Commission stated that 40 hours of in-service training should be provided to sworn police employees. Sixty percent of all large police agencies offer in-service training that averages less than 40 hours.

C. Supervisory Training

There is consensus that supervisors need training when they are newly appointed. Three major groups that made this type of recommendation are as follows:

1. The National Advisory Group on Productivity in Law Enforcement
2. The Peterson Commission
3. The President's Crime Commission

The need for supervisory training is also shown by the results of the NMS job analysis.

It is interesting to note that only 37 percent of the responding police agencies and 29 percent of the sheriff agencies require such training.

V. Conclusions and Recommendations

The National Manpower Survey contained the following recommendations in regard to Chapter VI, Volume II.

- All agencies should provide training to all new personnel at the time of hire.
- States should provide substitute personnel to fill in for personnel of small agencies while they are attending regional training.
- Provide open enrollment in training academies to individuals who are considering applying for police work.
- SPA and state standards and training councils should encourage training untrained personnel a priority.
- SPA and standards and training commissions should be encouraged to promote the development of structured field training. Field training should be at least several months in duration. It should include well trained and screened field-training officers, a precise list of topics and a mechanism for frequent evaluation and feedback.
- Significant changes in entry-level (recruit) training should be undertaken. Teaching techniques should be designed to emphasize experimental learning, e.g., simulation exercises and role playing.
- Experimental in-service training programs should be developed, e.g., peacekeeping role.

- Considerably more emphasis should be placed on in-service training and on training for newly appointed superiors. State standards and training commissions should consider establishing minimum standards for such training. A national set of model training programs should be developed.
- Further research is needed in the area of what are the adequate training requirements needed to enable a person to do a good job of law enforcement and also in determining the effectiveness of various training approaches.

VI. Reviewer Conclusions

The major fault with this chapter is similar to that of Chapter V in that the job analysis conducted by the NMS was not of sufficient scope to base many of their findings. There was very little attempt to ascertain just what the number of hours of training is needed at entry, in-service and supervisory levels.

As stated before in this review, step one in any effort to establish quantity and quality in training must start with a solid job analysis. Therefore, it is recommended here as it was in Chapter V that LEAA undertake a program that would insure that an adequate data base exists so that training programs, in general, and LEAA training programs specifically, for state and local personnel, can be developed which are criterion-related.

Notwithstanding the question of the caveat number of hours and the right quality of training, it appears that the smaller police agencies in this country lack sufficient training. It is recommended that LEAA undertake a project that would ascertain the best method to follow insuring that every police officer in the U.S. has the opportunity to meet minimum requirements that insure that all people living under the protection of the U.S. Constitution enjoy "due process of law".

A major project should be undertaken to ascertain the quality of training being produced in the U.S.

In-service and field training is another area in which LEAA should investigate by conducting studies. The facts disclosed in the NMS parallel the Georgia Post experiment in that most of what an officer learns about his job is learned by on-the-job training. If this is true, then much work is needed to develop model OJT field training programs. This is also true about supervisory training.

A major portion of Chapter VI which addressed standards was based on what was believed not on what is known. Unless a standard can be shown to be related to effectiveness, efficiency or the use of discretion in a just manner, it should not be used as a measure.

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- *1. LEAA should undertake a major task analysis project in order to establish a solid data base so that sound job-related training programs can be developed.
- *2. A project to evaluate the quality of training in the U.S. should be undertaken.
- 3. LEAA should undertake a project to develop model field training and supervisory training programs.
- 4. Significant changes in entry level (recruit) training should be undertaken. Teaching techniques should be designed to emphasize experimental learning.
- *5. Further research is needed in the area of what are the adequate training requirements needed to enable a person to do a good job in law enforcement and also in determining the effectiveness of various training approaches.

- 1. Two projects underway in California and Florida in the area of job analysis not directed especially at training.
- 2. No project underway.
- 3. No project underway.
- 4. No project underway.
- 5. No project underway.

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| <p>6. Research the best method of insuring that all police officers have the chance to be adequately trained.</p> <p>7. Experimental in-service training programs should be developed.</p> <p>8. Considerably more emphasis should be placed on in-service, and on training for newly appointed supervisors. State POST Commissions should consider establishing minimum standards for such training. A national set of model programs should be developed.</p> <p>9. SPA's and POST Commissions should be encouraged to promote the development of structured field training. Field training should be at least several months in duration. It should include well-trained officers, a precise list of topics and mechanisms for frequent frequent evaluation and feed back.</p> | <p>6. No project underway.</p> <p>7. No project underway</p> <p>8. No project underway.</p> <p>9. Not LEAA responsibility.</p> |
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*Priority developed by reviewer

NATIONAL MANPOWER SURVEY ANALYSIS: VOLUME THREE

CORRECTIONS

NATIONAL MANPOWER SURVEY ANALYSIS: VOLUME THREE

CORRECTIONS

Introduction

Volume III of the National Manpower Survey addresses treatment, custodial, parole and executive personnel in the correctional component of the criminal justice system. Primary focus is placed on recruitment, selection, training and education for adult institutions at state and local levels. It should be noted that the area of juvenile justice is addressed in the attachment section of this analysis report.

A review of the survey research procedures and results of the National Manpower study show that the project encountered numerous difficulties with obtaining the survey responses. They detail their efforts to overcome the obstacles of non-response, incomplete responses, inconsistent responses and, in general, limitations imposed on their ability to obtain information from essential sectors of the criminal justice system. Some of the procedures detailed call into question sound methodological procedures. However, the study does make the effort to accomplish a task that had not been attempted before that being a series of very complex national surveys conducted simultaneously across the criminal justice system. The greatest problem appears to be the necessity for relying upon several data sources and attempting to make them compatible.

An additional difficulty comes from the projections produced. As far as can be determined, the study uses data for projections that are consistent with other known sources. Nonetheless, the rejection of projections showing rapid population increases occurred. This was unfortunate, however, the staffing and adequacy data should be of value for presenting a general overview of the problem.

Chapter I - Executive Summary

Chapter I of Volume III is taken into consideration by reviewers in the analysis of subsequent chapters. In short, subject matter presented in the "Executive Summary" of Volume III is merged with chapters that follow.

Chapter II - Current Manpower AssessmentA. An Overview of Correctional Manpower

Introduction: The correctional function, as defined by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, includes governmental agencies responsible for the confinement and rehabilitation of offenders as well as probation and parole. This section provides summary information on the overall distribution of correctional manpower in four major categories of correctional agencies: state institutions for adults; local jails; juvenile institutions; and probation and parole agencies.

Employment by Type of Agency in 1974 - State and Local

Out of the total employees in state and local correctional agencies, 52 percent worked in adult correctional institutions with 22 percent in probation and parole agencies. Of those in adult institutions, 62 percent were employed by state governments. Local governments accounted for 57 percent of the probation and parole employees.

Estimated Occupational Distribution - 1974

Out of the total correctional employment, 34 percent of the employees were correctional officers and supervisors in adult institutions. Probation and parole officers accounted for 11 percent; and 11 percent of the total were classified as treatment and education specialists* in adult and juvenile facilities. Approximately 7 percent of the total were managers which includes probation and parole supervisors.

Correctional Workload and Employment Trends

Between 1965 and 1974 total correctional employment nearly doubled with probation and parole agencies experiencing the most rapid growth followed by local jails and other locally based facilities.

*In the NMS survey, treatment and education specialists include teachers, social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, physicians, dentists, nurses and allied health professionals, chaplains, librarians, and recreation specialists.

Current Correctional Manpower Problems - NMS Survey 1975

Correctional administrators identified the inadequate number of authorized positions as their most serious manpower problem followed by the inability to achieve or maintain authorized strength and excessive turnover. General budgeting problems were reported as the main contributing factor to these manpower problems with general lack of qualified applicants ranked second.

B. State Correctional Institutions for Adults

Between 1962 and 1974 employment in state correctional facilities rose 42 percent with treatment and educational specialists increasing by more than a 100 percent during this same period. By 1974, one-third of all correctional manpower was employed in state operated correctional facilities.

Although there was a decline in the inmate population in state facilities during the 1960's, the period between 1972 and 1976 experienced a 23 percent increase in populations. For some states this resulted in overcrowded facilities, an increased shortage of correctional officers in basic line custodial positions and treatment personnel.

An NMS survey in 1975 showed that administrators of state adult facilities reported a need for an increase of 42 percent for treatment specialists as compared with 14 percent for custodial officers. In another survey during this year, 60 percent of the executives viewed good incarceration management as their most important goal with 40 percent considering prisoner rehabilitation as most important. The focus on incarceration management increased with the size of the facility. The NMS concluded that this division among prison administrators on their most important goal reflected significant differences in emphasis in the treatment function that existed among the nation's prisons. In some instances, such differences prevailed among individual states. Since the survey stated that treatment services were found most often in larger facilities, it would seem logical that the emphasis on rehabilitation would be less in the forefront than correctional management practices.

C. Local Jails

In 1972 there were 3,921 jails of which 75 percent were small with accommodations for no more than 20 inmates. There were 44,298 jail employees with one-third being employed in the 113 facilities holding more than 250 inmates. Eighty-nine percent of all jail personnel were full time. The overall proportion of treatment specialists and teachers in the jail setting was only about 3 percent. Approximately two-fifths of these employees were working in part-time status. Medical staff accounted for 5 percent of the total and nearly one half were part time.

In 1975 overcrowding was more prevalent in the larger facilities due to the increase of inmate populations. This, of course, frequently resulted in a backlog of state prisoners in local institutions.

An analysis of existing staffing ratios in relation to professionally recommended standards indicates that jails experienced the most serious deficiency of treatment specialist personnel.

D. Juvenile Corrections

Information contained in this particular section is presented in an attachment to this report.

E. Probation and Parole Agencies

A 1975 NMS survey reported that a 35 percent increase of total staff in probation and parole agencies was needed with adult agencies experiencing more extensive shortages and also constituting 60 percent of the total probation and parole workload. Estimated additional requirements for probation and parole officers were somewhat lower at 28 percent suggesting a need for other personnel such as supervisors, counselors, etc. However, a smaller survey of 10 states found that half of the agencies experienced a shortage in officers. Juvenile and adult figures were not separated in the NMS. Therefore, information presented represents combined computations.

Reviewer Comments and Recommendations

Current correctional manpower in this chapter was assessed by examining employment trends up to 1974, manpower requirements as estimated by correctional administrators and by staffing ratios recommended by professional groups. Besides the limitations of the statistics which we have discussed in this introduction, it should be noted that the staffing ratios set by the 1967 President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the 1966 Manual for Correctional Standards are outdated due to many correctional trends. For example, new correctional facility designs and audio-visual devices for security and educational purposes.

The Commission on Accreditation and the recent standards issued by the Attorney General both state that there should be enough personnel to provide adequate security and treatment without setting staffing ratios.

The priorities that the NMS has determined, staffing of probation and parole agencies and treatment specialists in correctional institutions (especially jails), confirm the personnel increases reported needed by correctional administrators. These priorities seem justified and reliable with the present data; however, the trends that they discuss in assessing manpower projections will cause some impact.

In this reviewer's opinion, states who adopt mandatory sentencing will experience personnel shortages at their state adult institutions and will have to reassess the roles of their probation and parole staff due to the increase in probation and the abolishment of parole. The Institute is now studying the effects of mandatory sentencing in Maine and these findings should be beneficial in assessing the impact of sentencing policies in correctional manpower.

On the other end of this spectrum, there are the states that are expending the majority of their resources at the local level and adopting state subsidy programs. An example of this trend is found in Minnesota which enacted the Community Corrections Act which provides state subsidies to local governments in order to induce the development of additional sentencing alternatives at the local level; therefore, reducing judicial commitments to state adult penal facilities.

Assuming that sentencing policies will have little or no effect on inmate populations due to the discretion of prosecutors in reducing the charge, then the priorities of increasing probation and parole

staffs and then treatment personnel seem valid. I would personally like to see resources expanded first in increasing treatment personnel in local institutions since this is the first step for most individuals in the criminal justice process. The additional manpower should be used in increasing and developing classification and intake service centers. These centers can provide assistance to probation and parole agencies, to the courts and to state facilities. Assistance rendered would include providing diagnostic services for community-based corrections, providing pre-trial screening for such programs as ROR or conditional release, assisting the courts in sentencing offenders and assessing psychological, social or medical problems of individuals. Further discussion concerning correctional manpower trends can be found in Chapter III.

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Chapter II

(No Priorities Identified)

Priority developed by reviewer

Chapter III - The Outlook for Corrections Employment: Manpower
Projections to 1985

A. Introduction

The task of the National Manpower Survey is to project future personnel needs of state and local criminal justice agencies, by occupation, for a 10 year period to 1985.

Findings

The findings of the manpower outlook for corrections employment are based on assumptions about a number of current economic, demographic, and social trends that are affecting the corrections system. The most basic of the findings concerning correctional employment is that aggregate correctional employment is expected to increase 60 percent or to 324,000 by 1985. The additional findings in the report state that:

1. Total state inmate population is expected to increase from 217,000 in early 1976 to 243,000 in 1980 and 252,000 in 1985.
2. Probation and parole agencies will grow more rapidly.
3. Staffing in adult corrections institutions will increase by 58 percent.
4. Juvenile correctional agencies will experience a slower rate of growth.
5. Rapid growth is expected among key correctional occupations.
6. New sentencing policies are expected to have an impact on manpower needs.

B. Projection Scenario

The basic premise underlying the NPA Manpower Projection Model is that future demands for criminal justice services will be determined by (1) future trends in crime rates, (2) trends in state budget growth, and (3) population growth. Key variables affecting this model are economic opportunity, unemployment rates, and the proportion of youth in the population. The project predicts that the proportion of youth in the 15-24 age group will stabilize. The proportion of the population concentrated in

metropolitan areas is expected to decline. The study projects a decline in the unemployment rate and an improvement in the economic outlook of the nation. Each of these factors is expected to impact on the criminal justice system and cause a reduction in the crime rate.

C. Key Trends Affecting Corrections Employment

Trends affecting corrections employment include:

1. The likelihood of imprisonment increasing as the public takes a hardened attitude toward serious and chronic offenders.
2. The trend toward community-based programs.
3. The growth in probation and parole activities.
4. The reduction in the past decade of the ratio of inmates per staff member.

D. Projections of Corrections Employment

Projections are based on an assumed continuation of recent growth trends in state and local correctional agencies. The projections show increases in all categories of employment with the greatest need in probation and parole and the least in child care workers.

E. Assessment of Key Correctional Developments

Within the criminal justice system current developments are taking place. There is an increased use of community-based facilities. There is widespread use of work and study release programs. There are currently changes taking place in sentencing policies which will affect future correctional needs. Finally, mandatory minimum sentences for certain categories of offenders is a related sentencing reform that is receiving wide support.

F. Conclusions

The projections of manpower needs have been based on certain assumptions about future trends. However, changes in imprisonment practices as against non-resident programs will have a greater impact upon correctional needs. The imprisonment of offenders is more costly than is supervision of offenders by probation and parole agencies or in community-based facilities.

Reviewer Comments and Recommendations

The NMS findings are based on an assumed continuation of recent growth trends and projected increases in the prison inmate population as well as staffing patterns, available data, and survey results. The greatest difficulty with the findings is that a portion of the projected figures is based on an incorrect projected increase in the inmate prison population of state adult institutions.

The report states that the inmate population will increase from 217,000 in early 1976 to 243,000 in 1980 and 252,000 in 1985. However, figures published in the March, 1977 issue of Corrections Magazine report that the state prison population was 255,603. This figure surpasses both the 1980 and 1985 projected figures as of November, 1976 which was the approximate date of publication for the magazine. Thus the projections for inmate populations are already inadequate.

Reviews have pointed out that there are probably factors not considered in the study that have an impact on the number of future inmates. While demographic transition may be occurring among the aggregate U.S. population resulting in the stabilizing of the 18-24 age group, the number of Blacks in the 18-24 age range is still growing in relative size. Moreover, Blacks, because of their type of crimes and other reasons, are more likely to be imprisoned than placed on probation. In addition, in the South (currently referred to as the Sun Belt), where the population is presently increasing, there is a greater tendency to lock people up and for longer periods of time. Finally, optimistic expectations reported in the study about economic conditions and the employment rate are unlikely to apply to those most likely to go to prison such as the young, minorities, and school dropouts. Thus each of the above factors would call for a higher projection in the future inmate population than reported in the survey.

Because the inmate projections are too conservative as a consequence, it is probable that other findings based on this projection such as total correctional employment in 1985 and staffing increases in adult correctional institutions will also be overly conservative, and should continue to be monitored.

This report has flaws. The projections appear to be incorrect in that some of the projections are seriously underestimated. However, the report does point to a number of areas that should continue to be observed over time. A list of priorities for the future should include:

1. Keeping documentation and records on the effects of fixed and mandatory sentences.
2. Keeping an eye on community-based correctional programs to determine those most likely to participate in such programs, the type of crime and the length of sentence.
3. Define and establish policy and criteria that would permit states with overcrowded facilities to send inmates to less crowded facilities in other states.

Priorities

1. Staffing of probation and parole offices.
2. Treatment and educational staffs.

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Chapter III

See Attachment following Chapter IV.

*Priority developed by reviewer

Chapter IV - Recruitment and Retention of Correctional Employees

A. Introduction

The National Manpower Survey included various survey questions relevant to several particular areas. Specific reference is made to assessment of turnover ratio, inadequate representation of minorities and women, and difficulties in recruiting qualified personnel.

Findings

The NMS findings on recruitment and retention show that turnover and recruitment of correctional line staff has been a chronic problem. Recruitment needs are expected to decline between 1975-1980 and increase between 1980-1985. While employment of minorities has increased, Blacks still comprise a smaller proportion of custodial force than of the inmate population. While the number of both women and minorities has increased, they are both disproportionately concentrated in lower-level positions. However, their numbers in these positions are expected to increase as a result of their lower turnover rates and affirmative action programs. These same difficulties were reported in a study on Correctional Manpower and Training in 1969.

B. Recent Recruitment and Turnover Experiences

The survey results showed that approximately 10 percent of correctional executives identified high personnel turnover as their most serious manpower problem. Factors which appear to be most responsible for high personnel turnover are working conditions.

C. Projected Recruitment Needs

Despite a lower expected employment growth rate for 1980-1985, recruitment needs of child care workers, correctional officers, and probation and parole are expected to increase. The increases are expected as a result of assumed increases in personnel turnover under improving labor market conditions.

D. Employment and Recruitment of Minorities and Women

There appears to be a significant increase in the employment of minorities and women. However, the racial composition of the guard force to inmate population in no instance is equal. Females and minorities are concentrated in lower status positions in correctional agencies. All correctional agencies visited by the survey team reported they had adopted and were using affirmative action programs and reported recent increases in the hiring of minorities and women.

Reviewer Comments and Recommendations

The recruitment and retention projected expectations are based on personnel turnover, replacement needs, and growth needs. The study assumes an overall decrease in correctional employment recruitment needs because of an expected reduction in the rate of growth in inmate population. However, resignations among correctional employees are expected to be high in the 1980-1985 period because of an expected upturn in the state of the economy. If, as stated previously, the expectations about the economy are overly optimistic, and the rate of growth in inmate population is underestimated, it appears that there will still be a continual increasing need for correctional employees. It appears that turnovers will remain high because of working conditions.

Because the continued training of new inexperienced employees is such a poor use of resources, greater efforts should be made to retain employees. As a consequence, the following items are recommended:

1. Those conditions that create dissatisfaction and resignation should be identified and when possible eliminated.
2. Those facilities that have unusually high turnover rates should establish goals to bring about a reduction in resignations.
3. Increased efforts should be made to attract and recruit experienced personnel as was the case of the state that paid relocation expenses.
4. Also, given that women and minorities are more likely to remain on a job, more should be done to attract them.
5. Recruitment should be increased among minorities and women because they have a lower turnover rate.

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Chapters III & IV - Staffing

1. Increase staffing of probation and parole agencies.

2. Increase treatment and educational staff in adult facilities with special attention to local institutions.

- *3. Recruitment of minorities and women in all areas of corrections because of their lower turnover rate.

*Priority developed by reviewer

1. A 2 million dollar program to Oklahoma 5 DF programs for state-wide increase 37 states over the last 4 years have supported programs to improve probation/parole through the block grant program.

2. Standards Implementation Programs
TRAP Programs
Medical Care Problems
Drug and Alcohol Programs
Master Planning Programs
Classification Programs
Counseling Programs

3. The National Urban League and NILECJ are both studying the areas of retention and recruitment of minorities and women.

The National Urban League has a contract to recruit minorities and women in law enforcement. However, they have not received any request to set up a system of recruitment for correctional agencies. This could be due to the lack of publicity of this program or due to the fact that correctional agencies feel less pressure than police departments in civil rights compliance.

LEAA has contracted the University Research Corporation to provide correctional technical assistance. They have had no request for technical assistance in this area even though it was listed as a top priority.

Chapter V - Education for Correctional Occupations

Introduction

Corrections has long been viewed as the least educated element in the Criminal Justice system. Most of its staff has been custodial and has come from the less educated segments of the population. Usually such facilities are located in remote rural settings where the population has historically had lower levels of educational attainment. Such isolated locations have been cited as discouraging educational persons from seeking employment. Other factors which have been noted as discouraging to persons with adequate educational preparation are poor pay, long hours, poor promotional opportunities, depressing working conditions, and a reputation for political interference. This chapter focuses on the current educational level of correctional staff and the effects of efforts to upgrade these levels.

Findings

The NMS findings concerning education for correctional occupations shows that a pattern of educational attainment hierarchy based upon rank, function, and class of offender served exist among correctional occupations. Educational attainment is higher among younger than older personnel, and the rate of increase in educational attainment is greater for juvenile correctional personnel than for those in adult institutions. Among probation and parole employees educational levels have remained fairly stable. Educational upgrading among in-service personnel has contributed to higher educational levels. Probation and parole personnel are more likely to continue their education than line correctional officers. The LEEP program has assisted 1/3 of line personnel in probation and parole, and 1/5 of those in juvenile corrections. Treatment, education, and counseling employees show the greatest variations in levels of education. Approximately 32% of such employees in adult treatment centers have one or more years of graduate training and 16% have a high school education or less.

B. Assessment of the Educational Attainment of Correctional Personnel Standards and Levels:

In general, it has been recommended that a high school diploma serve as an acceptable minimum requirement for correctional employees with some recommending recruiting from 2-year and 4-year colleges. Others have recommended policies that encourage staff to continue their formal education. Although increased education is recommended it is unlikely that graduation from college will be a realistic standard unless the line worker's role changes from simply custodial care.

The educational attainment for correctional custody personnel shows that the average educational attainment for adult corrections officers was slightly under 12 years while the average educational attainment for supervisors was slightly over 12 years. Juvenile custody officers educational attainment was somewhat over 13 years and the educational attainment for their supervisors was 14 years of education.

Patterns in educational attainment of custodial personnel by age show that the average age of adult corrections line and supervisory personnel to be about 39 years and in general the younger officers or supervisors to be better educated. The same pattern is true for juvenile corrections workers and supervisors, however, the average age of this group is 37 years.

The educational attainment of custody personnel by geographic region shows that there is little variation in the median level of education currently maintained by adult corrections officers. However, when the various regions are examined for the proportion of officers at each level of education, the area known as the Old South appears to have the highest concentration of officers with 8 years of education or less. The East North Central region has nearly a quarter of its officers who fall below the high school standard. The juvenile corrections child care workers tend to show an east-west distinction with the western regions employing persons with generally higher educational attainment.

C. Assessment of the Educational Attainment of Probation and Parole Officers: Standards and Levels

Since 1931, probation and parole has set as its standard for educational attainment extensive grounding in case work and welfare with a degree in social work as the preferred educational preparation. The actual educational levels of attainment show that probation and parole officers have on the average slightly over 16 years of education and their supervisors have slightly less than 17 years. The pattern of educational attainment of personnel by age reflects that the average age is 35.8 years and the educational level shows greater stability over time than in either adult or juvenile corrections. The educational attainment of probation and parole personnel by period of entry indicates there has been very little change over the level of education at entry-level will continue to rise. The educational attainment of probation and parole officers by geographic regions does not appear to vary along regional lines.

D. Assessment of Correctional Treatment Personnel: Standards and Levels

Treatment personnel refers to academic teachers, vocational teachers, psychologists, counselors, and vocational counselors. The standard minimum requirement for persons in these occupations which provide direct service to inmates or supervision of those that do, is a bachelor's degree. In general, the survey shows that adult treatment personnel are somewhat better educated than those in juvenile corrections.

E. Efforts to Upgrade the Educational Attainment of Adult Corrections Officers

The introduction of LEEP and other programs appears to have had the greatest impact on those whose educational level was slightly lower or slightly above the average educational level. Those officers with more than 6 but less than 20 years of service were more likely to take advantage of increased educational opportunities.

F. Efforts to Upgrade the Educational Attainment of Juvenile Corrections Officers

The level of upgrading among juvenile corrections officers and supervisors follows the same pattern as that of adult custodial personnel.

G. Efforts to Upgrade the Educational Attainment of Probation and Parole Personnel

The level of upgrading in probation and parole is greater than in juvenile or adult corrections. However the same pattern is as noted before is again apparent. It does not appear that in-service upgrading has been a factor in current educational levels.

H. The Impact of LEEP upon the Educational Upgrading of Correctional Personnel

The survey shows that at the time, a number of personnel had participated in LEEP; however, they had not attained one full year of additional academic credit which was the measurement used. However, in adult corrections 34% of supervisors and officers raising their educational attainment at least one year had participated in LEEP.

I. Summary of Major Findings and Recommendations

The educational attainment of corrections personnel has improved significantly within the past 10 to 15 years. The least educated are adult corrections officers and those with the greatest amount of education are the probation and parole officers. Based on the findings, the recommendations are as follows:

- 1.) Attempts should be made to accelerate the educational level of adult and juvenile corrections treatment personnel with juvenile needs receiving first priority.
- 2.) Special attention should be given to the development of skills and knowledge which related to counseling and guidance function for juvenile problems.
- 3.) There should be continued in-service educational opportunities for line correctional officers. A more educated custodial officer force would facilitate desirable job restructuring and the development of broader career progression opportunities.

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Chapter V - Education

1. LEAA should continue LEEP funding in order to upgrade the education of correctional employees. Special attention should be paid to treatment and educational staff.
- *2. Custodial jobs in institutions should be upgraded to include skills that are obtained at the college level.

1. See Attachment for Volume V for programs conducted by LEEP.
- ..2. Besides the LEEP program, LEAA has funded programs that support training and education to upgrade correctional officers to a level of awareness of treatment methods and procedures.

*Priority developed by reviewer

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Chapter VI - Training For Correctional Occupations

Introduction

Training is assessed in terms of: the degree to which it provides personnel with the required skills for their present jobs; the degree to which it develops potential job skills for future as well as current duties; and the degree to which it contributes to the system's overall effectiveness and flexibility.

A. Existing Training Standards

The survey summarized the training standards existing at the time of this report. This summary included the ACA's Manual of Correctional Standards, the 1967 President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice and the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. In addition, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals was examined in the NMS effort. The Commission's publication states that all new staff members receive a minimum of 40 hours entry-level training and an additional 60 hours of in-service training during the first year and 40 hours each year after.

B. Training for Line Personnel in Adult Corrections-Major Findings

There has been significant growth in the provisions of training since the 1960's. A 1975 NMS survey indicated that 97 percent of the correctional institutions provided entry-level training and 85 percent indicated that they had some form of in-service training for experienced officers. However, almost every agency responding to an NMS executive survey indicated that no more than 10 percent of its current correctional work force had received in-service training the previous year.

There has been a clear pattern of increased utilization of centralized training facilities. Fifty-six percent of the respondents to the NMS survey stated that entry-level training was conducted at a statewide correctional academy, however, 54 percent responded that in-service training was conducted at the facility with 10 percent using local educational institutions.

Although there has been an apparent increase in the duration of training provided, approximately half of adult agencies did not meet the minimum standards for entry-level training suggested by the National Advisory Commission which requires 40 hours of entry-level and 60 hours of in-service. Nearly 60 percent of the executives reported an average duration of 40 or more hours for those actually attending in-service training.

The content of training generally reflects the traditional concept of the correctional officer's role as being primarily custodial and covering most of the primary duties required of officers. However, counseling duties are assigned to correctional officers by nearly half of all the agencies, yet the NMS occupational analysis indicated that entry-level training was least adequate in staff-inmate relations. Also, that incumbent officers generally believed themselves insufficiently prepared to advise inmates regarding their problems.

C. Training for Juvenile Child Care Workers

Information presented in this section can be found in a separate attachment to this report.

D. Training for Probation and Parole Officers

The most apparent factor explaining the level of training provided is centralization. In almost all cases, consolidated agencies are more likely to provide training than agencies in which functions are specialized and within the specialized agencies the adult parole agencies offered more training than probation agencies. Among adult parole agencies, 72 percent provided both entry and in-service training as compared to only 33 percent of adult probation agencies. The location of training was primarily the employing facility itself although a sizable proportion utilized state facilities. The trend is away from purely in-house activities and toward centralized facilities for both training and education.

The duration of entry-level training was longer for parole agencies than for consolidated agencies or for probation agencies. The average length of training for parole agencies was 78 hours with 36% meeting the NAC standard by offering a hundred hours or more. Approximately 24% of the consolidated agencies and only 12% of the probation agencies met the NAC standard of a 100 hours. (See Comment Section)

The NAC standard of 40 hours of in-service training was met by parole agencies with an average of 54 hours of training and by consolidated probation/parole agencies with 40 hours of training. It is interesting to note that probation agencies averaged only 33 hours.

E. Assessment of the Length of Entry-Level Training

The content of training appears to coincide with the primary requirements of the position but more closely reflects the priorities of executives. The items most frequently offered in entry training are among those identified by the NMS occupational analysis as requiring the highest level of expertise. These areas are investigative techniques, forms and records, case histories and development of community resources. The areas of legal

requirements and crisis intervention appear to be neglected, the latter being cited by executives as a major area of training. It seems that in all cases where entry-level and in-service training are provided, that entry-level training is more heavily oriented with administrative and procedural matters, while in-service training is oriented toward direct service topics.

Among agencies providing only in-service training, there appears to be a lack of adequate topic coverage. The highest percent of agencies offering only in-service training was found in consolidated adult and juvenile probation and parole agencies (28%). The NMS indicates that 23% of adult probation, 8% of adult parole and 16% of adult probation and parole offered only in-service training.

F. Supervisory Training In Corrections

The amount of training provided to correctional supervisors, although rated necessary by correctional executives, is very small with less than 10 percent of all adult corrections requiring such training.

G. Training for Correctional Treatment and Educational Personnel

Approximately 76% of adult agencies provided entry-level training with the average length of training being 71 hours. Only 28% of these agencies provided 100 hours or more of training which met the NAC standard. Larger agencies were more likely to provide training than smaller agencies.

Comments and Recommendations

One of the criteria used by the NMS for assessing correctional training is the duration of entry-level and in-service training. These areas are compared to the standards set by the National Advisory Commission which states that "All new staff members should have at least 40 hours of orientation training during their first week on the job and at least 60 hours additional training during their first year, and 40 hours of additional training each year after". The NMS assessed the duration of both entry-level and in-service training and compared the average length of entry-level training with 100 hours of training that the NAC standard requires. However, it is uncertain whether the 60 hours of additional training for first year employees is considered by the correctional executives as entry-level or in-service training. One usually assumes that entry-level training occurs before the employee begins his responsibilities on the job and any training occurring afterwards is considered in-service. Because this point is unclear, it is hard to assess the actual provisions of training in 1975 for any correctional employee.

If LEAA assesses the duration of training for adult correctional facilities as compared to the standards issued by the Commission on Accreditation and the Federal Standards for Corrections issued by the Attorney General, then training needs of correctional officers become in need of considerable remedial support. The above standards require that all employees receive 40 hours of general orientation training and 40 hours of additional training that relates to the employee's job during the first year. Employees in direct contact with inmates should receive 80 additional hours of training in the first year and 40 additional hours thereafter. This means that line personnel and others with direct contact with inmates should receive 160 hours of training in their first year and 80 hours of training in subsequent years.

How any of these standard setting bodies determine the length of training is still unknown and the duration of training required by the CAC and the AG should be reviewed for practicality. However, the additional 80 hours of training that these standards require would allow line personnel to obtain training not only in their related jobs but to gain supervisory and managerial skills for future responsibilities. These standards would also allow correctional executives to gain the necessary expertise in budget, management and other administrative skills.

The CAC standards for probation and parole require that the employee have at least a bachelor's degree. The standards state that all officers receive an initial orientation and a minimum of 40 hours of relevant training and education each year. Using these standards, the agencies that do provide training are not far from meeting these standards. However, 36% of adult probation agencies provide no training according to an NMS Executive Survey.

Because the standards have changed in recent years and since the NMS survey is confusing, it is hard to prioritize which correctional area is in the most need of remedial support. Therefore:

- 1.) LEAA should support state criminal justice agencies in order to assure that all new correctional employees receive adequate formal entry level training. A concerted effort should be taken to assure that local agencies provide training to correctional officers and probation officers and, if possible, that this training be provided by the state facility.
- 2.) LEAA should continue its efforts in developing correctional standards and assist states in establishing standards on a state-wide basis.
- 3.) LEAA should assist in the development of in-service training for correctional employees. This training should cover new laws, policies and techniques affecting the employee's function and appropriate supervisory and managerial training for future career development.

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Chapter VI - Training

1. LEAA should support state criminal justice training agencies in order to assure that all new correctional employees receive adequate formal entry-level training. A concerted effort should be taken to assure that local agencies provide training to correctional officers and probation officers and, if possible, that this training be provided by the state training facility.

1. 19 states have been supported in upgrading their training through block and DF programs.

LEAA is providing technical assistance to local correctional agencies on training methods and procedures.

In 1980, projects to improve facilities will include upgrading of training as a condition for renovation monies.

*Priority developed by reviewer

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| <p>*2. LEAA should support the development of in-service training for correctional employees. This training should cover new laws, policies and techniques affecting the employee's function and appropriate supervisory and managerial training for future career development.</p> <p>*3. LEAA should assist training facilities in developing appropriate training courses for entry and in-service training.</p> <p>*4. LEAA should continue its support of correctional standards and assist states in establishing standards on a state-wide basis.</p> | <p>2. This is being done through the National Sheriffs Association, the National Institute of Corrections, and the American Correctional Association.</p> <p>3. Same as above</p> <p>4. LEAA's Correctional Standards Accreditation Program - a Division under the Office of Criminal Justice Programs</p> |
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*Priority developed by reviewer

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COURTS

COURTS

INTRODUCTION

This volume specifically addresses adjudication manpower needs: judges, prosecutors, public defenders, court administrators and probation officers. The areas of recruitment, retention, training and education are discussed. Current and projected manpower resources are analyzed in light of developing trends in the criminal justice system.

Chapter I - Executive Summary

This first chapter in Volume Four provides an overview of subsequent chapters presented. It should be noted that material contained in Chapter I was taken into consideration when analyzing the chapters which followed.

Chapter II - Current Manpower Assessment

As the National Manpower Survey notes, the tension between efficiency and equity (due process) considerations is the most significant feature of the adjudicative process. In relation to these criteria, various evaluative procedures of the existing adjudicative process have disclosed the following impediments and deficiencies: case backlogs and delay, overreliance upon and the abuse of plea bargaining, inadequate case screening and a lack of case prioritization, lack of provision of effective assistance of counsel for indigent and marginally indigent criminal defendants, the existence of widespread disparity in sentencing, and a lack of time for the judiciary, defense and prosecution to permit adequate case preparation settlement and processing.

Overall, as the survey indicates, there is a lack of comprehensive statistics on caseload and case backlog in the nation's courts as well as for prosecution and defender agencies. The data, admittedly are incomplete or non-existent. Historically, courts, prosecutor and defender agencies have failed to generate, systematically maintain, analyze and use data. Those who conducted and reported the findings of the Manpower Survey therefore had little choice but to turn to other approaches to assess the adequacy of current adjudication manpower. Three approaches were employed in the survey for this purpose. First, available crime rate statistics and employment data for the period of 1970-1974 were compared to provide an initial indication of the extent to which staffing in adjudicative agencies has kept pace with crime-related workloads. Secondly, agency officials, including court administrators, chief prosecutors and defenders, were queried concerning their respective agency's manpower needs and about related operational problems, such as case delay. Finally, the survey instruments provided for submission of summary caseload data for courts

prosecution and defender agencies. These data have been related to staffing levels in the reporting agencies to provide measures of the extent of variation in workloads per key employee among these agencies, and have been compared--in the case of defender offices--with standards, or norms, previously developed for determining the manpower needs for defender services.

Findings

The survey cites case delay and insufficient judicial and judicially related personnel as two of the perceived major impediments in the adjudicative process, by those judicial and judicially related personnel queried. The maxim "justice delayed is justice denied" has broad acceptance. Delays in the delivery of justice harms the State, the victim(s), the defendant(s), witnesses, counsels, jurors--virtually every actor in the case processing scenario. The Sixth Amendment to the United States Constitution, made binding on the states through the Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment requires, among other things, that the accused be given a speedy trial. While courts and legislatures have been slow to define what constitutes the denial of the right to a speedy trial, there is now a Federal Speedy Trial Act and many states have set limits on the number of days which may permissibly elapse before that right is abridged. But speedy trial acts or judicially-promulgated rules have fallen short in their implementation.

As criminal cases are generally given precedence over civil cases, civil case backlogs are often far greater than criminal case backlogs. The longest civil backlog in the country at one point was recorded in Middlesex County, Massachusetts where the average elapsed time between entry of an action and a jury trial was 5½ years. The causes of backlog are both many and complex. The two factors most consistently cited by judicial and judicially-related personnel queried as contributing to case delay were the amount of available judge time and court policies in granting continuances. These deficiencies, while somewhat oversimplified, are but a recognition of the numerous interrelated events which bear upon delay. By way of example, the following questions come to mind. How is the judicial system organized? Is it essentially a unified one (central or unified budgeting; central rule making authority lodged in the chief judicial officer of the State; uniform personnel practices; single or dual level trial courts? Or, is it a local system, characterized by the lack of uniform rulemaking authority, a proliferation of judicial budgets (Massachusetts at one time had 417 separate budgets for its judicial system), lack of authority to assign judges, multi-level trial and appellate courts, some, especially courts of initial jurisdiction, largely part-time (e.g., New Hampshire, New Jersey). What kinds of cases require judge-time and which are processed administratively?

Are prosecutors and public defenders full-time and adequate in number? Who sets the trial calendar? And is it a master or an individual calendar? Are there enough courtrooms? Are support staffs adequate? When we view case processing, we must, of necessity, take an overview of all components which are directly related to and impact upon it. Judge-time and the flexibility in assignment of judges based upon caseloads are certainly two significant aspects of delay reduction. The growth of the court administrator in recent years, has brought the application of management to the courts. Virtually every state now has a state court administrator who serves at the pleasure of the chief justice and who is responsible for the administration of the judicial system. Many states, as well, have local or regional trial court administrators. The court administrator is recognized as a new professional and it is anticipated that this discipline and the support staffs necessary to its functioning will continue to grow both in numbers and importance. The Chief Justice of the United States has made the administration of justice his major priority.

The Crime Control Act of 1976 (Pub. L. 94-503) 42 U.S.C. 3701, et seq., at sections 301(b)(10) and 301(b)(13) recognizes the need for programs which address backlog and delay. Congress states its intent in these sections as follows:

"The Administration is authorized to make grants to states having comprehensive state plans approved by it under this part for:

"(10) The definition, development, and implementation of programs and projects designed to improve the functioning of courts, prosecutors, defenders, and supporting agencies, reduce and eliminate criminal case backlog, accelerate the processing and disposition of criminal cases, and improve the administration of criminal justice in the courts; the collection and compilation of judicial data and other information on the work of the courts and other agencies that relate to and affect the work of the courts; programs and projects for expediting criminal prosecution and reducing court congestion. . ."

Section 301(b)(13) provides for:

"The establishment of early case assessment panels under the authority of the appropriate prosecuting official for any unit of general local government within the state having a population of two hundred and fifty thousand or more to screen and analyze cases as early as possible after the time of the bringing of charges, to determine the feasibility of successful prosecution and to expedite the prosecution of cases involving repeat offenders and perpetration of violent crimes."

Within the Office of Criminal Justice Programs in the Adjudication Division, there are programs directly related to this legislative mandate. The Court Fundamental Improvement Program funds efforts aimed

at the reorganization and improvement in the way in which a jurisdiction delivers justice. Projects have included, statewide court reform, including the study and implementation of unified court systems, criminal code revisions, statewide, regional and appellate defender systems. The Court Delay Reduction Program funds efforts directed at reducing and eliminating delay and backlog in criminal cases in local jurisdictions. The Technical Assistance and Training Program provides expert advice to court systems, prosecutors and public defenders to help them to improve their management and to be more effective. The Career Criminal Program provides funding for local prosecutors to enable them to target for enhanced and expeditious prosecution, the serious, repeat offender.

Prosecution

As the manpower survey reports, 25 percent of all court administrators selected increased prosecution time as most important to reducing unnecessary delay. Similarly, 68 percent of chief prosecutors queried reported that their most serious personnel problem was an inadequate number of authorized positions. This coupled with increasing prosecutorial caseloads makes effective and timely case preparation a luxury. This situation is further aggravated by the fact that numerous jurisdictions throughout the United States still have part-time prosecution (e.g., New Hampshire). This exacerbates delay through the necessity for increased continuances due to inadequate time for case preparation. However, on a more positive note by way of example, Massachusetts recently passed legislation requiring all District Attorneys and Assistant District Attorneys to be full-time as of January 1, 1979. Excessive caseload pressures result in an over-reliance on plea bargaining, inadequate or no preparation and frustrated victims and witnesses. Increased full-time prosecutorial manpower would allow for more effective screening and charging, vertical prosecution (where one prosecutor remains with the case from point of initiation to disposition rather than the traditional horizontal or assembly-line processing), enhanced investigation and case preparation and more effective and sensitive treatment of victims and witnesses.

Defense

In June 1972, the United States Supreme Court in Argersinger vs. Hamlin, 407 U.S. 25, held that no person may be imprisoned unless the Sixth Amendment's provision for counsel was made available at trial. This opinion placed significant new burdens on the criminal justice system yet left unresolved most of the complex issues certain to arise in efforts to implement or frustrate its mandate.

The effect of this increased burden could only be speculated upon by the justices. Justice Powell, in his concurring opinion in Argersinger, expressed grave fears that the "decision could have a seriously adverse

impact upon the day-to-day functioning of the criminal justice system." (407 U.S. at 52.) Chief Justice Burger, however, in another concurring opinion, expressed confidence that the legal profession could meet the challenge posed by the Argersinger decision:

"The holding of the court today may very well add large new burdens to a professional already overtaxed, but the dynamics of the profession have a way of rising to the burdens placed upon it." (407 U.S. at 44.)

The opinion, in dicta, spoke of "deprivation of liberty" as an expansion of the concept of imprisonment as the triggering factor for the appointment of counsel. Although not the holding in the case, the notion of deprivation of liberty (e.g., some conditions of probation may be so onerous as to constitute a deprivation of liberty) should the court extend this concept in the near future this would certainly once again expand on already increased need for defense.

Most, if not all, defenders believe that to ensure the provision of effective assistance of counsel, entry into a case by a defender should be as early as possible and certainly before trial. The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Courts, Standard 13.1 states:

"Public representation should be made available to all eligible defendants in all criminal cases at their request . . . beginning at the time the individual either is arrested or is requested to participate in an investigation that has focused on him as a likely suspect."

Also, there are a number of post-conviction and appellate services which many "defender" offices provide or, for matters characterized as civil in nature, such as mental health commitment hearings.

Seventy-five percent of the chief defenders queried by the NMS indicated that an inadequate number of authorized positions was their most serious personnel problem. In terms of compliance with the mandate in Argersinger, 23% indicated that their agency was fully complying with this requirement. An additional 44% reported adequate compliance. Another 23% reported minimum compliance only, while 9% stated that their office was not even able to achieve minimum compliance with this requirement.

While standards exist based upon "per defender" caseloads with which to project defense manpower needs (each defender should carry an annual caseload of no more than 150 felonies or felony equivalents. (See NAC, Courts Standard 13.12) this standard is predicated upon the existence of a public defender agency. As the NMS notes, about one-fourth (and it may be higher now) of the total national indigent defense caseload is handled by private, court-appointed counsel. The National Advisory Commission recommends the establishment of full-time statewide public

defender agencies, while the ABA opts for a "mixed" system (both public and private--assigned counsel. The estimates in increased defense manpower needs to fully comply with Argersinger range from a low of 18 percent (responses to the NMS) to a high of a six-fold increase in defender staffing needs (National Legal Aid and Defender Association--The Other Face of Justice, 1973).

An adequate prediction of the manpower needs for defense must include the definitional limits of "indigency". There are a dearth of standards on what constitutes indigency or marginal indigency. Nor can we overlook the right to counsel for juveniles enunciated in In re Gault, 387 U.S. 1, (1967).

It is this reviewer's opinion that the priority area in future adjudication, manpower needs is defense.

Ranking of Priorities

1. Increased numbers of defenders and support staff (investigators, paralegals, social workers).
2. Increased numbers of judicial administrators and staffs and judges.
3. Increased numbers of full-time prosecutors and investigators.

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1. The first priority is the need for increased numbers of defenders and defense support staff (e.g., investigators, paralegals, social workers).
2. The second priority calls for increased numbers of judicial administrators and staff and judges.
3. The third priority for this chaoter is an increase in the number of full-time prosecutors and investigators.

1. Court Fundamental Improvement Program (includes the development and implementation of regional and state-wide defenders, assigned counsel, and appellate defender systems). See M4500.1G, Chapter 3, Para. 23.
2. Court Fundamental Improvement Program and Court delay reduction program. M4500.1g, Chapter 3, Para. 20.
3. Comprehensive Career Criminal Program. See M4500.1G, Chapter 3, Para. 22.

*Priority developed by reviewer

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Chapter III: Outlook for Employment

Introduction

This chapter is concerned with projecting estimates of probable future trends in employment of judicial process personnel and some of the factors which influence them. This is not an attempt to estimate "optional" requirements for such personnel. The authors maintain that a goals-oriented manpower projection for courts manpower is neither practicable nor realistic as a basis for program planning--a position with which this reviewer does not fully agree.

Projection Scenario

As in the case of other products and services, the future need for criminal justice services and the communities' willingness and ability to pay for them will jointly affect future employment trends in court related areas. Both crime rates and levels of government spending are influenced by a number of social, economic and institutional factors. Among them are future trends in the level of general economic opportunity, trends in the proportion of youth in the population, and trends in the concentration of populations in urban areas. Community investments in criminal justice agencies can affect these trends to the extent that they increase the probability that those apprehended will be dealt with promptly and fairly.

The most predictable factor is the proportion of youth in our population since the 15-24 year olds up to 1985 have all been born. Less predictable is the proportion of the population concentrated in metropolitan areas, although it is expected to decline since it peaked about 1970. Even less predictable is the future of the economy which is assumed to improve slowly to 1980 and a little more rapidly until 1985. These projections imply to the authors a small increase in the annual crime rate (1.8%) until 1980 and a large drop (3.9%) until 1985; and growth of criminal justice expenditures of 4.3% annually until 1980 and 3.5% to 1985. Because of the uncertainty of prediction and the inability to foresee unexpected developments, several projections would perhaps have been more valuable in putting future possibilities in context.

Employment Projections

Projections for court-related employment are expected to be higher than those for all criminal justice agencies by 62% to 43%. The annual rates of growth for the former which were 7.8% during 1971-1974 are 5.3% until 1980 and will be 3.5% from 1980-1985. The lower courts are expected to increase at an annual rate of 2.9% between 1974-1985 as compared to 5.4% for courts of general jurisdiction and 6.5% for appellate courts. Employment estimates for 1980 and 1985 are 155,000 and 183,000 for the courts, 66,000 and 79,000 for prosecution, and 17,000 and 21,000 for indigent defense.

These projections are subject to considerable margins of uncertainty due to the limitations of available data or employment in judicial process agencies and the lack of comprehensive national data on adjudicative workloads. At the same time, social trends to assure a fair administration of justice to all involved in the system have imposed greater responsibilities upon adjudicative agencies. The employment projections in this chapter have assumed that the net effect of these changes will be similar in the period to 1985 to those observed in the mid-seventies.

Analysis of Selected Trends

Decriminalization. Arrests for these crimes, with the exception of narcotics, have decreased by about 10% as a percentage of arrests for all crimes from 1970-1974. The primary beneficiaries of these reductions have been the lower courts for which a slower employment growth is projected.

Pre-Trial Diversion. Although diversion can occur at any stage of a criminal proceeding, the greatest impact in terms of workload is on the courts. These programs provide that the accused enter into supervised activities such as job training, regular employment, or rehabilitative services in the hope this will encourage constructive behavior. Although there is some indication that diversion has the net effect of reducing staffing needs in judicial process agencies, it is relatively small to date.

Plea Bargaining. Although plea negotiation is a subject of controversy, prosecutors favor it strongly (88%). Carefully designed research on the systemwide impact of changes in plea bargaining practices is needed. Even with the alleviation of personnel shortages currently reported by prosecutors, defenders and the courts, any trend toward reduced or regulated plea bargaining will be gradual and will have a limited impact on criminal justice manpower needs.

Court Unification. Major assessments of the court system have highlighted the need for unification of the multi-tiered, decentralized organizational structure of the courts. The major components of unification are unified budgeting, managerial supervision and court consolidation. Unification, for the most part, has meant a reduction in the number of tiers as the lower, limited jurisdiction courts are merged with the courts of general jurisdiction. One would expect, and it does appear to be the case, that the greater the degree of unification, the slower the growth in judicially-related employment. Caution should be used in interpreting these data

since alternative explanations are possible. There is a tendency for administrative reorganization to become vertical in states where reform is in progress which has increased employment of professional court administrators and their support staff.

Conclusions

These relatively detailed projections are based on the assumed continuation of trends in the 1971-1974 period with adjustments based on some 1975-1976 data. This must be emphasized. Aggregate employment in judicial process agencies is projected to increase by 62% between 1974 and 1985 as contrasted to a net growth of only 12% in the projected number of arrests for Part I Offenses. These staff resources could contribute materially to reducing case delay and enhancing the overall performance of courts. Among the court-related occupations relatively rapid growth in employment is projected for assistant prosecutors and defenders as well as judicial support occupations, while substantially lower growth is anticipated for judges.

Reviewer Conclusions

In addition to the caveats mentioned at several points in the Chapter III review concerning the limited data on which many of the conclusions and projections are based, there are two other points which should be mentioned. The first will probably not change crime related projections very drastically in the near future since it expends the causality framework. It is concerned with the psychosocial factors which affect crime levels. They include the individual's behavior patterns such as frustration tolerance, self-discipline, sense of values and self-worth; and the group's social values and behavior codes which exercise considerable control over its members. How these react with society's social, legal and economic "rules" also contribute to the crime rate. The economic model, or the rational approach to crime, which the NMS stresses, is important because of the preponderance of economic crimes, but the relationship between crime and economic conditions is neither direct nor simple.

The second point concerns the taxpayer revolt, or "Proposition 13 fever", and its effect on public expenditures in general and criminal justice agencies in particular. This development occurred about two years after the NMS was finished and the impact will not be clear for some time, although a reduction is virtually certain which will lower the projections discussed in this chapter.

Prediction being what is it, the projections appear reasonable given the caveats mentioned. The chapter does not make recommendations nor set priorities but estimates the manpower situation in court-related agencies.

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None

None

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Chapter IV: Recruitment and Retention

Introduction

Employment as an assistant prosecutor or assistant public defender has been one of the typical threshold jobs for attorneys following law school graduation because it provides needed practical legal experience not provided in the law school curriculum while, at the same time, providing a moderate salary. Although it would not be realistic to have compensation levels fully competitive with those in private practice over a lifetime legal career, it has been recommended that the first five years of an assistant prosecutor's or assistant public defender's service be comparable with starting private attorneys. This would improve the efficiency of the public offices by substantially lengthening their average years of service.

Recruitment and Turnover Experience

The assumption that during a period of relatively high unemployment (1974-1975) and a surplus of recent law school graduates, problems of recruitment and retention of attorneys in prosecutor and defender positions would be slight compared to those under more favorable market conditions was generally confirmed by the NMS. New hiring rates were approximately ten percentage points higher than voluntary resignation rates for both assistant prosecutors and assistant public defenders (32 to 22). Both of these rates were higher for the smaller agencies and lower for the larger ones. Although some prosecutor and defender offices found a shortage of qualified applicants during the 1971-1974 period, 64.4 and 86.4 percent, respectively, did not. Similarly, 81.8 and 93.2 percent did not find personnel turnover a serious problem.

To assess the need for initial training of newly-hired staff attorneys, the surveyed agencies were asked to estimate the proportion of recruits in 1974-1975 who had previous trial experience. On the average, only about 20 percent of recently hired prosecutors and 33 percent of new defenders had such experience. There was a tendency for the smaller agencies to hire proportionally more attorneys with trial experience. As might be expected the public agency staff attorneys are considerably younger than attorneys as a whole with 60 percent of the former under 35 years of age compared to 30 percent of the latter. Also 60 percent of the assistant prosecutors and defenders had been with their current agency less than four years. None of the figures for the public agencies include chief prosecutors or defenders.

Personnel Turnover

Five possible reasons were identified as most important in causing attorneys to leave their jobs. They were inadequate salaries, limited opportunities, excessive workloads, job frustration and desire for broader legal experience. "Inadequate salaries" was the most frequently cited

reason by both prosecutors and defenders, 65 and 36 percent, respectively. "Limited opportunities" was mentioned by less than 5 and 4 percent in the same order. "Excessive workloads" and "job frustration" (in combination) were identified by 16 percent of prosecutors and 36 percent of defenders as most important in leaving. "Broader legal experience" was cited by 11 percent of prosecutors and 19 percent of the defenders. The greater emphasis on earnings by the prosecutors may be partially accounted for by the fact their average salaries were somewhat less than the defenders, although care must be exercised here because the defenders were more likely to be located in the more populated areas. Quite likely value systems and personnel motivation play a role in the choice of agency as well. Chief prosecutors, however, receive higher compensation than chief defenders in about 75 percent of cases surveyed. Substantial gaps between public and private compensation for attorneys does exist and probably gets progressively wider with substantial experience.

Projected Recruitment Needs

Recruitment needs for attorneys in prosecution and public defense offices, like other professions, are determined by replacement and growth requirements. In 1974, 5,900 (70%) of 8,400 new hires were for replacement purposes and the remainder (2,500) were for new positions. The principal cause of attrition among assistant prosecutors and defenders is voluntary resignation. Future rates in this category can be expected to vary with fluctuations in labor market conditions and the supply of new law school graduates. From 1971 to 1975 employment opportunities have failed to keep pace with the large influx of recent graduates. Some evidence of a weakening in the labor market for attorneys compared to other categories of professional and administrative personnel is indicated by a relative slow down in annual salary increases for attorneys in 1973-1976. Law school graduations have slowed their growth rate since then and the supply of jobs has not fallen as expected so the two factors are not as far out of balance as feared in 1975.

Based on these assessments, NMS projections assume a moderate reduction in attrition rates, due to voluntary resignations, in the 1974-1980 period, and an increase in these rates in the 1980-1985 period, in line with the assumption of an improvement in the labor market in 1980-1985. These higher turnover rates and growth in total employment would result in an increase in annual recruitment requirements for staff attorneys in prosecution and defender agencies, from 8,100 in FY 1974 to 8,700 from 1974-1980 and 11,100 in 1980-1985. These projections assume no significant change in relative salaries for public attorneys compared to those in other employment. A reduction of existing differentials, as well as other measures to make the working conditions more attractive, would increase the stability and experience level of lawyers in court related agencies, thereby reducing future recruitment needs.

Reviewer Conclusions

Since the projections of manpower needs is less complex for public attorneys than the whole range of criminal justice employees and is based on

Labor Department methods in use for many years in their manpower outlook publications, the estimates in this chapter seem quite reasonable. The caveats mentioned in the Chapter III Reviewer Conclusion section apply here as well should the taxpayer revolt and federal budget balancing efforts curtail public services and slow the growth of the national economy.

No particular needs or priorities are developed in this chapter. It is concerned with the supply of lawyers available for judicial process agencies which is not directly affected by LEAA.

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None

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Chapter V: Legal Education and Training

Legal Education

As is well stated in the NMS, the prevailing educational philosophy in undergraduate law schools focuses on a mastery of legal analytical skills, combined with a broad overview of the substantive principles of law. This philosophy implies that the more practical legal skills, including pre-trial and trial procedures, as well as specialized expertise in particular fields of law, will be mainly acquired through an apprenticeship, either as a law clerk or as a junior practicing attorney. This topic will be reviewed in somewhat greater detail in a discussion of Volume V, Chapter VIII, Criminal Justice Education and Training, "Law Schools". Suffice it to say at this juncture, that the United States, in its law schools, does not train trial lawyers (thinking now of those who become prosecutors and defenders). In England, lawyers are divided into two categories, solicitors and barristers. Solicitors prepare and draft legal instruments such as wills and trusts and contracts but do not appear before the Bench to act as advocates. Barristers, on the other hand, are trained at "Inns of Court" to become trial lawyers. When they depart the various Inns of Court they are prepared to function as litigators.

A majority of ABA accredited law schools (124 of 163 accredited law schools as of 1975) offer clinical law programs and of these 65% included a criminal justice component. These programs provide the student with practical legal knowledge as well as insight into the day to day realities of the criminal justice systems.

While prosecutors and defenders queried in the NMS largely agreed that law schools provide inadequate training in procedural skills and in trial advocacy, 55% of the prosecutors and 59% of the defenders queried gave hiring preference to law students with clinical law experience. It must be pointed out, however, that according to the NMS only about 20% of all law graduates were found to have clinical law experience and a much smaller percentage still to have criminal law clinical experience.

Historically, criminal law and its practice has been regarded as the stepchild of the legal profession. While nearly all law schools require an introductory course in substantive criminal law or procedure, little is either sought or offered in this area beyond the basic course. The fact that bar examiners examine on criminal law as one of the subjects, emphasizes its inclusion in the law school curriculum.

Prosecutor Training

Entry-level Training. As the NMS notes, that while nearly one-fifth of new entrants to assistant prosecutor positions may have had prior trial experience, in most cases entrants require systematic training on prosecution office policies and procedures, on relationships with the courts and police and on such practical issues as the exercise of dis-

cretion in screening and charging of defendants. This type of entry-level training is typically provided to state and local prosecution attorneys either by the agency itself or by a state prosecutor training program. LEAA block funds have, to a large extent, supported these training efforts and continue to do so. In fiscal year 1975, 29 states had statewide training programs that provided training to new assistants and new chief prosecutors. Twenty-five of these programs received LEAA financial assistance. There is, however, a correlation between the size of the prosecutorial agency and its provision of entry-level training. About 38% of all respondents to the NMS, mainly in the smaller agencies, indicated that their agencies provided no formal entry-level training to new assistant prosecutors during their first year of employment. An additional 8.5% provided only basic orientation of one day or less. Thus, nearly one-half of all prosecution agencies surveyed provided no formal entry-level training other than brief orientations.

A National District Attorneys Association survey in 1970, covering 18 metropolitan prosecutor offices found that, at that time, only four had formal entry training and that six did not even have a program of formalized on-the-job training. The National College of District Attorneys, which receives LEAA discretionary funds, provides entry-level training for new chief prosecutors but not for new assistants.

In-Service Training. About two-thirds of all agencies and about 90% of larger agencies reporting, reported that they provided some assistance for external continuing education in prosecution. Only 30 percent had an established policy requiring experienced assistants to participate in some form of job-related continuing education. Less than 15 percent reported that they provided in-house formal in-service training. This proportion ranged from only about 12 percent, in the case of the smallest agencies, to 61 percent for agencies with 25 or more employees. It is fair to say that most in-service training is provided by external sources, chiefly two--the National District Attorneys Association and the National College of District Attorneys, both recipients of LEAA discretionary funds. In-service training is also provided by state level prosecution offices or by the state bar associations.

In terms of training course content, with limited exceptions, in-house training programs paralleled entry-level subject matter with courses such as constitutional law, evidence, criminal trial procedure, screening and charging (emphasized in entry-level rather than in in-service), substantive criminal law developments and trial advocacy.

A significant gap in training coverage, as aptly noted by the NMS, is in juvenile or family law procedure. About 85 percent of all prosecution agencies reported that they had responsibilities in this area. Yet among those conducting in-house training, less than one-half included this topic in their program.

Section 407 of the Crime Control Act of 1976 mandates training for organized crime prosecution. LEAA under this authority has undertaken to fund training programs sponsored by the National College of District

Attorneys, National Association of Attorneys General, and the Organized Crime Institute at Cornell University Law School. Other LEAA-funded efforts include a number of state organized crime councils aimed at increasing public and policymaker's awareness of the problem and often resulting in needed legislation.

The NMS points out that more is needed in the way of training in the area of organized crime, especially technical assistance and intensive training for offices wishing to establish organized crime prevention units.

Defender Training

Entry-level Training. Nearly 200 public defender agencies responded to the NMS. About 32% of these provided no formal entry-level training to new assistant defenders during their first year of employment. An additional 15 percent provided only a brief orientation of one day or less. As in the case of the prosecutor agencies surveyed, nearly one-half provided no formal entry training other than brief orientations to newly hired attorneys. Among agencies which did provide such training about 24 percent of all respondents provided between two days and one week of training.

About one-half of the defender agencies which provided either orientations or formal entry-training reported that this training was provided in-house. The extent of the in-house programs tended to vary with the size of the agency. The same was true with prosecutor's offices. Nearly 95 percent of the offices with 25 or more staff attorneys had in-house programs, as compared to only 25 percent of the offices with 14-24 attorneys, and to 14 percent for offices with fewer than 14 staff attorneys.

A separate NMS of 32 "contract" defender agencies in larger cities disclosed that approximately 80% of these offices offered in-house entry-level training.

The NMS estimates, based upon available evidence, that between one-fourth and one-third of the attorneys recruited by public defender agencies in 1974 or 1975 were inexperienced personnel who were not provided with any formal entry-level training by their agencies, other than short orientations.

In-Service Training. Generally, responses by public defenders to the NMS questions on the extent of agency support for and providing continuing legal education to their staffs, paralleled those of the prosecutors. About three-fourths of all agencies provided some assistance for external continuing relevant education for staff attorneys, through administrative leave, tuition support or other means. About one-third had a policy requiring that experienced assistant defenders participate in some type of job-related continuing education. However, only 28 percent of the agencies actually provided formal, in-house training programs for this purpose. Similar in this respect to entry-level training, the larger

offices, with 25 or more staff attorneys, were most likely to have such programs. This was also found to be the case--25 or more attorney offices--for "contract" defenders.

Entry level courses cover basic practical skills such as investigation, plea negotiation and preliminary hearing procedures. More specialized subjects such as evidence, substantive law developments and juvenile law are included in more advanced courses for experienced personnel.

With respect to both entry-level and in-service training, inadequate training budgets and heavy staff workloads were most frequently cited as the major constraints on existing programs.

A central need disclosed by the survey for chief prosecutor and defender training is basic management and administrative skills. Most chief defenders and prosecutors bring to their positions varying levels of experience and competency in criminal law, but are generally lacking the skills most often needed in policymaking and management positions.

Judicial Training. As the NMS well notes, the United States does not provide any formal, pre-service education or training to specifically prepare individuals for serving as judges.

Entry-level Training. About one-half the states provide entry-level training for new judges in courts of general jurisdiction and only about two-fifths, in courts of limited jurisdiction. Of 38 states employing lay judges, 26 provide entry-level training. Seven states require entry-level training for all judges; one state requires this training only for general court judges and two states require entry-level training for judges of courts of limited jurisdiction. Twenty-one states do not require entry-level training for any judges, but provide entry-level training with attendance voluntary.

In-service Judicial Education. Virtually all states now appear to have some provision for continuing education of their judicial personnel. In 46 states and the District of Columbia, in-service training programs are provided for general court judges, and in 44 jurisdictions for limited court judges. Thirty-one states reported such programs for state appellate court judges.

National Programs. Despite the relatively recent proliferation of state-level training activities, a number of national, LEAA funded organizations continue to serve as principal providers of systematic training for various categories of judicial personnel. They are the National Judicial College; American Academy of Judicial Education; National College for Juvenile Justice; the Institute for Judicial Administration; the Institute for Court Management; and the American Bar Association's appellate judges seminar.

Briefly, the National Judicial College, the largest among the national

judicial training programs, primarily offers two residential programs: a four-week summer program for general jurisdiction judges and a two-week program for special court judges. A variety of graduate programs are also offered to more experienced judges who have completed the basic course. The National College of Juvenile Justice sponsors four two-week residential programs for judges and other juvenile justice personnel each year and joins with other organizations in presenting regional programs, often in cooperation with state agencies. The curriculum is interdisciplinary with an emphasis on the behavioral and social sciences.

The American Academy of Judicial Education directs its programs to judges of courts of limited jurisdiction. The academy focuses on the development and programming of in-state training conferences. The Institute for Judicial Administration conducts annual seminars for appellate court judges (initial training).

The Institute for Court Management trains judges and court administrators in court management and related areas.

The American Bar Association's Appellate Judge's Seminar provides continuing education for appellate judges. McManus Associates, in conjunction with the General Research Corporation has been awarded a contract to evaluate the eight national courts training grants. These eight training grants are:

1. The American Academy of Judicial Education
2. The National Judicial College
3. The Institute for Judicial Administration
4. The Institute for Court Management
5. The National Institute for Trial Advocacy
6. The National College for Criminal Defense Lawyers and Public Defenders
7. The National District Attorneys Association
8. The American Bar Association's Appellate Judges Seminar.

While the thrust of the evaluation is to measure the impact of these national court training projects, process evaluation issues will be addressed as well. A comparison will be made between those adjudication actors who have received training from one of the above-mentioned institutions and those who have not.

Prioritization of Recommendations:

1. The most critical training need for all three categories of personnel—judges, prosecutors and defenders is to establish formal entry-level training programs for agencies and jurisdictions where no program currently exists, and to strengthen those existing programs which are clearly inadequate.

In the case of judges, this need is particularly pronounced in view of the United States Supreme Court's holding in North v.

Russell, allowing lay judges to conduct bench trials in criminal cases where a trial de novo is possible. Most lay judge courts, according to the survey have misdemeanor jurisdiction and can sentence defendants to up to one year in jail.

In the case of prosecutors and defenders, the need for systematic entry-level training is most pressing in the smaller agencies, which because of size are often least equipped to provide in-house formal training, allow time for external training, or provide supervised, on-the-job training. Size of an agency often determines workload distribution. It is fair to say that the smaller the agency, the more a luxury training becomes. Yet especially in the case of defenders, the Sixth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution as interpreted through numerous U.S. Supreme Court decisions, guarantees the right to the effective assistance of counsel. At a minimum, a defender cannot render effective assistance unless he/she is adequately trained.

2. Continuing legal education or in-service programs appear to be more generally available through a combination of national, state and local sources. Available information, however, suggests a number of deficiencies. Juvenile law issues are often neglected especially for prosecutors. There is a need for increased emphasis on inter-disciplinary subjects, such as community resources and community relations, and on management training for those with significant management responsibilities.

The Survey recommends the establishment of regional centers for management training in all criminal justice fields, as a desirable supplement to existing resources. An alternative might be to augment current resources or to provide grants to business schools for this purpose.

3. Well-coordinated programs should be developed, for the development and dissemination of "bench books", manuals, and similar self-instructional materials for judges, as well as similar materials for prosecutors and defenders.

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Chapter V.

1. The first priority for this chapter is the establishment of formal entry-level training programs for judges, prosecutors and defenders. (Please refer to the text of this review for further elaboration).
2. The second priority for this chapter is the need to upgrade in-service training, where these programs exist, for judges, prosecutors and defenders. Interdisciplinary subjects should be given greater emphasis and treatment. Regional centers should be established which would offer management training in all criminal justice fields-as a supplement to existing training resources. *Grants could also be provided to Graduate Business Schools for this purpose.

1. National Judicial College; American Academy of Judicial Education; Institute for Court Management; National Institute for Trial Advocacy; National College for Criminal Defense Lawyers and Public Defenders; National District Attorneys Association; American Bar Association's Appellate Judges Seminar (all these organizations receive LEAA Discretionary Funds).
2. (See #1, above as all of these organizations provide in-service training as well).

*Priority developed by reviewer

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Chapter V (continued)

3. The third priority calls for the development of well-coordinated training programs and the development and dissemination of self-instructional materials for judges, prosecutors and defenders.

3. As part of a larger, overall effort instructional manuals have been funded under Court Fundamental Improvement and Court Delay Reduction Programs. Block funds have also been utilized to fund the development of these manuals.

*Priority developed by reviewer

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Chapter VI: The Court Administrator

Introduction

Recent appraisals of the nation's court system have highlighted the need for modernizing court administration and have recommended the appointment of professional court administrators to assist judicial officials. Under the policy direction of judges these administrators have broad responsibilities for examination and management of the courts. For this reason court administrators were selected as one of the key judicial process occupations to be studied by the NMS. Information on current employment, duties, qualifications and training of these personnel was obtained from a nationwide survey. About 455 state and local court administrators were identified from this effort and detailed questionnaires were sent to them. They were completed by 334 administrators or 73.4 percent. Information was supplemented by a number of field interviews and data from other studies of this profession.

The Court Administrator Role

The roles and functions of court administrators vary significantly depending on the type of court they serve and the structure of the state court system. At the state level there are two general types of court administrator offices. The most common is responsible for the entire state court system. It may be organized in different ways but always includes the state's highest court and some part of the administrative needs for the state trial courts.

The second type of state office is the specialized court administrator who provides services to a state court, other than the highest one, and is responsible to the judges of that court or to a branch of the state court system office. Where different levels of courts are organized statewide but remain independent, multiple state court administrators are required for each court.

Scope of responsibility of State court administrator offices is suggested in part by the size of their professional staff which ranged from 0 to 52 with an average of 12.6. In the trial courts professional staff ranged from 0 to 374 in one large urban jurisdiction. Not counting that office the average cost was about 5 per office. Over half the trial court administrators had no professional staff so the distribution is highly skewed. The state court administrator is primarily concerned with management, budgeting, coordination, planning and research as well as general assistance to the courts. Other statewide administrative functions may include judicial education services, legislative drafting, and responsibility for the state defender system. The trial court administrators indicate a higher frequency of operational functions such as calendaring, jury management, and probation services, and lower management and planning activities, especially if they are without professional staff.

The title of court administrator is currently used to describe positions which range from broad management and legal skills to those with circumscribed administrative and clerical duties. These differences are reflected in both the selection standards and the diverse educational backgrounds of court administrators.

Profile of Court Administrators

Education background. The level of incumbents varies significantly by type of court and, for the trial courts, the number of professional staff. Among the 43 administrators of state court systems, 81 percent had law degrees and all had at least bachelor's degrees. In contrast, among trial court administrators the percentage with law degrees was 31 for those with professional staff and 17 for those without. Three-fourths of those with staff had at least a four year college degree, but merely half of those without staff were college graduates.

Experience. A large majority of all incumbent court administrators have been in their present positions for only a few years. Over 70 percent have less than five years in their current job. A substantial proportion have held prior positions in the field of court administration. Their total experience averages eight years while 30 percent have ten or more years in the field.

Prior Positions. About half of court administrators held court related positions in their most recent prior employment. The other half held legal, administrative, or other non-court related work. The variations in prior work experience were closely related to the differences in current court administration functions in the different types of courts.

Professional Education and Training

Extent of Specialized Programs. The field of court administrator has not established commonly recognized standards for qualification for these positions. Several law schools in the 1950's developed judicial administration courses. The first major program designed specifically for training court administrators was that of the Institute for Court Management established in 1970 as a six-month certificate program. This LEAA supported program graduated nearly 250 certificate holders in its first six years of operation. By 1976, 48 educational institutions offered courses in judicial administration.

Recommended Education and Training Programs. Academic preferences of court administrators were correlated with the functional needs of their own offices as well as with their own educational backgrounds. Among state court administrators, a law degree was preferred by a wide margin, followed by public administration and management subjects.

Among trial court administrators, the management field was most frequently recommended, followed by law, public and business administration. Criminal justice specialization was more popular among the trial court administrators than the state court ones, but was recommended by only a third of all court administrators.

Similar differences in training course content were indicated by category of court administrator, with state court people giving relatively higher weight to court information systems, program planning and evaluation, while the trial court personnel were relatively more interested in case flow management.

Specialized Training for Court Administrators. About one-fourth of the administrators had completed a specialized program in judicial administration before entering their current position. One-half had been at ICM while the others had attended various university or national college programs such as the National College of the State Judiciary. In contrast, a large proportion (79%) of court administrators have had training or educational programs since entering the field. LEAA grants have been the most important source of financial assistance for attendance at these programs.

Findings and Recommendations

It is evident that at least two categories of positions are included within the scope of court administrator. The first, typified by many state courts or groups of courts, exercises a broad range of managerial responsibilities under the chief judicial officer of the court or court system. The second category has more restricted responsibilities for administrative and personnel operations. The key distinction between the two positions is the degree of control over resources and personnel, and the ability to initiate and implement major changes.

The lack of sufficient delegated authority has been identified as one of the important limitations of the court administrator in many courts. About 30 percent claimed this was a problem due to a lack of clearly defined authority. Unspecified educational requirements, varied court administrators' backgrounds, and judicial preferences contribute to this problem. Better definition and preparation for the administrator's position can contribute to enhancement of the court management function.

The following priorities for training and academic assistance are suggested:

1. Pre-service court administrator programs. There is need for support of a graduate level residential program for court administrators planning to enter the field as a career. Flexibility in the program is needed because of the differing individual needs and backgrounds of the potential students.

2. In-service training. Regional programs at higher levels than ICM presently conducts are needed to enhance and update the skills of practicing administrators who have had the equivalent of thorough residential training.
3. Judicial training and orientation. There is an important requirement for judges who are responsible for selection and policy supervision of court administrators to be familiar with or know how best to utilize court administrators and appreciate their potential.

Reviewer Conclusions

This chapter on the court administrator is a thorough and convincing treatment of this key position which will grow in importance for reasons of efficiency and economy in court operations as well as its compatibility with the trend toward court unification. As indicated in the chapter and the above review, LEAA has been instrumental in funding course development, especially at ICM, and financing the attendance at related courses for court personnel across the country.

The order of the suggested priorities are reflected in the following.

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Chapter VI

1. Preservice programs for court administrators at the graduate level in the form of a professional residential course.
2. In-service training to give special advanced training to employed court administrators on a regional basis.
3. Judicial training and orientation for appreciation of court administrator role.

1. ICM support should be expanded and possibly extended to other schools to develop more professional programs.
2. ICM regional support should be re-oriented to develop such programs as needed.
3. Continuing workshops for judges supported by LEAA should be expanded for this purpose.

Priority developed by reviewer

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NATIONAL MANPOWER SURVEY ANALYSIS: VOLUME FIVE
CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING

NATIONAL MANPOWER SURVEY ANALYSIS:
VOLUME FIVE
CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Introduction

Volume Five of the National Manpower Survey "assesses the institutional programs and resources in terms of meeting agency requirements for appropriate educational and training support." Volumes Two - Law Enforcement, Three - Corrections and Four - Courts assess manpower, education, and training needs from the agency perspective.

This review and analysis will focus primarily on survey findings, needs, conclusions, recommendations and need priorities resulting from research conducted in the NMS effort. It should be noted that each reviewer's expertise in the field of education and training will be applied in the analysis process and reflected in comments made in this report. Also, the initial chapter of this Volume will not be reviewed separately. This particular chapter is an "Executive Summary" and will be integrated with subsequent chapters in the volume. A chapter by chapter approach is taken and major divisions of this report will be in conformance with topic breakdowns presented in the survey. The only exception is a "Reviewer Conclusions" section appearing at the end of each chapter reviewed. This particular section will contain information deemed appropriate by reviewers. In addition, a rank order of need priorities will be presented based on information reviewed and professional judgment.

Chapter I. Executive Summary

As indicated previously, information presented in this particular chapter will be merged with the analysis conducted in subsequent chapters. Therefore, a separate analysis will not be performed on Chapter I.

Chapter II. An Overview of Federal Assistance Programs for Criminal Justice Training and Education

Information presented in Chapter II focuses on the financial aspects associated with federal involvement in criminal justice training and education at state and local levels. Estimates are set forth concerning federal expenditures by various agencies. However, the lack of information pertaining to expenditures at state and local levels negated the compilation of outlays at both these levels. It is for this reason that only the federal sector is addressed.

A comparative analysis is made between the Office of Management and Budget estimates for training/education and expenditure data compiled

in the NMS effort. It is clearly shown that a wide disparity prevails between the total expenditure figures from these two separate sources.

A. The OMB Estimates

Estimates given in OMB computations reflect that approximately \$149 million are allocated "to the support of training and education for state and local government employees in the criminal justice system." The following percentage breakdowns and dollar amounts are set forth in conjunction with federal agencies involved in the training and education of criminal justice state and local employees.

<u>Agencies</u>	<u>*Outlays</u>	<u>% of Total Outlays</u>	
VA	73,513	44.20	
LEAA	49,638	33.20	
FBI	25,210	16.80	
DEA	715	4.00	
FWS	85	.50	
OE	5	.03	
TOTALS	149,166	100.00	(Rounded)

*Thousands

It is axiomatic that the VA, LEAA and the FBI constitute the overwhelming majority of funds allocated for training and education purposes at the state and local levels. However, it is interesting to note that the Department of Labor presently has a programmatic thrust in the law enforcement sector. Specific reference is made to the development and implementation of a police apprenticeship program. This fact, coupled with the possibility of other unidentified federal resources, raises serious questions concerning estimated expenditures associated with state and local training/education. In addition, some federal agencies that are not listed in budget estimates by OMB permit field personnel to instruct in state and local training programs. This, of course, is a cost factor that could significantly increase estimated costs at the federal level.

B. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration

According to the NMS findings, the LEAA is a "primary vehicle for the channeling of federal funds directly into the training and education of state-local criminal justice employees." Funds are provided through direct support by the LEAA and state/local allocations coming from block grant funds. A brief

description of the LEAA program activities are brought to light in this particular section of the NMS. These programs are briefly expounded on in the following.

1. Continuing Education and Training Programs

There are five programs mandated by Congress which are targeted at state and local training/education. Each of the aforementioned programs are set forth below.

The Law Enforcement Education Program is designed to "provide grants to institutions of higher education to be allocated as grants of loans to pay for tuition, fees and books of their students who are employed by the criminal justice system or who anticipate being employed by the system upon completion of their education."

The Educational Development Program is an effort which "is designed to provide support for the development and strengthening of the criminal graduate programs and research activities of colleges and universities."

The Internship Program was developed in order to fund "college students who are working in criminal justice agencies during vacations or academic leaves of absence."

The Section 402 Training Program is an effort designed "to transmit and stimulate the adoption of practices established by research to criminal justice practitioners."

The Section 407 Training Program focuses on providing "grants to strengthen the training of state and local prosecutors involved in dealing with organized crime."

2. Discretionary Grants for Training and Education

A significant portion of funds available in Parts C and E of the Act are utilized to "provide direct support for demonstration and experimental projects selected by LEAA." The majority of these grants are processed through State Planning Agencies. However, some are handled through direct funding by the LEAA.

3. Part C and Part E Block Grants

Funds allocated for use in these types of grants can virtually be supportive of a broad range of activities. This section of Chapter II specifies that the "cornerstone of LEAA's activities from the time of its founding has been the block grant--funds awarded directly to

each state on the basis of population for use by the state, in accordance with its comprehensive plan, for whatever purposes it may determine in all sectors of the criminal justice system. However, Part E funds are restricted for use only by the correctional component of the system."

4. Allocation of LEAA Funds to Training and Education

In an attempt to maintain information on funding activities, the LEAA has developed and implemented a Grants Management Information System (GMIS). However, the NMS points out that the system developed "suffers from two major disabilities." Specific reference is made in the NMS to incomplete files on record and the fact that weaknesses prevail in the coding process. Because of the difficulties involved in maintaining information related to funded activities, those responsible for conducting the NMS had to design a methodology to arrive at estimated training and education expenditures. Computations made revealed that approximately \$80 million were allocated for such purposes in FY 1975. This cost estimate is about 60 percent larger than the \$50 million figure reported to OMB.

It is certainly obvious to this reviewer that problems connected with the GMIS militate against accurate retrieval of information concerning training and education programs. Every effort should be made to improve a situation which adversely impacts on the management of grant activities. In summation, a less than acceptable situation prevails concerning grant management information and therefore steps should be undertaken which will result in a significant reduction in the magnitude of the problem. This, of course, can only be accomplished if the problem is seriously addressed and resources allocated to reduce "major disabilities" to more manageable proportions.

C. Outlays by the Veterans Administration

The substantial amount of federal expenditures by the VA was indicated previously in this analysis of the NMS. It was concluded by those conducting research that data needed concerning criminal justice students was not obtainable from VA records. The lack of data can be attributed to the fact that such information was not acquired from veterans receiving benefits. In light of data problems, a methodology had to be developed in order to arrive at some "ball-park" estimate for expenditures that could be traced to training and educating veterans in the criminal justice field. The NMS reflects that in FY 1975 approximately \$128 million was allocated for support to veterans enrolled in criminal justice training and

education programs. It is interesting to note that OMB estimates totaled only \$74 million for the same year.

It is surmised by this reviewer that the VA should devote considerable contemplation to data needs concerning expenditures for their training and education support in all fields. Such data would be valuable to various disciplines engaged in human resources development and training activities. Also, it would help alleviate data gaps which impede sound management decision making at the federal level.

D. Outlays of Other Federal Agencies

According to the NMS figures on expenditures for training and education at state and local levels, only minor amounts are involved. Information presented refers specifically to token involvement by the Fish and Wildlife Service, Department of Health, Education and Welfare and the Drug Enforcement Administration. For unknown reasons, expenditures by the FBI appeared to be relegated to secondary importance. Although some figures were presented in charts presented, The Bureau efforts were not expounded upon under the caption of "Outlays of Other Federal Agencies." In this reviewer's opinion, the substantial support provided by the Bureau deserved more emphasis in this particular chapter of the NMS report.

E. Summary of Results

The results provided by the NMS justifies an increase of \$75 million in expenditure estimates by OMB. This would constitute an increase from \$149 million to about \$224 million. As indicated previously, the major increase can be attributed to much higher expenditures by the VA. The final statement made in this section is certainly indicative of the fact that millions more may be involved in training. This is predicated on possible expenditures from general revenue sharing funds being channeled to state and local governments. Therefore, it was concluded that "the Federal Government contributed significantly in excess of \$225 million in fiscal 1975 to the costs of training and education for the state and local employees of the criminal justice system."

Reviewer Conclusions

Specific recommendations are not made in this particular chapter of the NMS. The information presented is targeted at providing a general overview of expenditures by federal agencies for state and local training and education. However, this reviewer feels that the analysis conducted reveals sufficient information upon which to make general conclusions and

recommendations. It is for this reason that some recommendations are set forth in this section based solely on the reviewer's expertise. These will be presented in rank order of importance and follow a brief discussion of the material presented in Chapter II.

Federal involvement in state and local activities by the VA, LEAA, FBI, HEW, DEA, FWS, DOL, etc. exemplifies the fragmentation of programmatic thrusts in such efforts. Also, it appears that support for the corrections and courts components is practically nonexistent. It is personally felt that a comprehensive depiction of federal expenditures and involvement is not given in the chapter. Serious questions can be raised concerning federal involvement in such activities. For example, how can training activities be coordinated from a national perspective and appropriate planning be performed? What is the involvement of ATF, USSS, INS, USMS, USCS, etc. in state and local training programs? Many agencies permit their personnel to instruct in such programs and therefore have costs involved. Prevailing conditions appear to be contrary to the objectives specified in the 1977 Reorganization Act passed by Congress and the President's efforts to reduce proliferation, fragmentation, overlap, lack of coordination, etc. at the federal level. In short, such conditions tend to flourish when activities are permitted among numerous agencies in the federal government.

High expenditures for training and education dictates the need for accurate record keeping. It is apparent to this reviewer that the lack of data has a negative impact on the management of grants, sound decision making and human resource planning at the federal level. The problems experienced with the GMIS surfaces one of the most pressing problems the LEAA is confronted with.

In conclusion, the following recommendations are made in connection with the analysis of information presented in Chapter II of Volume Five of the NMS. Please note that recommendations given are in rank order priority based on the judgment of the reviewer.

- *1. Appropriate action should be initiated at the federal level which would result in effective coordination of training and education activities between agencies.
- *2. Prevailing problems associated with the LEAA GMIS should be resolved in order to maintain an accurate data base and improve grant activities.
- *3. Efforts should be made to fully determine federal involvement in state and local training/education activities. This should be performed in light of the possible amalgamation of such activities to more manageable proportions.

*Priorities developed by the Reviewer.

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Chapter II.

- *1. Appropriate action should be initiated at the federal level which would result in effective coordination of training and education activities between agencies.
- *2. Prevailing problems associated with the LEAA GMIS should be resolved in order to maintain an accurate data base and improve grant activities.
- *3. Efforts should be made to fully determine federal involvement in state and local activities. This should be performed in light of the possible amalgamation of such activities to more manageable proportions.

- 1. Internal manpower development task group has been established within the LEAA.
- 2. An internal committee has been established within LEAA to address GMIS problems.
- 3. None identified.

*Priority developed by reviewer

Chapter III. Criminal Justice Education

This particular chapter of the NMS focuses primarily on three areas related to criminal justice education. First, the development of criminal justice education from a historical perspective. Second, the range of higher education programs available to the criminal justice system. Third, an assessment of primarily LEEP institutions and their criminal justice programs. The analysis conducted included a review of LEEP Applications and field visits to 26 institutions of higher learning.

A. Historical Background

The historical aspects of criminal justice education can be traced to the early nineteen hundreds. The impetus generated for college educated law enforcement officers was spawned by August Vollmer, Chief of Police in Berkely, California. Efforts by Vollmer and others ignited a movement that spread throughout the United States. However, the movement was slow until the nineteen sixties. It was during this period of time that tremendous growth was experienced in criminal justice education. The NMS points out that confusion prevailed "regarding the new field's appropriate academic base" from the very beginning. It is further stated that this is an issue "which is still being debated today." This reviewer certainly concurs with the fact that we have failed to identify a body of knowledge applicable to the field of criminal justice.

The NMS provides considerable depth perception concerning growth of these educational programs over the years. The most astounding fact presented was that police science programs grew from 125 to 1,245 between 1965 and 1975. This, of course, amounts to "an 890 percent increase in a single decade." Several reasons were cited in the survey as contributing factors which led to such a substantial increase in programs. Primary reasons given included the GI Bill after WW II, community college expansion after the war, President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, The Police Chief Executive Report in 1976 and federal funds provided by the Law Enforcement Assistance Act in 1965. This particular Act provided for grant awards to develop and implement police science programs. Also, the NMS points to the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968. This Act provided for grants and loans to students pursuing higher education and channeled funds into the Graduate Research Fellowship Program and Internship Program. Although these factors were instrumental in the growth of academic programs, there are still additional factors which must be considered. For example, it was during the nineteen sixties and into the seventies that landmark decisions were handed down by the United States Supreme Court, progressive leadership surfaced among some police administrators and pay incentive programs tied to educational attainment

were being developed and implemented. It becomes obvious that such factors as these would also promote higher education for police.

It is certainly understandable that such an accelerated growth rate would create significant problems for education in the field of criminal justice. The NMS clearly states that "The research that has been done suggests that the field still does not have a clearly defined body of knowledge or set of goals and perspectives, and that program quality sometimes has suffered because of the lack of definition." There is substantial evidence given by literature in the field which reflects some very pressing problems. Academicians continue to struggle with philosophical underpinnings to programmatic foundations, the qualitative aspects of programs afforded and articulation between two-year and four-year institutions of higher learning. The diversity of program titles, mixture of the "curriculum recipe" and hazy, ill-defined goals/objectives perpetuate a situation which is detrimental to the field of criminal justice. The magnitude of existing problems are far reaching when placed within the context of human resource development and the operational efficiency and responsiveness to society in general.

The NMS points out that "There is some movement toward assuring articulation and cooperation among training academies, community colleges and universities via a system of accreditation." However, it is interesting to note that efforts are still underway to develop and implement such a system. Such accreditation would also serve as the primary means to improve and strengthen the quality of academic programs. Hopefully, efforts will continue in this direction in order to resolve some of the prevailing conditions which continue to plague higher education in the field. It is personally felt that accreditation standards would clearly surface weaknesses which could be converted to programmatic thrusts by the LEAA. In short, accreditation could be utilized to identify inadequacies and the LEAA could then target efforts responsive to needs in criminal justice education. Dr. Ralph Swisher, OPM/LEAA should be credited with the aforementioned use of accreditation standards. This suggestion emerged in a recent discussion with this reviewer concerning accreditation. In summation, criminal justice education has experienced tremendous growth in the past decade. The reasons for such growth can be attributed to the multiple factors alluded to previously. The present trend appears to be "away from earlier law enforcement-centered programs and toward criminal justice programs that are more comprehensive in their approach." This systems approach encompasses all components of the field and addresses their interrelationships. Although some significant studies have been made, major problems have not been resolved in the field. As indicated previously, there are problems with objectives and goals, articulation and the qualita-

tive aspects of educational programs.

B. Current Problems In Criminal Justice Education

The NMS effort in the area of criminal justice education focused on an analysis of LEEP forms, on-site interviews, literature in the field, conferences, etc. to identify program issues. The primary focus of this section of the chapter is devoted to "program objectives, curricula, and student and faculty administration."

1. Introduction

The results of the NMS of criminal justice training/education programs revealed "what respondents believed to be some of the most important purposes of their offerings." The partial list developed, depicting goals and objectives established at various levels, surfaced an interesting conclusion. According to the NMS, there is "frequently overlapping in the courses or programs offered." It is concluded by this reviewer that programs in the field do not interface properly with education/training programs preceding or following offerings at respective institutions. This below par situation has culminated in articulation problems over the years and impacted adversely on the total education and training process. Information presented in the following addresses various programs in light of their "purposes and the issues involved in their administration."

2. Certification

Certification programs usually consist of thirty college hours or approximately one year of study. When first developed and implemented, the certification program was a popular course of study. However, in more recent years such popularity has significantly declined. The NMS attributes this to the fact that associate degrees emerged in the field. In describing the "typical law enforcement certificate" the NMS indicates there is a saturation of directly related law enforcement course work and a token number of electives in other disciplines. The NMS also surfaces the point that "The concept is that the certificate student, having gained self-confidence and been assured of succeeding in college-level study, would progress toward the final half of the associate degree." Certificates therefore, have frequently been made up of transferable course work. This apparently is uncommon among most technical/career fields according to the NMS. This reviewer concurs with the fact that the popularity of the certificate has waned substantially over the past several years. Also, the point made about associate programs displacing the certificate is understandable. Other factors such as emphasis placed on higher academic achievement, pay incentive programs for degrees obtained, and recommendations made by the 1967 President's Commission

and the National Advisory Commission on Standards and Goals have promoted higher education in the field.

Certificate programs have unquestionably played a vital role during the initial stages of educational development. But they have also had a negative impact on course work afforded primarily in the community college sector. Specific reference is made to statements that such programs "do not necessitate serious commitment of resources until the user group has proven its interest." This implies that additional commitment is forthcoming when the law enforcement community demonstrates a continued need for the program. It is personally felt that in many instances this is not the case. At the present time many community colleges operate programs with large numbers of part-time faculty. In some cases there is no full-time coordinator employed in the program. It is strongly suspected that the lack of commitment by some administrators is a carryover from past operations. It is also suspected that many programs are operated on a very profitable basis. However, these profits are channeled into other operational areas within the institution.

Those responsible for carrying out the NMS feel that "the case for the certificate is still persuasive" in the correctional field. This is predicated on the low college experience level among many correctional personnel and the need for a means to provide formal course work to administrators, particularly in rural areas. This reviewer agrees with the rationale for such programs in both corrections and law enforcement in rural sections of the country. But the commitment by college administrators, alluded to before, remains a problem from the standpoint of quality education.

In conclusion, the single most important justification for a certificate program is that it serves as "the wedge into higher education." This being the case, the importance associated with curriculum development in these programs is of vital concern. As mentioned earlier in this analysis, college administrators can offer such programs without a firm commitment of resources. It appears that certificate programs can be developed and operated on a "snoestring" basis, converted into an integral part of a two-year degree program and result in course work being transferred to four-year institutions. There are certainly serious implications connected with such practices if "firm commitments" are lacking. In order to prevent such occurrences from happening, accreditation standards should be implemented for criminal justice education programs in addition to institutional requirements imposed by the Council on Post-Secondary Accreditation. Such programs as nursing and other health related education programs are subjected to close scrutiny by appropriate authorities.

3. Associate Degree Programs

Information compiled in the NMS effort infers that programs "started with full-time coordinators were most likely to be successful" in several areas. Some of these areas included quality curriculum, articulation and job placement. This certainly substantiates this reviewer's concern with the lack of institutional commitment and full-time employment of personnel.

During the developmental stages of associate degree programs a rapport with the total criminal justice system was practically nonexistent. This is attributed to the fact that many police practitioners entered the field of education. The background of these individuals had a direct impact on the structure of course work developed. In addition, close ties prevailed between these practitioners and law enforcement organizations. In some cases, such close relationships could undermine the college's authority, control and responsibility for course work afforded. In fact, many colleges have probably relied heavily on "police community approval" in their selection process. Being sensitive to political realities is a necessary element which must be dealt with by college administrators. In any event, only qualified persons should be employed to carry out the important role of education for the field of criminal justice.

- a. Issues. Several issues were brought out in the NMS concerning associate degree programs. These issues are set forth in laconic fashion below:
- o "The absence of a well-prepared faculty was the single greatest impediment to rapid curriculum development and program quality control."
 - o "Whether to prepare young people for a vocational career in heavily technical subjects, or to equip students (including those already employed) with a broadly based academic approach to the specialized body of knowledge that could serve as a foundation for further education."
 - o "Instructors faced two groups of students--inexperienced youth and seasoned veterans--in the same class."
 - o "Standards for quality assessment in criminal justice have not been totally agreed upon."
 - o "Some considerable overlap and confusion has existed, for example, among state law enforcement training councils which determine minimum standards; community colleges; and other institutions, such

as police departments or regional training academies."

- o "Lack of careful geographical planning has meant that some large communities have active programs on several campuses and other locales still have no or a modest part-time effort."
- o "Many programs have lacked experimentation and intellectual stimulation."
- o "far more programs seem to have altered their names to include corrections than have actually altered their curricula."

Although the issues raised in the NMS have merit, this reviewer feels the magnitude of some have diminished. Turnover rates among faculty have resulted in employment of individuals with more acceptable academic credentials, the ratio of preservice versus in-service students has been diminishing and a growing concern over quality education has had some positive impact. Some of the issues raised may very well be categorized as "necessary evils" in an unprecedented movement in educational history. With the advent of accreditation standards will come significant improvements in future years. It must be remembered that the availability of qualified criminal justice faculty was not what it is today. Many that were selected over a decade ago were the best available at the time. This particular point appears to be ignored in the NMS discussion of major issues concerning two-year institutions. The day may very well come when the Ph.D. is required to teach in high schools as academic attainment levels continue to rise.

- b. Observations. Some observations were made concerning community colleges and their relationships with law enforcement in the past. The following provides an overview of the state-of-the-art.
- o "A heavy curriculum reliance upon the field of law enforcement, with little impact from, or even recognition of criminal justice as a system;"
 - o "few faculty members actually prepared formally for college teaching, but a responsive reservoir of experienced operational personnel who possess sufficient academic strengths to initiate the efforts;"
 - o "particularly strong administrative support from the community college, although not necessarily equally strong college resource allocation in the early years:"

- o "Unpredictably large turnouts of in-service police officers, especially from city departments;"
- o "A rapid growth of preservice enrollment;"
- o "teaching/instructional improvement as faculties expanded and broadened;"
- o "few curriculum changes from the initially recommended guidelines produced by national committees;"
- o "continuing academic concern over duplication between the role of the community college in two-year degree education and its role as a vocational training center for law enforcement skills."

It is interesting to note that the role of advisory committees was not addressed in this section of the NMS or the previous section. Such committees certainly play a role in criminal justice education in two-year institutions. Particular reference can be made to curriculum development, student placement, etc. in community college programs. This reviewer does not totally agree with the statement above concerning strong administrative support. The continued failure to employ qualified full-time faculty is the primary basis for my personal reservations concerning such support.

The diverse nature of criminal justice education in community colleges continues to be a pressing problem. Research conducted in Florida three or four years ago reflected that approximately one-half of the community colleges in the state awarded credit for police training, the other half did not. The controversy over awarding credits continues to thrive in the community college system. In this reviewer's opinion, it is difficult to accept the fact, that continued progression of training course work could lead to a four-year degree in approximately a year and a half. Because of the accelerated nature of police training programs, students could conceivably complete a four-year degree in far less than half the time.

4. Bachelor's Degree Program

The response to the criminal justice community requirements for education "have been more cautious because of more traditional academic policy." The NMS also points out that "expansion of bachelor's-level program titles to include criminal justice or administration of justice" has not been seriously challenged among academicians. Some however, feel that such titles infer the inclusion of course work in police, courts and corrections and should therefore cover the entire spectrum of the field.

- a. Issues. The issues cited by the NMS are delineated out in the follow-

ing quotes.

- o "whether an institution has made a commitment to specialized higher education in criminal justice, with true interdisciplinary approaches or whether it has merely grouped together a sufficient number of interrelated already available study areas, and labeled this list of electives as 'criminal justice'".
- o "NMS field observations and consultant reports indicate that criminal justice bachelor's programs have only begun to identify and label their real academic territory."
- o "many four-year criminal justice programs operate two separate (although not always equal) parts: the day program, taught by full-time faculty and largely composed of high school graduates and community college transfers, and the evening program composed of working adults, many of whom are practitioners. It is maintaining a foundation of quality throughout that presents serious administrative concern."

It appears that some "discipline protection" is at work in some four-year institutions. Each respective department that falls within the multi-disciplinary field of criminal justice desires their "fair share of the action." In my opinion, this results in the use of existing course work which is not specifically tailored for the criminal justice community. The utilization of existing courses also indicates that a firm commitment is not made to the field of criminal justice. Some four-year institutions have gone as far as developing an "inverted concept" in their degree program. These institutions accept the full number of credits awarded in criminal justice from the two-year sector and consider it the total core in a four-year program. They take the position that their institution will provide liberal arts studies in order to round out the students' four-year academic program. This particular posture taken in the university setting is not acceptable to this reviewer. Liberal arts course work is displacing junior and senior level course work in criminal justice. In addition, the acceptance of all low level course work in a four-year degree program is "academic prostitution." Hopefully, the future will bring a discontinued practice of such approaches.

- b. Observations. The information presented in the NMS focuses on the role of four-year programs in serving the needs of the field. New developments in the field will continue to emerge and curriculum modification is a continuing process. The NMS indicates that new professional roles will be surfacing such as "planner, police agent and diversion specialist" from university programs. Although some forecasting is made concerning future expectations, a thorough discussion of

a pressing problem is not adequately brought out. This reviewer makes a reference to the inability of colleges and universities to perform manpower planning functions. The education being provided appears to be targeted at today's needs instead of the future needs in the field. Course work must be programmed to the future in order to get the right people, and the right kind of people, to the right place at the right time. Criminal justice higher education has failed to develop such a capability.

5. Graduate Degree Programs

Thus far, the certificate, two-year and four-year programs have been addressed. The following will focus on graduate level programs in the field of criminal justice.

- a. Issues. The issues raised by the NMS are set forth below. It is interesting to note that some issues discussed coincide with those at the two and four-year levels.
- o "the mission of graduate programs must expand to accomodate the increased demands of new jobs or jobs that are to be redeveloped to accomodate changes in the system itself."
 - o "Demonstrable difficulty with many graduate courses is that they have emerged without benefit of strong undergraduate foundations; hence they duplicate, as the NMS found on examination of catalogs and through panel discussions with educators, similar offerings somewhere else at the bachelor's level."
 - o "Another potential for duplication exists in the relationship to other academic departments. This has unquestionably led to many jurisdictional disputes between emerging criminal justice programs and social work of sociology and, to a lesser extent, public administration, rehabilitation services, or psychology."

This reviewer certainly agrees with the findings of the NMS at the graduate level. What has previously been brought to light in the analysis is also applicable at the this level, institutions have not achieved both depth and breadth across all areas indicated. Need for such curriculum is traced to criminal justice planning and various other positions requiring expertise in these specialized areas.

o Juvenile Justice

Increased emphasis in recent years has been placed on the area of juvenile justice. This will undoubtedly bring about "advanced academic emphasis on course work dealing with juvenile and youth offenders."

o Faculty and Instructors

The survey states that "in order to cope with academic degree expansion and new staff requirements a new system must be designed for faculty preparation."

It is felt by this reviewer that emerging priority areas identified in the NMS are descriptive of curriculum needs at the graduate level. Each area is of paramount importance when viewed from the standpoint of needs in the field. It is my opinion that areas related to administration, management and faculty/instructors are based on the increasing emphasis being placed on accountability. The criminal justice system is in dire need of better qualified administrators and managers. So far as the educational sector is concerned, there is a definite need for more qualified educators to cope with "degree expansion" and "new staff requirements." We cannot expect to adequately address priorities in the field until education systems are geared to meet rapidly changing needs in timely fashion. It should be obvious at this juncture that accurate identification of needs in the future and the qualitative aspects of higher education delivery will be the determining factor in properly addressing priorities.

There is a direct relationship between faculty/instructor credentials and quality education. At the present, low faculty credentials prevail among a significant number of community college faculty. This point has been raised in the NMS and other research conducted concerning educational levels among academicians. However, only token recognition is given to the fact that a major portion of criminal justice educators at all levels of higher education probably have inadequate credentials to enter the teaching profession. In short, there appears to be practically total disregard for preparatory course work related to the teaching profession. This is probably a valid statement applicable to other academic disciplines which fail to insure proper preparation for their educators. Many entering the educational scene are sent forth to practice in the classroom without any formal preparation for such roles. Considerable contemplation should be devoted to proper credentialing in the areas of learning theory, curriculum development, instructional methodology, media usage and other areas which constitute vital knowledge to persons performing instructional work.

C. LEEP Participating Education Program Offerings

This NMS section "examines the internal program offerings and student and faculty administration of institutions." In short, a close look is taken at what LEEP funded institutions indicate they are doing internally. Primary focus is placed on "program emphasis and

faculty and student management." It should be pointed out that the data base established to perform assessments came from LEEP application forms. This reviewer feels that the validity and reliability of information presented in such forms is highly questionable.

1. Analysis of Participant Institutions

Information compiled in the NMS effort revealed that 28.5 percent of all institutions of higher learning participated in the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP). Public institutions accounted for 79.8 percent and private institutions composed 20.2 percent of the total number involved. The sizable number of private institutions' involvement is attributed to close proximity to "major city in-service personnel," the "competition for students," very few "institutional eligibility restrictions" and "kinship among popular social science" course work in these colleges and universities. Cost factors associated with public and private institutions are not addressed in Chapter III of the NMS. In connection therewith, it is estimated by this reviewer that costs in the private sector are approximately three to four times more. For every student attending a private institution a significantly higher number could attend in the public sector. In summation, there is a more frugal expenditure of funds connected with LEEP programs in public institutions.

A reduction of LEEP participating institutions could very well take place if guidelines are strengthened. Also, work conducted by the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, which is focusing on program definition, may result in a reduction of the number of institutions involved. Program guidelines presently in effect have resulted in a significant reduction in funds going to two-year institutions.

2. Types of Criminal Justice Programs Covered

The NMS indicates that "the largest number of criminal justice programs are operating at the associate level (804)." Out of these programs, 425 were identified as "law enforcement-oriented." An analysis of data provided in LEEP forms reveals the following.

o Law Enforcement

This particular title diminishes rapidly as degree levels increase. The fact that such titles are popular in two-year schools is probably due to such factors as program coordinator background, composition of advisory committees etc. at this level.

o Corrections

It appears there may be some effort to increase the focus on corrections and develop it into a major topic area. However, the survey points

out that many law enforcement programs have simply been renamed criminal justice. This fact may lead to the false impression that growth has taken place in corrections.

o Judicial

The inclusion of judicial terminology in program titles is practically nonexistent at all degree levels.

o Criminal Justice

Increased usage of this particular title is indicative of a movement toward a systems approach in curriculum afforded. Movement in this direction is strongest among four-year institutions. There is also substantial evidence which indicates that two-year colleges are also moving in this direction. However, the NMS states that "it is very difficult to imagine how almost one-fourth of all associate degrees in this field can be labeled 'system-wide'." Many of these programs apparently do not include a full range of course work applicable to all components of the system.

o Juvenile Justice

This particular title is notably absent from program titles. This is somewhat difficult to understand in light of recent increased emphasis in this area. However, increased focus may be taking place in course content under the title "criminal justice."

o Criminology

This program title seldomly appears at the two-year level. This is probably due to its "longstanding identification with sociology and its heavy research involvement in past decades" according to the survey. It can be concluded that this program title has not expanded over the years.

o Other Criminal Justice Related Programs

Numerous program titles fall within the purview of this particular category. It is the second largest program at the master's level. The most frequent title utilized at this particular level was "criminal justice."

In summation, crime-related degree programs reflect a diversity of program titles among institutions of higher learning. The fragmentation of program offerings is indicative of a rapidly growing field searching for itself among other academic disciplines. This

fact, coupled with the diverse nature of program content, exemplifies the magnitude of program variations in the field. It is extremely difficult to fathom the far reaching implications connected with such an array of programs in higher education. For example, students successfully completing a vocational oriented program in law enforcement can find themselves in four-year programs which consists of course work anchored in the social sciences. In the opinion of this reviewer, students would not be properly prepared for entry into such programs. Every effort must be made to bring program goals and objectives in line with programmatic offerings in the field. If this is not done, the field will continue to experience the undesirable aftermath which pervades crime-related post-secondary education.

3. Current Trends in Criminal Justice Programs

Law Enforcement type programs have steadily declined during the five year period studied by those conducting the NMS. The concept of a systems approach to course work has gained momentum over this same period of time. It is projected that "professional focus" will continue.

There has been a tremendous decrease in certificate programs offered in the field. In addition, there has been a slight decline at the associate degree level since 1973, a gradual increase at the bachelor's level and the doctoral programs offered has remained stable. Although it was not brought out in this section of the chapter, there appears to have been a general lack of planning by higher education authorities in the development of programs. In short, there has been a lack of master plan development by respective states throughout the country. This reviewer seriously doubts that proper needs assessment were ever conducted in most states.

In conclusion, it should be brought out that the move underway in criminal justice education appears to be away from the vocational education. This movement will certainly impact on community colleges' involvement in two-year terminal degree programs (AS programs). It will be interesting to see if a trend will impact on the administrative location of programs in the community college. At the present time most programs are located in the vocational-technical area administratively. Also, two-year institutions probably receive higher reimbursements from the state for full-time students enrolled in vocational courses. This has the potential of impacting negatively on present funding levels for degree programs at the two-year level.

4. Types of Courses Offered

The primary course offerings in community colleges are related to

law enforcement. A much more broad based curriculum is offered at the university level. The problems of transferability can be easily detected when such a situation exists between two and four-year schools. Part of the difficulties being experienced can be attributed to the age old problem of "who conforms to the other." These two vital components of the higher education process must be brought closer together if students are to receive a well balanced curriculum designed to produce highly qualified individuals. The importance attached to producing qualified students with an appropriate knowledge base should not be relegated to secondary importance. These are individuals that will eventually lead, guide and direct the field in years to come. There is a definite need to streamline course work between institutions to improve the "feeder relationship" between the two-year colleges and universities. This, of course, would better prepare students pursuing higher degree work and facilitate the transfer process.

5. Academic Course Offerings Within Degree Programs

Course work being afforded in the field of criminal justice consists of multiple disciplines. This fact is surfaced by the NMS in an examination of the various types of courses being offered in degree programs.

There appears to be significant movement in the development and implementation of forensic science curriculum. This may, or may not be, included in the law enforcement figures presented in Table III-8 which reflects the percentage distribution of academic courses with -in degree programs for the academic year 1975-76. It is the opinion of this reviewer that curriculum development in the forensic area has increased. This is predicated on discussions with experts in the field and the fact that crime laboratories have increased substantially in recent years.

The survey indicates that "perhaps the most revealing in terms of course content is the high concentration of basic and practical courses. They involve approximately one-third of the content in all major areas of program emphasis." According to the survey this may mean a "lack of program definition or an attempt to stress practical application." It is further stated that there appears to be problems in the areas of "course labeling and of course immaturity." However, there may always be some degree of basic course work because of a continued flow of new students.

This reviewer feels that such basic technical content in courses can be tied to awarding college credit for basic training. The rationale for giving such credit is the same as for the certificate. It will encourage students to pursue additional education. This reviewer has serious reservations about awarding college credit for basic re-

cruit type training. Many institutions awarding such credit do not appear to have full authority, control and responsibility over course work. Technical courses may be offered under the auspices of the college but close examination would probably reveal it is actually under the control of a law enforcement agency. Under such circumstances course work is somewhat removed from direct control of the college or university.

6. Course Enrollemnt

The analysis of LEEP forms revealed that approximately twice the number of students attending university programs were enrolled at the community college level. This according to the NMS "indicates both the heavy reliance of criminal justice personnel on the community college and the necessity for ensuring that the community college offerings maintain a high level of quality." This reviewer concurs with the fact that the two-year college is the "bottom line" for student preparation and quality must be maintained at a high level.

It can also be pointed out that the two-year institutions are deeply involved in criminal justice training programs throughout the country. Much of the course work offered is non-credit in nature and therefore excluded from information presented in LEEP forms. Therefore, the ratio of two-year students to four-year students is most likely higher.

7. Conclusions

Research conducted reflects that the majority of criminal justice programs are at the associate degree level. In recent years there has been a slight decrease in associate level programs. Certificate programs have declined significantly according to the NMS. Degree programs at the bachelor's and master's level are increasing at a steady pace. Apparently the number of programs at the doctorate level have remained stable.

Course content is primarily law enforcement at the two-year level and more systems oriented at the four-year level. The survey indicates that because of the vocational nature of curriculum at the two-year level there is a "need for more advanced, upper division curriculum development." It is personally felt that the need for "more advanced curriculum" exists at the two-year level. Two-year institutions should be offering a broad based criminal justice type curriculum which would better prepare students for transfer.

The survey underscores the fact that "The large number of criminal justice degree level programs indicates a need to concentrate on quality

evaluations of curriculum offerings, student services, and faculty preparation on schools offering associate degrees." This reviewer certainly concurs with this conclusion. However, the concern for the qualitative aspects of criminal justice education permeates the entire educational process. A solid foundation is needed at the two-year level to properly prepare students. However, course work at the university level must properly make use of such academic grounding.

D. Field Analysis of Criminal Justice Programs

Site visits were made to twenty-six schools in order to conduct interviews with program directors. Visits were made in 1975 to thirteen community colleges and thirteen universities to obtain information pertaining to "course administration, student enrollment and faculty administration." It must be recognized that the sample size is extremely small and cannot be considered representative of all two and four-year schools. The subject matter covered in the following relates to the previously mentioned informational areas.

1. Advisory Boards

There is use made of advisory boards at both the community college and university levels. Because of the greater focus of community colleges on educational needs for in-service personnel, there is far greater use of such boards. It can be concluded that closer ties between educators and practitioners prevail in the two-year sector. Approximately half of the universities surveyed indicated they had advisory boards. It is interesting to note that there is a much higher frequency of meetings in the two-year colleges and the membership on such boards are comprised of police and correctional practitioners at both institutional levels.

2. Class Scheduling

The scheduling of classes has continued to be a problem because many criminal justice personnel change shifts on a regular basis. Therefore, institutions have turned to off-campus courses and alternate day and night interchangeable course work. The NMS states that "community colleges reported more off-campus courses than universities did." Greater flexibility in the two-year sector, different student clientele, use of part-time instructors, etc. permitted community colleges to offer course work off campus. Survey results indicated that universities make substantially more use of independent study courses. Such course work is usually more appropriate at the university level.

This reviewer feels that the approaches referred to above are susceptible to less than quality education in the field if tight control is not maintained. Institutions engaged in such activities must make every effort to ensure that quality is preserved. Activities which militate against such qualitative aspects include the utilization of separate instructors in interchangeable course work, no library support for course work conducted off campus and the lack of proper control over directed individual studies.

3. Credit for Training and Experience in Criminal Justice Degree Programs

Data collected during the survey effort reflects that approximately seventy-five percent of the community colleges surveyed were involved in training activities. This compared with less than fifty percent at the university level. It is also suspected by this reviewer that training involvement is much more extensive among two-year institutions. For example, there are probably more student hours and courses in these schools.

Although the survey stipulates that "as efforts to upgrade training academies to improve them to the point that the quality of instruction approaches that offered by educational institutions, the issue of credit for training emerges." It is personally felt that the accelerated nature of training, lack of learning resources, undermining of direct educational control, etc. is "academic prostitution." These particular points were alluded to in this analysis previously by this reviewer. The increased acceptance of awarding college credit for training can at least be partially attributed to political realities which may be detrimental to maintaining high quality.

Prior to any awarding of credit, a formal review should be given. For example, the use of the American Council on Education for certifying purposes would be advisable. An independent review which focuses on course work content, instructors credentials, testing, grading, etc. should be included in evaluating criteria. In addition, it should be determined if full control over training prevails at the educational institution which conducts the course work. The use of an independent certifying body would significantly reduce or eliminate the politics involved in awarding such credit. This, of course, should ensure that only quality course work will receive credit. There should probably also be periodic certification to make sure quality is maintained. If accreditation standards are eventually established under the direction of the Council on Post-secondary Education, the concerns this reviewer has will be reduced significantly.

The practice of awarding credit for experience has certainly spawned concern among many educators in the field. The NMS infers this concept

will become more acceptable in the future. It appears to this reviewer that quality is sacrificed to a certain degree if college credit is given for experience. There exists a knowledge gap between the acceptable level of experience for credit and what the potential knowledge would be if formal course work were undertaken. A student that just manages to obtain credit for experience is not exposed to a remaining knowledge base, classroom discussion, outside assignments, etc. which are vital in the educational process. Experience type credit can be equated to an inbred experiential education instead of an educational environment designed to broaden an individual's perspective.

4. Placement Services

Efforts to place students have been most successful in the security and law enforcement sectors. It appears that some difficulty prevails in the placement of students in corrections and criminal justice planning. The NMS attributes problems in the corrections area to the fact that "students may well be aspiring more to administrative and managerial roles than to treatment, and they may be adverse to starting out 'at the bottom' in the correctional officer role, as is so often the recommended path by correctional leaders." This reviewer feels that the same is true in the law enforcement sector where administration recommends experience "at the bottom." The issue of lateral entry has long been discussed in criminal justice circles. It is personally felt that education "breeds frustration" among entry level employees if placed in positions that are not challenging.

Those responsible for placement services should be working closely with program directors and advisory committees to fulfill this most important function. It is doubtful if such a relationship prevails in many colleges and universities.

5. Internships

Internships are a means to provide field experience for criminal justice students. This should be limited to preservice students only unless a different experience is provided for in-service type students. The practice of permitting an in-service police officer to intern in a police position is very questionable. This reviewer is aware of such practices being done in the past.

Law enforcement and correctional agencies are most receptive to participation in internship programs. However, difficulties such as regulated procedures, temptation to question practices and students being outsiders continue to create problems for such programs. In addition, lack of supervision and placement in menial type positions militate against the effectiveness of such programs. Grading and

evaluation of such programs is also creating significant problems for internship activities.

According to the NMS one of the most pressing needs is to "interpret that experience objectively" once it has been completed. The usual practice is to require periodic reports and a paper to be written for submission to an internship coordinator. Little emphasis is placed on specifically what internship assignments are during the on-the-job period according to the NMS. One innovative approach is to rotate students through various components of the criminal justice system.

6. Relationships with Criminal Justice Agencies and Other Academic Institutions

Academic institutions enjoy their best relationship with the law enforcement community. Although relationships are not as strong in the courts or correctional components, relationships are considered good. As indicated previously, community colleges tend to have a better rapport with practitioners in the field.

a. Articulation

Articulation has continued to be problematic in criminal justice higher education. In order to avoid overlap, duplication and ensure course transfer coordination is imperative. According to the NMS articulation is considered a problem, but not a serious problem. This reviewer perceives deep-rooted problems concerning articulation in the field. When reviewing the nature of course work afforded in two and four-year schools, duplication and overlap exist and the issue of vocational versus the social science approach continues. The student that has completed a vocational oriented program is not being properly prepared to cope with social science oriented curriculum.

The survey clearly points out that "The two-year school engaged in career oriented, occupational education intends to prepare someone for work and, thus, must deliver saleable skills. Transfer ability was simply not a high priority." The philosophy of two-year schools is to tailor a curriculum to prepare students for a particular job in the criminal justice system. However, these programs are not based on a sound task analysis prior to developing a curriculum designed to produce students prepared for specific positions in the system. In addition, there appears to be a mixture in some programs between vocational and social science oriented criminal justice courses. In far too many cases, a saturation of course work can be taken for degree purposes with considerable disregard for what the student should be able to do when completing the program. Some terminal associate programs are conducted and exclude most basic training curriculum mandated by states in the police sector. Such basic training

is certainly the most related type curriculum developed to enhance performance on the job. When considering the philosophy underlying two-year Associate in Science degrees, it would be difficult to explain how the instructional needs were arrived at by those responsible.

The survey recommends several solutions to transfer and duplication problems. It suggests consideration be devoted to informal coordination between schools, written agreements between schools, curriculum changes in community colleges, reduction of course work in community colleges and a system for program accreditation. The preferred solution of the NMS is informal coordination. This reviewer agrees that this should be the preferred solution if all problems could be professionally addressed in this fashion. It is personally felt it cannot, therefore, accreditation standards should be developed to facilitate the process and resolve differences among academicians in the field.

- a. Accreditation. Efforts are presently underway by the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences and the American Society of Criminology to promote accreditation standards. Guidelines published by ACJS in 1976 "attempt to distinguish between quality criminal justice programs and those that are merely taking advantage of extensive student interest, federal tuition funds, and the absence of accreditation requirements in this field." It appears to this reviewer that many in the field feel that minimum standards set forth in the guidelines are not sufficient to significantly upgrade the field. There should be continued efforts to refine such standards and gain approval for adoption by the Council on Post-secondary Accreditation. The major advantage to the development and implementation of accreditation procedures is that program directors would be required to periodically appraise themselves in preparation for program evaluation:

7. Student Enrollment

Numerous factors are cited by the survey which give momentum to student enrollment in criminal justice course work. These factors include pay incentive, promotion, desire for greater job satisfaction and anticipated future job requirements. It is not surfaced in the NMS that the general educational level of the American public continues to increase. Also, some agencies require personnel to sign contracts requiring them to continue their education up to a certain level.

- a. Admission Requirements. During the early program development period entry requirements into law enforcement programs were stringent. The lack of entry requirements in agencies and development of non-sworn positions has led to few enrollment restrictions. Figures compiled by the NMS indicate that acceptance rates are exceptionally high in the field. However, it must be remembered that a very small sample

size was used in arriving at this conclusion. Generally speaking entrance requirements appear to permit the majority of applicants to enter the program. For example, the acceptance rate for graduate level was 91 percent.

It is predicted by this reviewer that acceptance standards will tighten when certain student levels are reached in conjunction with demands in the field. At the present time demands are good in the field. When this situation diminishes, entry standards will probably become more rigid.

G. Student Population Characteristics

Very few differences were detected between preservice and in-service students according to information compiled in the survey. The only exceptions were related to levels of maturity, career motivation and likelihood of graduating.

Educators indicated in their responses that there were increases in enrollment among females and minorities since academic year 1972-73. Although increases were reported, there is no indication as to how substantial these increases were. The assumption is made by the NMS that "recent increases in career opportunities and conditions have attracted larger numbers of preservice women and minorities." It is personally felt that such increases are valid to a certain degree, particularly in the area of enrollment by women. Enrollment in criminal justice course work by minorities has not been substantial. If higher educational standards are imposed by criminal justice agencies it will be difficult to locate minorities that possess degrees in the field. Every effort should be made by academic institutions to recruit minorities into their programs.

- c. Student Services. Most schools provide counseling services through a college-wide office or assignments to criminal justice faculty. This service is of utmost importance in light of requirements imposed by state minimum standards and various operational agencies. Students should be apprised of such requirements prior to pursuing course work in the field. Certain physical disabilities may prevent them from entering their chosen profession. If college-wide services are provided, counselors must be informed of the selection criteria for various positions in the field. It is believed that weaknesses prevail in such college-wide services and counseling should be restricted to criminal justice faculty and program directors.

8. Program Faculty

The following areas are addressed in the NMS which articulate information

pertaining to faculty.

- a. Faculty Credentials and Salary Levels. There exists considerable agreement among institutions surveyed that educational levels of faculty at the undergraduate level are below par. The majority of persons surveyed agreed the requirement of a masters or a law degree should be mandatory at the undergraduate level. This is also the minimum standard established by the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences. For graduate level work the majority of educators surveyed agreed that a doctorate should be required. This was also the recommended level in the Academy guidelines.

The average salary at the entry level was compatible between two and four-year institutions. A mean salary at the entry level was placed at approximately \$13,000 for both. It must be remembered that recent inflation and salary increases have probably increased this figure substantially. Also, the figure most likely represents a nine month contract salary figure.

- b. Selection Criteria and Degree Preferences. Information collected in the NMS effort reveals that a general agreement exists between two and four-year faculty concerning several factors. These factors were academic credentials; criminal justice academic background, prior research experience and desirability of occupational experience. As indicated previously there tended to be a fairly high correlation among both faculty groups. Figures surprisingly reflected low priorities placed on teaching experience and prior research experience among both types of faculty. In conclusion, it should be noted that a significant number at both levels felt that prior criminal justice experience was desirable.
- c. Full-time/Part-time Comparisons. A criteria was established to compare part-time with those in full-time status. The results indicated that "full-time faculty were generally rated superior to part-time." The criteria utilized included academic credentials, knowledge of the system, occupational experience, teaching experience, advising and counseling students, knowledge of the program and assisting with job placement. Out of these areas full-time faculty were deemed much more superior in knowledge of the program and advising students. The remaining areas were much closer in percentages given. Full-time faculty were also rated higher in academic degrees, teaching ability and job placement. Part-time faculty received higher ratings in connection with their knowledge of the criminal justice system and occupational experience. It would certainly be interesting to do a comparative analysis between respondent backgrounds and answers given to determine if significant correlations exist.

- d. Faculty Course Assignments and Student/Faculty Ratios. Figures presented in the NMS show that full-time faculty teach an average of 54 percent of criminal justice course work and university full-time teach 63 percent. Also, it is shown that the ratio of students (FTE) to full-time faculty is 90:1 among two-year colleges and 63:1 among four-year schools.

Community colleges were more in conformance with ACJS guidelines pertaining to percentages of work taught by full-time faculty than universities. However, universities have a much better student/faculty ratio than community colleges.

Again it can be pointed out that the small sample size involved in computations made place ratios and percentages given in a very questionable status.

- e. Conclusions. Trends are presented in this section based on interviews with various course directors. These interviews indicated a "gradually reduced reliance upon the retired, single agency practitioners for faculty instructional responsibilities." Present faculty in many programs were the result of hiring practices during the evolution of criminal justice programs. It is predicted that instructional personnel with operational experience will continue for some in community colleges. Eventually, recent college graduates with a few years of experience will be employed. This ultimately will have a displacement effect on the high experience levels of community college faculty.

It is felt that many educators, primarily in community colleges, prefer faculty operational experience because they relate better to reality in the instructional process. This reviewer agrees with this position provided instruction does not become stagnated and contain too many "war stories" from the days of yesteryear. In addition, instructional personnel that do not have a substantial second income may have a tendency to perform at a higher level. Retired persons may tend to retain a semi-retired status. In summation, the experienced and well educated instructor can be the most valuable provided they are motivated and approach their job with vigor.

9. Finances Usually criminal justice programs can be financed at a relatively low cost according to the survey. This can be done "Because of traditionally full teaching loads and frequent use of part-time instructors." Extensive utilization of such personnel to maintain low cost militates against the qualitative aspects of educational programs. It has already been pointed out that funds returned to the college by the state exceed operational costs of many programs. It is probably not unusual for these additional funds to

be channeled into program areas which are not self-sustaining. This point was alluded to previously in the analysis of this chapter.

Expenditures appear to be higher in four-year criminal justice programs. The NMS stipulates that criminal justice "programs are continuing to enjoy increasing internal fiscal support" although many other programs have received decreases in funding levels.

- a. Funding Recommendations. The NMS solicited input from program administrators concerning recommendations they had for funding agencies at federal and state levels. The two top recommendations among two and four-year institutions were to "weigh program quality more heavily in making grant decisions" and to "more actively evaluate the proposal before giving grants." Specific recommendations concerning the LEEP program included discouraging the funding of "programs that do not receive substantial support from the school administration" and reinstating the "funding of preservice students." Serious consideration should be devoted to such recommendations by educators in the field and by the LEAA to determine if action is warranted.
- b. Faculty Compensation. The strongest commitment of colleges and universities to the field of criminal justice is the employment of full-time academic positions. Therefore, it is vital for these institutions to acquire such positions. If programs are initiated without such positions, a firm commitment is not being made and the effort is not envisioned as a permanent program. Institutional commitment is also reflected in the establishment of a department within the organizational structure. Information generated by the NMS reveals that many academicians are concerned with the lack of state-supported positions in criminal justice programs.
- c. Conclusions. Cost factors involved with operating criminal justice programs in higher education are difficult to determine. This is due to various "hidden factors" such as special advisory committees, instructors improvement programs, course scheduling and outside funding. Because of the difficulties involved in determining costs associated with such factors, the NMS restricted its effort to criminal justice program budgets. It was clearly shown that community colleges operate their criminal justice programs at a lower cost.

Academicians in the field strongly recommend the funding of preservice students and the discouragement of funding to institutions that have not demonstrated a firm program commitment. Also, they recommend a close look at program quality prior to funding and evaluating the outcome of such grants. Each of the aforementioned recommendations were directed at the LEEP program. The LEEP program is discussed

in depth in Chapter V of the NMS analysis.

Reviewer Conclusions

Serious problems prevail in criminal justice education according to information presented in the NMS. Major problems identified by this reviewer are set forth in lucid and laconic fashion below:

1. Rapid Growth - When placing criminal justice education in historical perspective, it became clear to this reviewer that a phenomenal growth occurred. This rate of growth has probably exceeded all other occupational areas in higher education. More than any other factor, this tremendous growth has promoted many of the problems presently being experienced in the field. Some of these problems are brought to light in the areas cited below.
2. Program Fragmentation. - The NMS and other research conducted in the field indicates numerous program titles. In short, the field of study has yet to be named. It appears that the program title "Criminal Justice" has gained momentum in recent years. However, this title does not reflect actual course content in many programs because they do not take a systems approach in their curriculum. Too often the program title is changed without changing the course work offered. This, of course, amounts to merely changing the title of a Police Science program.
3. Articulation. - Although the NMS states that this particular problem has subsided somewhat, this reviewer feels that it remains a major problem in the field. Political ramifications, coupled with state-wide articulation agreements have quelled the issue to some degree. It must be remembered that what appears on the surface may not be representative of what is hidden beneath. In conclusion, articulation problems have been subdued and remain in latent status.
4. Training Versus Education. - The age old discussion surrounding this issue will probably continue for years to come. In this reviewer's judgment vocational oriented two-year programs do not interface with four-year programs that are not vocational in nature. Two-year institutions should be "feeders" into four-year institutions. Specific problems surround program objectives and goals and their alignment with the overall mission of the educational process. The linkage between two and four-year curriculums in many instances is completely inadequate.

Numerous Associate of Science degrees are probably awarded in the two-year sector that do not comply with the philosophy of such degrees. Such philosophy advocates the development of a curriculum that will produce students prepared to perform a specific job. Many pro-

grams do not cover the course work required in basic training that is mandated by state law. Basic type training in police and correctional programs is targeted at what a person needs to know in order to perform the job. For example, this could be a police or correctional position within a criminal justice agency. It is obvious that many Associate in Science programs are not designed within the framework of its purpose. In light of the above, there could be serious implications from the standpoint of vicarious or transfer liability. The future may very well strip away the immunity of state and local governments concerning the relatedness of curriculum to positions in the field. Increasing concerns over such problems in the field have initiated task analysis research. Such work is expected to continue because of the mounting emphasis being placed on accountability.

5. Role Definition of Education Levels - At the present time there is no clear delineation of what curriculum content should be at various degree levels. A definition of institutional roles in providing criminal justice course work would facilitate the alleviation of problems in certain areas. There continues to be overlap and duplication between two and four-year institutions. Also, there is evidence of the same in higher level course work offered in universities.
6. Lack of Institutional Commitment - Many academicians are concerned over the failure to make firm commitments to criminal justice programs. These concerns stem from the excessive use of part-time instructional personnel and the failure of educational administrators to allocate tenurable positions. Problems in these areas adversely impact on program stability and recognition within the institution.
7. Program Quality - The quality of criminal justice education programs appears to be one of the top priority issues on the educational scene today. This certainly coincides with the NMS findings and conclusions. The time has come to move from quantitative to qualitative aspects of education and training afforded in the field. Quality issues center on faculty credentials, faculty/student ratios, part-time versus full-time faculty and other key areas where quality can be assessed.
8. Educational Planning - There is evidence that indicates that poor planning preceded the development and implementation of educational programs in criminal justice. This has resulted in more than one institution serving the same student population, some jurisdictions not having access to programs and inadequate needs assessments being performed. Also, separate efforts by the public and private sectors have added to prevailing conditions. It should also be pointed out that educational planning for curriculum development is in

dire need of improvement. Schools continue to graduate students out of step with needs in the field. There is considerable room for improvement in manpower forecasting, determining trends, etc. in the field. In summation, educational planning should determine where programs should be located geographically and includes planning ahead to address needs in a timely fashion. Every effort should be made to get the right number of people, and the right kind of people to the right place, at the right time. This is a very pressing issue in the field of criminal justice education and training.

9. Competition For Students - Administrators of many criminal justice programs find themselves competing for students. This reviewer feels that such competition has resulted in lowering educational requirements. Some students have a tendency to "pursue the path of least resistance" in order to obtain a degree. Therefore, they will enroll in such programs and only get out of it what they put into it. Some are able to graduate knowing very little and others may become very knowledgeable. The point is that both will be awarded the degree and only one may deserve it. In addition, some institutions lower entry level requirements to enable students to gain easy access to their programs. This reviewer does not have any problems with an "open door" approach. However, those that are unable to meet qualitative standards should not be allowed to graduate.
10. Minority Enrollment - The NMS reflects that increases have taken place in minority enrollment. This reviewer seriously questions if significant increases have actually taken place. There is certainly a need for some type of affirmative action thrust in higher education programs. If selection criteria was raised in the field of criminal justice, very few minorities would meet such standards. In short, an availability index would reflect a shortage of minorities with college degrees in the field. Standards have probably remained at the high school level for most criminal justice positions because of EEOC action regarding requirements in the selection process. The posture taken by EEOC is linked to the relationship of education to job performance. Research is needed to make such determinations and more minorities should be encouraged to enroll in criminal justice programs. Also, adequate placement services must be in place to facilitate employment in the system.

This list of major problems is certainly not comprehensive in nature. But it does provide considerable depth perception into the problems that continue to plague the field. These problems can be traced to such factors as institutional commitment, programmatic quality, duplication of course work, articulation, ill-defined goals and objectives, awarding credit

for training, student competition, minority enrollment, educational planning and other areas.

Certificate programs are rapidly declining in the field while associate programs remain fairly constant. Baccalaureate and masters degree programs are still increasing in the field and doctorate level programs have remained stable. Hopefully, the above trends were not predicated solely on the LEEP forms referred to earlier in this analysis. A significant number of institutions making application for LEEP funds are rejected. In addition, some institutions have never applied for such funding to support students in their programs.

In conclusion, this reviewer has reservations concerning the use of LEEP forms as a data base upon which conclusions were reached. Serious problems with reliability and validity of such data exist. This is particularly true in certain informational areas. For example, figures presented concerning the number of students in programs are probably inflated. Also, the sample size utilized to arrive at some conclusions is surprisingly small. Only 26 institutions were visited on-site to make such determinations. Both of these concerns place many findings, conclusions and recommendations in questionable status. However, most of what is presented supports the reviewer's perception concerning problems in criminal justice education.

The following is a rank order of priorities brought out in the NMS, along with those formulated by this reviewer after the analysis of Chapter III.

1. It is recommended that curriculum development begin to delineate more clearly the course offerings at the associate, baccalaureate, and master's degree levels. This reviewer feels that this recommendation should be broadened to include the training sector. The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences and the American Council on Education may be beneficial in such an effort.
- *2. A pilot project should be presented to improve and strengthen the linkage between training programs, associate degree programs and university level programs. Such an effort should address job analysis, program goals and objectives and curriculum development at each level.
Note: This particular priority is closely related to the NMS recommendation number 1 in the rank order.
- *3. Funds should be provided to promote educational planning in the field of criminal justice. The primary focus should be directed at determining future needs for curriculum development purposes in all components of the criminal justice system.
4. It is recommended that LEAA establish a system for closer and more systematic evaluation of institutional commitment to criminal justice programs, emulating monitorship methods pursued by other

professional programs, such as the health sciences and social work, in restricting the range of courses and curricula to be included in pursuit of the professional degree.

- *5. Funds should be provided to address qualitative aspects of criminal justice education in two-year institutions. Programmatic thrusts should be targeted at need areas identified in the NMS. For example, low educational levels among community college faculty.
- 6. Curriculum development should recognize the need for more in-depth analytical, advanced and concentrated courses rather than general, basic and survey-oriented courses especially at the baccalaureate level.
- *7. Curriculum development efforts should be initiated in two-year institutions which will interface with four-year baccalaureate programs. Course work should be general, basic and survey-oriented.
- 8. It is recommended that LEAA fund several pilot curriculum development efforts, addressing each of the criminal justice sectors (police, courts and corrections). This curriculum effort would be to appraise new developments in criminal justice and concentrate on several pilot courses that might clearly assist in fulfilling projected agencies needs for occupations requiring new skills and knowledge.
- 9. It is recommended that the Federal Government assume the initiative for facilitating the development of national guidelines for the accreditation of training and related experience. The American Council on Education's Project of Non-collegiate Instruction is already involved with criminal justice training programs in such a capacity, and further relationships seem justified.
- *10. Special LEEP emphasis funds or other funds should be provided to increase educational levels of faculty teaching in academic institutions. Primary emphasis should focus on two-year institutions.
- *11. Funds should be provided to promote the education of minority students in the field of criminal justice. This effort should focus on minority institutions of higher learning and other schools. Affirmative action approaches should be pursued in order to improve the availability index of minorities with degrees.
- 12. It is recommended that national guidelines be established through the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences and/or an Advisory Board set up by LEAA for the operation of internship programs in all three sectors of the criminal justice system, taking into account both the college and agency perspectives.

- 13. After establishing guidelines, it is further recommended that LEAA fund a program of university internships for the career recruitment of "promising" individuals into the criminal justice system.
- 14. It is recommended that federal support be provided on a pilot basis within the three criminal justice sectors for full-time faculty supervisors to provide guidance of interns, facilitate effective learning of critical tasks, conduct internship "debriefing" seminars, and serve as career placement advisors.
- *15. An internship program should be established for criminal justice faculty with low experience levels. Such programs should be designed to rotate faculty through various components of the system. Also, to familiarize such faculty with problems, issues and realities in the operational field. Primary focus should be placed at the university level where operational experience is considered low.

* Priority Developed by the Reviewer.

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Chapter III.

1. It is recommended that curriculum development begin to delineate more clearly the course offerings at the associate, baccalaureate and master's degree levels. This reviewer feels that this recommendation should be broadened to include the training sector. The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences and the American Council on Education may be beneficial in such an effort.
- *2. A pilot project should be funded to improve and strengthen the linkage between training programs, associate degree programs and university level programs. Such an effort should address job analysis, programs goals and objectives and curriculum development at each educational plateau through the doctorate level. Note: This particular recommendation is closely related to priority 1 above.

*Priority developed by reviewer

1. A generic planning model for human resource development is presently being addressed by OCJET. This effort is being conducted jointly by three universities to assess the feasibility of developing an educational needs assessment model. Universities involved include the University of South Florida, Michigan State University and Sam Houston University.
2. Same as number 1 above - a generic planning model for human resource development is presently underway by OCJET.

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- 4. It is recommended that LEAA establish a system for closer and more systematic evaluation of institutional commitment to criminal justice programs, emulating monitorship methods pursued by other professional programs, such as the health sciences and social work, in restructuring the range of courses and curricula to be included in pursuit of the professional degree.
- *5. Funds should be provided to address qualitative aspects of criminal justice education in two-year institutions. Programmatic thrusts should be targeted at need areas identified in the NMS. For example, low educational levels among community college faculty.

- 3. O CJET grants to the University of South Florida, Michigan State University and Sam Houston University are targeted at developing a generic planning model for human resource development.
- 4. The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, in conjunction with the American Society of Criminology, received an award to continue its efforts to develop minimum academic standards for criminal justice and criminology programs and to develop procedures for implementation of standards.
- 5. The Police Foundation is sponsoring a National Symposium on Higher Education for Police Officers. This symposium will address current research, including a report prepared by the Police Foundation, and the educational volume of the NMS. The primary emphasis of this effort will focus on quality education in the criminal justice field.

*Priority developed by reviewer

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6. Curriculum development should recognize the need for more in-depth, analytical, advanced, and concentrated courses rather than general, basic and survey-oriented courses especially at the baccalaureate level.
- *7. Curriculum development efforts should be initiated in two-year institutions which will interface with four-year baccalaureate programs. Course work should be general, basic and survey-oriented.
8. It is recommended that LEAA fund several pilot curriculum development efforts, addressing each of the criminal justice sectors (police, courts and corrections). This curriculum effort would be to appraise new developments in criminal justice and concentrate on several pilot courses that might clearly assist in fulfilling projected agencies needs for occupations requiring new skills and knowledge.

6. An educational needs assessment model effort is presently being conducted at the University of South Florida and Sam Houston University and Michigan State University. This, of course, will have a direct impact on the curriculum development process.
7. Programmatic thrusts should follow the development of the generic planning model effort alluded to in 6 above.
8. East Central Oklahoma State University is developing and implementing a Human Resources baccalaureate program as an innovative approach to educational preparation for correctional personnel.

*Priority developed by reviewer

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| <p>9. It is recommended that the Federal Government assume the initiative for facilitating the development of national guidelines for the accreditation of training and related experience. The American Council on Education's Project of Non-collegiate Instruction is already involved with criminal justice training programs in such a capacity and further relationship seems justified.</p> <p>*10. Special LEEP Emphasis funds or other funds should be provided to increase educational levels of faculty teaching in academic institutions. Primary emphasis should focus on two-year institutions.</p> <p>*11. Funds should be provided to promote the education of minority students in the field of criminal justice. This effort should focus on minority institutions of higher learning and other schools. Affirmative action approaches should be pursued in order to improve the availability index of minorities with degrees in the field.</p> | <p>9. The National Association of State Directors of Law Enforcement Training is compiling a monograph entitled "Law Enforcement Standards and Training" which will present the state-of-the-art in police officer standards and training in the United States. Also, Michigan State University is developing monographs in the areas of training needs assessment and program development for dissemination to criminal justice trainers in the field.</p> <p>10. None identified.</p> <p>11. An educational minority emphasis project is addressing the need to improve the educational preparation of minority personnel in the criminal justice system. The State University of New York at Albany is conducting training and fellowship programs in criminal justice education, which focus on increasing the availability of persons qualified to teach or work in such areas as planning, evaluation and research in the field of</p> |
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12. It is recommended that national guidelines be established through the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences and/or an Advisory Board set up by LEAA for the operation of internship programs in all three sectors of the criminal justice system, taking into account both the college and agency perspectives.
13. After establishing guidelines, it is further recommended that LEAA fund a program of university internships for the career recruitment of "promising" individuals into the criminal justice system.
14. It is recommended that federal support be provided on a pilot basis within the three criminal justice sectors for full-time faculty supervisors to provide guidance of interns, facili-

11. (continued)
criminal justice. Also, the Positive Future effort in previous years was designed to develop curriculum in criminal justice at minority institutions and the minority Law Enforcement Education Program has minority emphasis.
12. There is periodic updating of national internship guidelines by OCJET. These guidelines are applicable to all components of the criminal justice system.
13. Selection criteria in national guidelines currently addresses recruitment of "promising" students. For example, the establishment of criteria for student selection, career objectives, demonstration of commitment to criminal justice employment, etc. is required.
14. Internship national guidelines presently place emphasis on full-time supervisors, guidance of interns, effective learning and student placement.

*Priority developed by reviewer

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tate effective learning of critical tasks, conduct internship "debriefing" seminars, and serve as career placement advisors.

- *15. An internship program should be established for criminal justice with low experience levels. Such programs should be designed to rotate faculty through various components of the system. Also, to familiarize such faculty with problems, issues and realities in the operational field. Primary focus should be placed at the university level where operational experience is considered low.

15. None identified.

*Priority developed by reviewer

Chapter IV - Law Enforcement Education Program

Chapter IV summarizes the basic findings and recommendations of the National Manpower Survey's review of the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP). The first section of the chapter provides an overview of LEEP, including a discussion of its objectives, its legislative and administrative history, and its status at the time that the NMS was conducted. The second section outlines the dimensions of the trend toward increased educational attainment by the employees of the criminal justice system during the 15 years immediately prior to the survey and presents estimates of the contribution of LEEP since 1970 to the surge in their educational attainment. The third section of the chapter discusses criticisms of criminal justice program quality and addresses the issue of continued investment of federal dollars to support programs of questionable quality. This section outlines the criteria utilized to evaluate program quality and depicts the application of these criteria to the criminal justice programs which are supported by LEEP. The fourth section of the chapter considers LEAA policies governing the national distribution of LEEP funds and discusses the resultant allocation of funds to criminal justice personnel in the police, courts, and corrections sectors of the criminal justice system. The final section of the chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the NMS study of LEEP.

A. Overview of the Law Enforcement Education Program

In a discussion of the objectives of LEEP in section A of the chapter, the NMS report notes that the legislation itself is the most authoritative source of information on the objectives of the program, but it specifies only that LEAA is authorized to provide academic educational assistance to improve and strengthen law enforcement. By examining legislative committee reports, the NMS study concluded that the objective of LEEP is to increase the educational attainment of personnel of the law enforcement and corrections sectors at the college level. This reviewer basically concurs with this objective. However, it is felt that any statement of the objective of LEEP should be expanded to encompass the entire public criminal justice system at the state and local level and to include allowance for personnel preparing to enter the public criminal justice employment. Therefore, this reviewer feels that the program purpose set forth in the LEEP Guideline Manual M5200.1C best states the program objective. It states that, "LEEP provides financial assistance for higher education which will contribute to the development of human resources needed by the criminal justice system to reduce crime and delinquency."

In a discussion of the legislative and administrative history of LEEP, the report states that the program dates back to legislation introduced in the House that was designed to improve the quality of law enforcement personnel. It suggests that an indirect approach of subsidization of the costs of higher education was chosen in lieu of a system involving federal subsidization of pay incentives for the attainment of increased numbers of credit hours. The report further suggests that early proponents of LEEP believed that the education provided must be clearly relevant to law enforcement functions, but notes that there has been little guidance on what constitutes related coursework.

The report next addresses the historical background concerning the need for education as opposed to vocational training. This section further expresses its conclusions that early proponents of LEEP felt that equal weight should be given to in-service and to preservice students but notes that LEAA initially established an 80/20 ratio for funding priority system which had the effect of virtually cutting off funding for new preservice students. The funding priority system cited in the report subsequently has been changed to eliminate federal eligibility and to further delineate classes of returning recipients. These changes became necessary as the demand for LEEP assistance increasingly outstripped annual LEEP appropriations. These funding priorities have been perpetuated not only because of LEAA's continued posture to give preference for available funds to returning recipients over new applicants and to in-service students over preservice students, but because of a since substantiated concern of being able to place unlimited numbers of preservice graduates within the public criminal justice sector. At the inception of the program, it was felt that immediate impact could also be realized by giving preference for available LEEP funds to personnel already employed by public criminal justice agencies. During the 1976-77 year, measures were taken to provide limited assistance to preservice applicants. Although still limited, the amount of funds made available to preservice students was increased during the 1977-78 and 1978-79 years.

The report next states that as of the time of the NMS, there were no requirements governing what degree programs in-service students could enroll in to be eligible for LEEP assistance. The LEEP guidelines in effect during the 1974-75 year required participating institutions to exercise conscientious judgement in ascertaining that the LEEP recipient's academic program relates to the employee's duties and/or those job functions that reasonably can be anticipated by the student.

The discussion in the report concerning the current status of the program states that LEEP is administered primarily by the former LEAA regional offices, under the general supervision of OCJET. It should be noted that the ten former regional offices have been closed out and that OCJET assumed full programmatic responsibility for the administration of LEEP on October 1, 1977. For the 1978-79 year, the regional allocation formula system which is referenced in the report was abandoned in favor of distributing available funds on a substantiated needs basis. Under the new distribution system, it should be noted that funding restrictions placed on institutional awards because of the availability of funds nationwide were applied more uniformly throughout the country than had been possible under the former regional allocation system.

B. Impact of LEEP on Educational Attainment

Section B of this chapter attempts to measure the impact of LEEP on the increased educational attainment achieved by criminal justice personnel since the inception of LEEP in 1969. The hypothesis that was tested in this study was whether the rate of growth at the college level has been more rapid during the years LEEP has been in effect than it would have been had there been no program. The report notes that the 1960's and 1970's constitute a period of increased educational awareness in the criminal justice sector, when even the proportion of employees with less than a high school education decreased significantly. The report also points out that the determination of the impact of LEEP on accelerating educational attainment is confused by other factors such as the influence of other programs like the veteran's readjustment benefits for education and by higher entry standards established by criminal justice agencies during the period. However, after comparing the actual rate of growth during the period of 1970-74 with the rate of growth projected from the actual rate of growth which occurred from 1965 through 1969, the NMS study group concluded that LEEP, in combination with veteran's benefits, had contributed significantly to the educational upgrading of eligible criminal justice employees during the period of 1970-74. The NMS group further concluded that it is not possible to isolate the separate impact of LEEP in any precise way. This reviewer would agree with these conclusions. The report cites findings from the study which indicate that fewer personnel had attained 2-3 years of college credits than had been projected for the survey period from actual attainment during the 1965-69 period. The same findings were found to be true for personnel classified as having attained 4 years or more of college credits.

The study group concluded that LEEP funding priorities giving preference for available funds to returning recipients over new applicants may have resulted in there being fewer individuals classified as having attained under two years of college credits during the 1970-74 period than had been projected for this period. This reviewer feels there may be some credence to this conclusion but would give more credence to a conclusion (not cited in the report) that LEEP funding accelerated educational attainment so that many of those projected to achieve less than two years of college credits actually attained 2-3 years of college credits. Likewise, it can be concluded that many of those students projected to earn 2-3 years of college credits actually achieved four years or more of college work.

C. The Quality of Criminal Justice Education Programs

Section C of the chapter addresses program quality of criminal justice degree programs in which LEEP recipients enroll. The study group felt that the appraisal of program quality depicted in the report is in fact a reasonably accurate characterization of the quality of the education provided to LEEP recipients because the data on which the appraisal is based was obtained from the applications for funding that were submitted annually by LEEP participant institutions. On the whole, this reviewer feels this appraisal is valid although instances of programmatic omissions and mis-statements have been known to occur. The report notes that reliance had to be placed on indicators of quality rather than being able to measure program quality directly. In evaluating program quality, the study group considered standards incorporated in the LEEP guideline manual and standards developed by the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences in regard to quantitative standards rather than qualitative standards. The four following standards were utilized in the subject appraisal: (1) general course content of the criminal justice program, (2) academic qualifications of faculty members associated with the programs, (3) ratio of full-time status versus part-time status of faculty members, and (4) the student-faculty ratio. The survey concludes that (1) programs are predominantly comprised of educational courses but that a significant number of courses offered by two-year public colleges must be classified as training, (2) in the aggregate only three out of four criminal justice program faculty members possess graduate degrees or higher whereas nine out ten faculty members of all institutions have at least master's degrees, (3) in all institutions more than 75 percent of the faculty members are full-time, and (4) in the aggregate barely 40 percent of all criminal justice programs meet the LEEP guideline standard of 60:1 ratio of full-time equivalent students to full-time equivalent faculty members. The study group naturally concluded that a significant proportion of the \$234 million appropriated for LEEP during the first seven years of its existence purchased education of questionable quality. It should be noted that the study group utilized one standard in their assessment that is not specified in the LEEP guidelines -- that at least 70 percent

of the courses must be taught by full-time faculty. It should also be noted that one of the standards (student-faculty ratio) utilized by the study group is of questionable value because of the inaccuracy of the data provided on the institutional applications. This reviewer feels that the great number of part-time in-service students receiving LEEP assistance skews any meaningful evaluation of this measure given the data that was available for the 1970-74 period. The report further cites that more than a quarter of LEEP-supported criminal justice programs do not have a single full-time faculty member. This is no longer true. The 1975 change to the LEEP guidelines incorporated a requirement that there be a minimum of one full-time faculty member. The enforcement of this standard has resulted in nearly all institutions deficient in this regard either hiring full-time faculty or dropping out of participation in LEEP. The incorporation of programmatic changes into the LEEP guidelines became effective for the 1975-76 year. LEAA enforcement of these standards began to have a measurable impact on the quality of criminal justice programs continuing to receive LEEP support during the 1976-77 and 1977-78 years.

D. The Allocation of Program Funding

Section D of this chapter discusses the actual allocation of LEEP funds among regions, states, institutions, and criminal justice personnel. In discussing the former regional allocation distribution formula, the study group concluded that although the ten former LEAA regional offices varied in the methods of distributing funds to participating institutions within their regions, LEEP funds distribution correlated closely with the percentages of general population and criminal justice population within each state. On examining the allocation of funds among institutions and students, the study group found that institutional funding was clearly reflective of relative tuition and fee levels among the different types of institutions. While examining the allocation of funds among criminal justice personnel, the study group concluded that 81 percent of LEEP recipients were employed in the law enforcement sector, 13 percent were employed in correctional institutions, and 6 percent were employed in probation and parole, or other agencies. The report notes that fund distribution is, of course, affected by the relative number of employees in each sector. The report also notes that about 20 percent of all state and local employees of criminal justice agencies in 1974 had received some LEEP assistance since initiation of the program. The study group also concluded that the proportions of LEEP recipients varied widely by agency category (26 percent of probation and parole agency employees, 24 percent of police employees, 14 percent of correctional institution employees, and only 3.5 percent of employees of other criminal justice agencies, such as prosecutor and public defender offices.) The report noted a general pattern of lower LEEP participation by eligible women employees.

E. Conclusions and Recommendations and Reviewer Comments

The final section of chapter IV presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study group. While appraising the effectiveness of LEEP, the study group examined two issues: (1) has LEEP resulted in a net increase in college attainment over what would otherwise have occurred, and (2) what is the quality of the education that has been purchased by the federal investment of nearly a quarter of a billion dollars. The study group concluded that LEEP has helped to some extent to accelerate the trend toward a college-educated criminal justice system. However, it was also concluded that the extent of acceleration could not be measured because of several other factors that jointly contributed to the increase measured by the survey. This reviewer concurs with this finding. It should be noted also that LEEP funding will become increasingly more important to in-service recipients as their veterans' educational benefits run out.

The study group reached what it termed an inescapable conclusion that the overall quality of many LEEP-funded criminal justice programs in academic year 1975-76 was disappointingly low. It was noted that this finding should not be interpreted as a blanket indictment as there are some easily identified high-quality programs being supported by LEEP. The study group concluded that there were serious and widespread weaknesses primarily among the criminal justice programs of two-year colleges. This reviewer would concur with these conclusions for the period covered. However, as will be pointed out in the discussion of the recommendations made by the study group, standards have been established and enforced since the 1975-76 year which have improved the educational offerings being supported by LEEP.

Although the issue was not discussed in the report, the study group also concluded that the weaknesses of criminal justice education programs are attributable, in part, to LEEP itself. This conclusion is based on the finding that LEEP emphasis has been placed on in-service students, thereby denying appropriate attention to graduate level studies which would assist in providing the appropriately degreed faculties that are needed to staff criminal justice programs. The report acknowledges that a small proportion of LEEP funds has been allocated to graduate programs. This reviewer has some difficulty in concurring with this finding. The survey covered the first seven years' administration of LEEP. The inference is that LEEP funds should have been designated for preservice students who were preparing for careers as members of criminal justice program faculties. It must be recognized that such a program would require significant lead time to fruition. It must be recognized also that the field of criminal justice education is still a developing field and the number of graduate programs in existence from 1970 through 1975 were limited. LEAA did take measures to encourage existing criminal justice program faculty members to upgrade their credentials by making them eligible for LEEP assistance under the in-service funding categories. Although early editions of the LEEP guidelines

placed criminal justice teachers in a lower priority for funds, the 1975 revision to the guidelines priorities equated teachers with all other in-service applicants.

Chapter IV is concluded with six recommendations concerning LEEP funding. These recommendations were based on the findings discussed earlier in the chapter and on assessments presented elsewhere in the NMS report which could have implications on future LEEP funding.

The first recommendation made by the study group was that actions be initiated to enforce the qualitative standards for institutional qualification for LEEP assistance as provided in current LEAA guidelines. The study group noted that these standards were not being consistently enforced by the former LEAA regional offices. The group further stated its position that programs that do not meet guideline standards with respect to the number of full-time and qualified faculty members, whose curricula do not meet minimum academic standards, or which are otherwise questionable in quality, should after some reasonable notice, be terminated from further participation in LEEP. In this regard, it should be noted that earlier discussion within the chapter defines these standards as quantitative rather than as qualitative standards. These standards were incorporated in the LEEP guidelines effective with the 1975-76 year. Some of the former regional offices utilized differing methods of notification to participating institutions while other regional offices were slower to enforce certain standards than were others. With the closing of the former regional offices in September 1977 and the subsequent centralization in the administration of LEEP in OCJET more uniform enforcement of all standards has been established. This reviewer feels that added emphasis must be placed on identifying and eliminating training type courses from LEEP support.

The study group further recommended that LEAA explore the potential for a cooperative role with the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences and its accreditation guidelines efforts in order to promote the establishment of reasonable quality standards for criminal justice programs. In this regard, OCJET has established close communication and has awarded grants to the Academy to assist in furthering its accreditation efforts.

Secondly, the study group recommended that steps should be taken to earmark a portion of the LEEP appropriation for a special program of grants for undergraduate and graduate work in management-related areas. The program being recommended would be a special competitive program designed for middle-level supervisors and management personnel in all sectors of the criminal justice system. Individual grants would be administered directly to the recipients by OCJET in a manner similar to the manner in which the Graduate Research Fellowship Program currently is administered. The purpose of this

recommendation is to help alleviate the "inverted educational pyramid" effect that has occurred, in part, as a result of LEEP assistance awarded since 1970. During this period line personnel have become better educated in the aggregate than have supervisory personnel. The program also is being recommended to prepare managers to be able to better cope with the pressures and problems of an increasingly complex criminal justice system. This reviewer has reservations about this recommendation - not on the basis of the intent, but rather on the mechanism suggested for the implementation of the recommendation. In the absence of statutory change in the maximum student award, this recommendation can be accomplished in a simpler manner through the on-going system of LEEP funding priorities in which in-service personnel on academic leave are given preference for available monies.

In keeping with the intent of this recommendation, OCJET has been exploring the practicability of establishing model demonstration programs in selected metropolitan police departments designed to increase the educational attainment of middle-management personnel. These programs would target in on satisfying identified educational needs in those departments. Current delays in this demonstration project are due to problems in obtaining identified needs of the departments under consideration.

The third recommendation of the study group is that a significant proportion of the LEEP budget should be earmarked for direct grants to criminal justice-related graduate programs to support increases in the number of graduate students planning to teach in the field. This recommendation is designed to provide a long-term solution to the manifold problems of criminal justice education at two-year institutions. This reviewer concurs with this recommendation. In 1975, LEAA equated criminal justice faculty members with other in-service personnel for priority in the receipt of available funds. For the 1978-79 year LEAA has begun to make preservice funds available at those institutions offering graduate-level programs that will prepare students to become qualified faculty members.

The fourth recommendation of the study group is that a program of special grants to support doctoral dissertations on criminal justice-related subjects should be instituted. This program would be an expansion of previous LEAA efforts. Awards would be made directly to applicants selected in a nation-wide competition by a special advisory board broadly representative of all relevant academic disciplines. Competition would be open to graduate students in virtually any field, including public administration, economics, political science, sociology, psychology, urban and regional planning, and anthropology, as well as criminal justice. A program of this type would have a twofold purpose: (1) to contribute to the growth in the supply of instructors for criminal justice faculties and (2) to provide substantial support for improved scholarly research in the criminal justice field. This reviewer concurs with this

recommendation, but not with the use of LEEP funds. The study group was unclear on the latter point. The present Visiting Fellows Program which is conducted by the institute could be expanded/modified to accommodate this recommendation.

The fifth recommendation of the study group is that efforts should be undertaken administratively to insure that all categories of eligible personnel in criminal justice agencies have equitable access to LEEP assistance. This recommendation emanated from the findings of the study group that a greater percentage of law enforcement personnel than that of corrections personnel have received LEEP assistance. This reviewer concurs with this recommendation. However, it is felt that the need for corrective action is not as urgent today as it was when the survey data was obtained. Interest in educational attainment among correctional personnel has increased. Secondly, as saturation of the law enforcement "market" has begun to occur, colleges and universities have incorporated correctional programs and are actively recruiting corrections personnel. During the 1978-79 year LEAA has made preservice LEEP funds available to institutions which offer adult and/or juvenile corrections programs.

The final recommendation made by the study group is that LEAA should reassess then current policy which precluded authorization of LEEP grants for any new preservice students. The study group further recommended limited and selective use of LEEP assistance for preservice personnel in recognition of the problem of placement within the public criminal justice system and the fact that LEEP recipients must repay their obligations if they are not able to earn cancellation through employment. This reviewer concurs with this recommendation. LEAA has already altered its policy toward preservice funding. The 1975 revision to the guidelines included provisions which would permit LEAA to give participating institutions the authorization to assist some new preservice applicants without having first assisted all their new in-service applicants as otherwise is required by the funding priority provisions. During the 1976-77 year new preservice funding was authorized to participating institutions whose crime-related degree programs were responsive to the needs of minority students. The amount of assistance made available to preservice minority students was expanded slightly during the 1977-78 year. Finally, for the 1978-79 year, a new preservice initiatives program was incorporated in the institutional award process. Authorization to assist a limited number of preservice students was given to 156 institutions whose criminal justice degree programs (1) could prepare graduate students for employment as members of collegiate criminal justice program faculties, (2) could help prepare students for employment in positions at the management level within public criminal justice agencies, (3) could prepare students for employment in the adult corrections sector, (4) could prepare students for employment in the juvenile justice sector, and (5) could prepare minority and women students for employment in public criminal justice agencies.

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Chapter IV

1. Actions should be initiated to enforce the qualitative standards for institutional qualification for LEEP assistance as provided in current LEAA guidelines.

Explore the potential for a cooperative role with the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences and its accreditation guidelines efforts.

1. The former ten LEAA regional offices began immediately to enforce most of the program standards that were incorporated in the 1975 revision of the LEEP guidelines by restricting institutional awards to assistance to returning recipients only at those institutions whose programs were deficient. Awards to new applicant institutions seeking participation in LEEP have been limited to those institutions whose crime-related degree programs satisfied guideline standards. The closing of the former regional offices and the subsequent centralization of LEEP has aided in the uniformity of the enforcement of these standards.

LEAA has awarded a grant to the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences to further the development of the establishment of quality criminal justice program standards.

*Priority developed by reviewer

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| <p>2. A portion of the LEEP appropriation should be earmarked for a special program of grants for undergraduate and graduate work in management-related areas. The grants should be made available to middle-level supervisors and management personnel in all sectors of the criminal justice system, including planners and court administrators.</p> <p>3. A significant proportion of the LEEP budget should be earmarked for direct grants to criminal justice-related graduate programs to support increases in the number of graduate students planning to teach in the field.</p> <p>4. A program of special grants to support doctoral dissertations on criminal justice-related subjects should be instituted.</p> | <p>2. Existing LEEP funding priorities give preference for available funds to in-service applicants on academic leave. This mechanism can fulfill the needs for which this recommendation was made. OCJET has been exploring the practicability of establishing model demonstration programs in selected metropolitan police departments designed to increase the educational attainment of middle-management personnel.</p> <p>3. Institutions having appropriate graduate programs have been given the authorization to provide assistance to new preservice students with priority to be given to those who are planning to teach in the field.</p> <p>4. The Institute conducts a Visiting Fellows Program which, in part, accommodates this recommendation.</p> |
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*Priority developed by reviewer

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5. Efforts should be undertaken administratively to insure that all categories of eligible personnel in criminal justice agencies have equitable access to LEEP assistance.
6. Reassess the current policy which precludes authorization of LEEP grants for any new preservice students.

5. Institutions have been encouraged to develop more general degree programs in criminal justice administration applicable to both law enforcement and corrections-oriented degree programs have been considered for increased LEEP awards.
6. The 1975 revision to the LEEP guidelines included provisions which would permit LEAA to authorize participating institutions to assist some new preservice students without first having to assist all new inservice applicants as is otherwise required by established guideline funding provisions. During the 1976-77 year limited funds were made available to minority preservice students. The amount of assistance made available to institutions serving minority preservice students was expanded during the 1977-78 year. A new preservice initiatives program was incorporated for the 1978-79 year. Limited authorization to assist new preservice students was given to 156 institutions whose criminal justice degree programs (1) could prepare graduate students for faculty positions, (2) could help prepare students for employment in management-level positions, (3) could prepare students

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6. (continued)
for employment in the adult corrections and/or
juvenile justice sectors of the criminal justice system,
and (4) could prepare minority and women students for
employment in public criminal justice agencies.

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Chapter V. Management Training and Education

Introduction. This paragraph states that the purpose of the chapter is to:

1. Describe management training and education needs experienced by executives;
2. Identify basic issues in determining training and education to meet these needs;
3. Describe current management training and education programs;
4. Compare these programs with those of other public agencies and private businesses.

The chapter is not organized this way and is extremely hard to follow: section headings are misleading and the survey has little depth.

If this chapter was to cover the total management training needs of the criminal justice system as the title of the volume states, it failed to include a large segment of criminal justice executives and managers by only concentrating on law enforcement and corrections and ignoring the courts, and the criminal justice planning agencies, juvenile and others.

The introduction gives the impression that solid information about the topic is reviewed and that from it, conclusions can be drawn. This is not the case, however, and only two or three recommendations are made concerning a process for development and delivery of management training, with no mention of the educational needs, and they are buried in a narrative conclusion section.

A. The Critical Role of Management

This section succinctly defines the unique position of criminal justice managers in the framework of private and public management and identifies the stated goal of Law Enforcement and Corrections managers which are:

1. Law Enforcement - Community satisfaction with the Police Department;
2. Corrections - Inmate Maintenance.

Both of these indicate a sensitivity to the needs of the citizens served - whether free or under security. These primary goals are consistent with the respective executive views of both services for the past thirty years. The survey does not analyze what it takes to achieve these goals from which conclusions could be drawn to identify the personal and substantive skills that comprise successful management. It is the identification of these skills that can be translated into training or educational activities and upon which the decisions can be made to justify major training and educational support

by the federal government to state and local criminal justice units as suggested by the chapter. Training and education, for the sake of themselves, are of no real value. The value of these endeavors are when they are directly related to some goal, organizational or personal that answers the question of the manager, "What will it do for me."

The section goes on to define what personal qualities a manager or executive in law enforcement or corrections must have to survive in the criminal justice system but does not tie them back in support of the achievement of the stated goals. The survey states, "The maintenance of their executive positions is often an exercise in survival . . . (which) requires an uncommon blending of experience, tact, specialized management skills, leadership qualities, and understanding of the vagaries of human behavior, and communication skills . . ." The reviewer knows this to be true, however, curriculum in support of the managers needs cannot be developed from these vague statements.

The survey did not go beyond this shopping list and identify what personal qualities could be strengthened by training or by education and to what degree these qualities must be present as a manager moves higher in the unit. Similar to the need to analyze what it takes to achieve the stated department goal, the skills of successful managers must also be analyzed to support discussions concerning management education and training in any meaningful way.

B. Management Training and Education Program Development

This segment should be more appropriately headed "Management Topics for Curriculum Development Consideration." It neither addresses training development or education program development, but goes into a brief discussion of the need for training in each of the topics outlined in Chart V-1 and V-2. However, each topic could be the subject of a full curriculum, but the review does not discuss the substance of each topic from which curriculum decisions could be made.

The segment provides an adequate justification for a move from leadership skills emphasis of the past to the more current need of functional skills. No exceptions can be made with any of the points covered, however, each will require an additional review before any conclusions could be made that lend themselves to the development of a curriculum for either training or education.

C. Content of Management Education and Training Programs

This section should be retitled, "Content Considerations for Management Education and Training," because it makes no specific recommendations for suggested curriculum as the title eludes. The section identifies two approaches to management training: one is Functional Needs such as outlined in Charts V-1 and V-2 the other is Leadership Needs as described on pages V207, 208, and 209. In addition, PV-209

identifies some considerations for educators in the development of criminal justice management education.

The section starts off with a strong statement that has important implications for development of management training curriculum, "Two approaches to management training and education exist, and they are not mutually exclusive one involves teaching the skills . . . on how managers manage. The other involves specific training or education to develop performance based skills." This implication is not explored any further, however, it is possible for both approaches to be compatibly welded together in a single training course and where it has been done it has been quite successful.

The danger in this section and all other sections of this chapter is that to the casual reader, it appears to be a simple matter to research and develop such courses when, in fact, it is a long and time consuming task that requires considerable manpower and resources. If consideration is to be given to authorize LEAA to undertake such a task, it would be beneficial to review other public and private sector efforts in terms of time, resources and manpower to obtain an insight into how much can be expected to be accomplished in a given period of time.

D. Curriculum Considerations

This section is excellently done. It moves from where training is currently obtained by managers (on-the-job) and a discussion of the shortcomings of this type of learning, to a review of some management training efforts around the nation, to considerations of where training should be given, to course length, to a review of some course that are now available.

The section provides the best insight to management training and course curriculum considerations in this chapter. It should be thoroughly understood by anyone who will be involved in future efforts to develop management education or training.

E. Quantitative Factors in Program Development for Management Training and Education

This section addresses numbers and types and managers and their various needs related to the size of the unit to be managed. As indicated by the figures cited in this subparagraph, the size of the organization managed and levels of managerial effort in the organization lean themselves to the type and level of management training to be received, i.e., small units of 10 employees or less=24 percent of all managers in the criminal justice system and their needs, are more for operational management skills; large units of 1,000 employees or more=20 percent of the criminal justice managers and the requirements are more diverse: first line supervisors require operational management skills; mid-level supervisors require more managerial and personal skills; senior managers

require more highly sophisticated functional and leadership skills. The remaining 56.3 percent of managers in the criminal justice system are in units of 10 to 1,000 employees and the larger the unit the more levels of supervision. A single curriculum developed in a modular style that moves from operational management through to executive management could be made applicable to all sizes of criminal justice units and be taught in any sequence of modules appropriate for the level of manager addressed by the training. The purpose of the recommended single modular type of management curriculum, appropriate from first line management to executive level is to support the excellent recommendation of the National Manpower Survey panel that ". . . whenever possible supervisory and management training should be related to mid- and upper-level executive (training). . . . Thus with the management structure." The critical question for consideration of Federal assistance to management training is at what level and to what degree could or should it be provided.

F. Qualitative Factors in Management Training and Education

1. Quality of Management Training Materials, Methods and Instructors.

This section is very weak. It did not address the quality of current materials except in a very superficial way. Its strongest point was to include a list of projected criminal justice executive skill needs for the next five years that could prove valuable in making future curriculum discussions. In addition, it was recommended that an exchange program of criminal justice executives and university professors be worked out to help reduce the level of theoretical materials being taught in management courses in the universities by providing practical experience to university bound professors. This indicates a lack of comprehension by the writer of university policies and politics that govern tenure and status that generally contradict the above recommendation.

Methods of instruction, behavioral objectives and instructor preparation was discussed as a problem, but how to address the problem was not.

2. The Problems of Proliferation. The answers to this problem that is alluded to by this section is national control of development of model training and education programs that are tied to federal support for implementation rather than the general support afforded to academic institutions who "put together" their own version of a criminal justice curriculum.

Implementation of this type of control development can also have a positive effect on the problem of curriculum not being tailored to meet the educational needs of the job market of the area that they are serving as discussed in section F-1 and F-4 of this chapter.

3. Standards for Management Training and Education. As this segment points out. "In an attempt to provide goals for management training, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals recommended a minimum of 40 hours of management study each year." ". . . "The major problem in determining training standards in the variety of needs based on such factors as the size of the agency (Para. E. Qualitative Factors), its geographical location, the complexity of its organization and availability of training.* This might suggest setting minimum standards in terms of management objectives (RELEVANT TO THE SIZE, LOCATION AND COMPLEXITY) rather than hours of attendance . . ."

The setting of minimum course hours has the effect of attempting to fit the knowledge or skills development training into the required time frame instead of the degree of knowledge or skills needed dictating the amount of time required to fulfill the need.

4. Role of the University. The university has historically seen itself as the source of major knowledge research, hence the complaint that universities are too theoretical. The place for the university, in addition to its traditional role as outlined in this segment is to research the knowledge needs of criminal justice managers and relate them to educational programs that are appropriate for the entrance levels available to potential criminal justice managers.

Seldom have universities specifically tailored undergraduate courses to meet a particular job market need, however, this is what is required if preservice education is to prepare potential criminal justice managers to function efficiently at the level of entrance into the criminal justice system now available to them. In conjunction with the re-examination of the undergraduate curriculum available to potential criminal justice personnel, national interest groups and the federal government should be developing state and local law-makers interest in adjusting existing state and local personnel systems to encourage criminal justice managers to enter the system at levels relevant to their education and experience and encouraging lateral movement throughout the criminal justice system. At the present time competitive which precludes the need for high level preservice management education that is relevant to the potential managers needs.

*More specific details of the impact on this problem is outlined in Chapter VII, Police Training

5. Lateral Entry of Executives. All of the points for resolution outlined in this section plus the historical through-the-ranks view of management growth by state and local personnel systems must be overcome. ICMA has been the most successful in combining education and training to develop city executives and using this development as a selling point for acceptance by city councils of the advantages of lateral movement of city managers. IACP, in 1975, developed a certification testing process for police executives that was a step in that direction, but it has many problems yet to be overcome. Both of these approaches should be studied closely in an attempt to strike a balance between education, training and recruitment of mid- and senior-level managers to justify the premise that criminal justice managers should have lateral entry capability.
- G. Conclusions and Recommendations. Only one major recommendation with sub-segments has come out of this chapter.

Regional management education centers should be established as soon as possible with initial funding from the federal government to be matched or replaced by state funding eventually:

1. Each center should maintain a curriculum program research group, educational materials availability, and a research program.
2. The curriculum should emphasize job related courses.
3. Academic credit arrangements should be made with universities to provide incentives for supervisors, mid-level managers and executives to complete degree programs in some public management field.
4. A National Advisory Planning Group should be established to develop program offerings and the administrative structure for the development of regional training centers and the delivery of the training programs.

Given the depth of material provided in this chapter, these recommendations are adequate and relevant to begin the development of such a series of training centers.

Reviewer Comments

This chapter failed to take into account the management needs of a large segment of the total criminal justice system: state, regional and local planning units; and the courts, state and local. The inclusion of these groups of managers as numbers of persons requiring management training can significantly increase the audience. This oversight is puzzling in that to effect a change in one or two segments of the criminal justice system is always felt in the others. To increase the management capabilities of only the law enforcement and corrections segments of the system will insure great frustrations on the part of those managers if the courts and planning agencies are not at the same level of competency.

Since the conclusion of this survey, LEAA has undertaken to develop, on a very limited scale, a regional training delivery system that has proved successful and could very well provide the action model around which the development and delivery of management training could be built.

Before an integrated training management curriculum and delivery system could be developed, all coordination and training development activities related to criminal justice management training must be centrally located in one office or division within LEAA and not be as fragmented as it currently is. It must have specific direction and objectives with sufficient resources to fulfill its responsibilities. Goals and milestones must be planned so that expectations do not exceed the ability to achieve its goals.

The survey made many good points, however, one could quickly gain the impression that to achieve its ends is a simple matter of getting together an advisory committee. In a system as fragmented as the criminal justice system in this nation, seeking a consensus on the definition of what is an "objective" and what is a "goal" has yet to be resolved. To attempt the coordination, development and delivery of management training that is relevant to fifty states and five territories for all levels of managers and obtain consensus on it is a task that will take years to successfully accomplish.

To begin such a task requires: first, authority; second resource (personnel and funds); third, definition of goals or objectives that are attainable; last, cooperation within LEAA and other Federal agencies providing training to local criminal justice agencies. I would strongly recommend the development of a long term plan, broken down by one year increments, to be submitted for approval prior to authority for implementation for such a plan.

It is the opinion of this reviewer that this chapter has made the same mistakes that have been made by layman trainers and educators for years and that is to attempt to discuss training and academic education as a single effort. It is true that both deal in knowledge transfer and must be coordinated efforts, however, that is where their similarities end. Both have different objectives and methods of achieving those objectives. Training deals with an audience that is already employed and educated to the degree they feel necessary and academic education deals with persons who are preparing to enter the job market. Training is short term, job specific, and the education long term, and develops broad general areas of knowledge and skills. This being the case, when attempting to analyze both at the same time, one always suffers at the expense of the other. This chapter on management was heavily training oriented with only a few references to academic education that gave the impression that academic education was a secondary issue. Since management education was not thoroughly addressed, this review could make few relevant recommendations about management education which puts it in its proper perspective. At some point in the future a survey of management education must be accomplished if LEAA is to pursue a balanced program of management training and education. The necessary information is not in this chapter.

Reviewer's Recommendations - listed by sub-paragraph in chronological order.

A. Critical Role of Management

It is recommended that a series of Regional (Multi-State) Review panels be convened under a National Panel to analyze the topics discussed in this section with the intent of making firm recommendations concerning training and education needs that include:

- *1. Analysis of skills necessary at each level of criminal justice management need: first-line supervision, mid-level; senior level; and executive.
- *2. Define the roles and relationships between education and training.
- *3. A model curriculum for all levels of management training.
- *4. A model academic program of education.
- *5. A model delivery system of training and education from national to local level that include the roles of training and education.
- *6. Model legislation for use by state legislators for purposes of state support of such a system.

B. Management Training and Education Program Development

*Recommend that all topics discussed in this section be the focus of further analysis prior to development of curriculum as outlined in section A-3 above.

C. Content of Management Education and Training Programs

- *- Recommend that during the implementation of A-3 above a plan for development of a model curriculum be presented that includes time and resources necessary to support implementation.
- *- That no model curriculum be approved that is not an integration of functional needs and the specific leadership qualities necessary for the level of management training to be taught as recommended by this chapter.

D. Quantitative Factors

It is recommended that whenever possible, senior management training should be linked to mid- and upper-level executive training so that they will actively support the concepts as well as reinforce what is learned in the training program.

E. Qualitative Factors

1. No comment.

2. Program Proliferation

Federal assistance be linked to implementation of nationally developed model management training or education curriculum that can be adjusted to the specifics of state/local needs where appropriate.

3. No comment.

4. No comment.

*5. Lateral Entry of Executives

It is recommended that in conjunction with recommendation A-6 above that model legislation include lateral entry provisions that are not in conflict with current state regulations concerning Personnel practices or could replace those that are excessively restrictive in nature.

*Priority developed by reviewer

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
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Chapter V

1. A national advisory planning group be established to develop the administrative structure for the proposed regional (multi-state) management training centers and to develop model program offerings.
2. Regional management training centers be established along the guidelines provided from #1 above, with initial funding from the federal government to be matched or replaced by state funding.

LEAA, Training Division, OOS, action model for Regional Training Centers and Training Program development for delivery to state, regional and local CJ personnel.

The reviewer is not aware of other LEAA programs have a direct bearing upon these recommendations.

All other reviewer recommendations as stated under Reviewers Recommendations are dependent upon the implementation of the above two recommendations.

Chapter VI - Programs of the Federal Bureau of Investigation

1. The FBI makes a major contribution to training of police officers of state and local agencies through four programs: the four courses are: The National Academy; National Executive Institute; Academy Short Courses; and Field Training. The first two are for police executives. The first being the "long course" of eleven to fourteen weeks and the second is concerned with specific management problems and is of several day to one week in duration. The last two are for service officers and first line supervisors and are seldom more than several days in length. Taken in the context of an integrated police training effort (combined with state and local police training) they provide the nucleus of an excellent National Police Service training effort. The draw back to expansion is resources and the excessive Manpower drain on the FBI agent personnel.

It must be understood that to police executives, attendance at the FBI Academy is more prestigious than a degree from an academic institution. The programs are of high quality and timely subjects. The Academy can be, and is, responsive to immediate needs of police executives and is an example of effective use of Federal funds for capacity building purposes. Its success is based upon: the past image of the FBI; remaining small enough to be controlled by a single staff; regional FBI office abilities to research national police training needs that are fed back to the academy; and resources to respond.

Chapter V of this volume recommends that academic credit be given for attendance at management level training courses to encourage completion of academic degree programs. The FBI Academy awards such credit through the University of Virginia who certifies the curriculum and the instructors. The survey did not explore to what extent the awarding of credit had been taken advantage of by participants who may have gone on to receive a degree as a result of the award of such credit. This group of police executives should be surveyed for such information prior to any national decisions to further support such an effort.

2. The standard academy course has trained about 1,000 police officers per year in the past several years. Eight million dollars per year from the FBI budget plus the number of man years spent as instructors, given the FBI's operational responsibilities, appears to be quite high and would appear to be an excessive drain of normal operations.
3. The National Executive Institute Program was initiated in 1976 to provide training for top management of law enforcement agencies. Provides excellent short courses on timely subjects for police executives.

4. Special, short-courses offered at the FBI Academy provide advanced training in traditional police fields as well as numerous specialized courses in topical problems. The provision of short-courses at the Academy appears to be a departure from its historic role. The move to this type of training is a natural evolution, however, since there is nothing that presently can take its place and the need for such training exists.
5. Field training services are provided to State and local agencies, utilizing special agents of whom about 2,000 are certified as instructors. No comment.

Reviewers Comments

The FBI has over the years evolved as the principal Federal agency that provides training for State and local law enforcement officers. With the opening of the National Academy, training of agents in instructor methods and assigning a full time training officer in each field office to coordinate training in each region, the FBI was the natural answer to advanced training for police officers since the resources did not exist anywhere else and the need was tremendous. Given the operational responsibilities of the FBI and the current amount of resources and man hours devoted to training, this must be a tremendous drain on their operations. The discussion in the chapter concerning the disagreement with types and levels of materials presented at the academy are relevant, but only to course adjustments and are not major problems of a national concern. The fact still remains that it is all there is for local police executives; its quality if high, professionalism of staff above reproach, and there is nothing to take its place.

If consideration is to be given to the Federal support of the total Criminal Justice System training needs, the Academy and the National Executive Institute should be viewed as the capstone of police executive development. The field training might be considered as an integrated part of a state-regional or local training effort that could relieve some of the burden that the FBI is now carrying on its own.

Recommendations

The recommendations are in order of significance and consideration. All recommendations are referenced to those made in Chapters V and VII of this volume. To the reviewers knowledge, no similar activities of the scope of the FBI are undertaken by LEAA with the single exception of one or two programs of the Office of Criminal Justice Programs that relate to courts and police exemplary projects.

- *1. The FBI Academy and executive seminars be considered the "Capstone" of police executive training if consideration is given to the development of regional (multi-state) management training centers.
- *2. In conjunction with the support recommended in Chapter VII to the state-regional (multi-county) and local police academies that the FBI field training be considered as an integrated part of the total federal assistance to these academies.
- *3. In the event that no progress is made toward support of management training centers and to state or local police academies, regional the FBI receive as much support (financial and personnel) as possible to continue their efforts in this area.

* Priority developed by reviewer.

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
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VOLUME FIVE
NEED PRIORITIES BY NMS CHAPTERS

EXAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED
PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

Chapter VI

- *1. The FBI Academy and executive seminars be considered the "Capstone" of police executive training if consideration is given to the development of regional (multi-state) management training centers.
- *2. In conjunction with the support recommended in Chapter VII to the state/regional (multi-county) and local police academies that the FBI field training be considered as an integrated part of the total federal assistance to these academies.
- *3. In the event that no progress is made toward support of management training center and to state or local police academies that the FBI receive as much support (financial and personnel) as possible to continue their efforts in this area.

1. None identified.

2. None identified.

3. None identified.

*Priority developed by reviewer

Chapter VII Law Enforcement Training Academies

Information presented at the outset of this particular chapter pertains to Chapter VI of Volume Two of the NMS. This chapter addressed law enforcement training from a practitioner perspective. Primary focus was placed on a descriptive analysis of the "duration and content" of training conducted in the police academy setting. In addition, literature in the field and the results of an NMS job analysis were integrated into information presented. Basic recruit training, along with in-service and supervisory type training, was examined in light of agency size and regional location. In short, a recapitulation is given in the first section of Chapter VII of conclusions reached in Chapter VI of Volume Two. This reviewer will not devote specific attention to such information because another reviewer has addressed the material and presented findings in the appropriate section of this report.

The purpose of Chapter VII is to "Consider the characteristics of law enforcement training academies and the qualitative factors that are believed to influence the efficacy of their training programs." The analysis conducted by the NMS was based primarily on a data collection effort performed in conjunction with the National Association of State Directors of Law Enforcement Training in 1975. Information sought in the survey was directed at training academy differences and the qualitative aspects of programs afforded.

A. Utilization of Academies by Agency Size and by State

Three types of academies were identified and considered in the NMS effort. Specific reference is made to "agency-affiliated" academies, those "administered by technical and vocational schools or by colleges," and "academies administered by law enforcement agencies or by a regional or state group and utilizing the facilities or some of the teaching staff of an academic institution."

1. Distribution of Academy Utilization by Size of Agency

According to the NMS, those academies considered "agency-affiliated" provided basic recruit training for 57 percent of police personnel. Academies in the state and regional classification accounted for 36 percent and the remaining 7 percent were trained by those associated with institutions of higher learning. It was concluded by the NMS that large agencies are more apt to utilize "agency affiliated" academies than small agencies. In addition, small agencies tend to use the remaining two types of academies more frequently than large agencies.

The NMS clearly indicates that smaller agencies, in numerous cases, cannot administer their own training programs. Also, many of them

do not have access to near by agency-operated academies. The development and implementation of state/regional academies was responsive to the above referenced problems experienced among smaller agencies. Such problems probably also gave rise to many academic affiliated academies.

In this reviewer's opinion, academies which train officers from various police agencies experience considerable difficulty with student clientele. Such difficulties can be traced to the selection criteria established among the agencies that training is provided for. This results in significant differences among students attending training sessions. For example, if a training program is located in an "agency-affiliated" academy course work is geared to the department's selection standards. The other two types of academies are probably confronted with even a broader mix of students from a selection standpoint. Consideration should be given to the adoption of uniform selection standards by agencies within respective academy jurisdictions. The use of such standards in the screening process would alleviate the aforementioned situation in various academy programs. It should be clearly understood that what is proposed would be only applicable to agencies within the geographical area served by each academy.

2. Distribution of Academies by State

The distribution of law enforcement training academies among various states is diverse. According to the NMS, "States have anywhere from 1 to 136 academies." A review of data compiled in the 1975 NASDLET survey reveals that the majority of states (29) throughout the country have predominantly "agency-affiliated" academies. In addition, there are 11 states that have a majority of state/regional type training operations and 8 states have established a majority of academies in the academic affiliated sector.

Different types of academies appear to be established because of several important factors. The NMS states that geography, density of population, access to "agency-affiliated" academies, efforts by police administrators and planning conducted at state and local levels constitute such factors. This reviewer agrees that the above referenced factors have an impact on types of academies established in various states. However, it is personally felt that political ramifications also influence the location and academy type put into operation. Some law enforcement administrators maintain that it is during basic recruit training that the "unfit" are screened out of their department. Therefore, they prefer to retain full authority, control and responsibility for making judgements about retention or termination of personnel during such a critical period. Also, there appears to be some reservations among administrators concerning the utilization of instructional personnel from academic institutions.

It appears that the distribution of academies is not related to the amount of training police officers receive at the entry level. States with adequate distribution appear to vary with respect to percentage of trained personnel. It is personally felt that at least two major factors impact on prevailing disparities between states. First, there is a lack of sufficient enforcement of mandatory training requirements by some Police Officer Standards and Training (POST) commissions. This can possibly be attributed to the lack of sufficient resources to regulate training requirements. Second, although minimum standards have been passed in most states, the legislation provides for either mandatory or voluntary participation. Those states where voluntary conditions exist may result in lower percentages of trained personnel.

In conclusion, it can also be pointed out that 3 states still have not passed any minimum standards legislation. This, of course, could impact on the percent of officers receiving training in light of the distribution of academies. Efforts should continue to promote minimum standards legislation in these 3 remaining states. Also, states should be encouraged to determine if legislative changes are needed to require mandatory training and whether or not strengthening of respective POST systems is needed. Budget appropriations may also be needed to insure adequate regulatory measures at the state level.

B. Characteristics of Academy Programs

This particular section of the chapter is devoted to an analysis of the "results of a National Association of State Directors of Law Enforcement Training (NASDLET) survey with respect to the length and content of training offered, the distribution and education of instructors, academy facilities, and sources of funding." Responses to the NASDLET survey represented only one-third of the total number of academies surveyed. Therefore, it was concluded by the NMS that "there is no assurance that the responses are representative of the universe of law enforcement academies."

1. Duration and Content of Entry-Level Training

The data collection effort by NASDLET reflects that the "average duration of entry-level training offered "was 415 hours in 1975. The average number of hours were highest in "agency-affiliated" academies and lowest among academies associated with academic institutions. Although considerable variation prevails in training duration among academy types, the NMS stipulates "It can be reasonably hypothesized that the major factor influencing the duration of training is the size of the agencies served."

It is felt that the NMS could have provided more depth perception into basic recruit training duration and curriculum content. Additional important factors related to the above areas are set forth by this reviewer in the subsequent discussion.

Minimum standards training requirements are not equal in all states. Therefore, if academies located in academic settings are operating in states with low training requirements, lower training levels can be expected because only minimum training is usually offered. Curriculum in "agency-affiliated" academies place more emphasis on course work applicable to their own departments. For example, departmental policy and operational procedures would fall within this category. Such curriculum would only be appropriate for the department itself and not to personnel from other agencies. Departments sending personnel to basic recruit training conducted by another agency are probably excluding their personnel from the training described above. If not, they should be in light of the relationship between training content and its job relatedness in each agency setting.

It is also concluded by this reviewer that the higher degree of specialization in larger departments may have a direct bearing on the content and duration of training in "agency-affiliated" academies. Such specialization simply does not exist among smaller agencies. Smaller agency personnel are most likely to be considered generalists. Also, it stands to reason that large departments are much more sophisticated in nature and therefore require additional training.

If a small rural agency with three officers sends one officer to training, there is a one-third manpower reduction in the department. It is for this reason that small agency police chiefs have a tendency to only send their officers through the minimum number of training hours or not send them at all. This probably has some degree of impact on the lower number of training hours conducted in all but "agency-affiliated" academies and the percent of officers receiving training. In short, the significant reduction in manpower among small agencies militates against increasing the duration/content of training conducted and the number of officers sent to training sessions. A pilot effort designed to alleviate such manpower problems should be considered by the LEAA. It is envisioned that an effort designed to train individuals prior to employment could possibly be beneficial to small agencies. A project along these lines could be of tremendous value in maintaining authorized strength in small agencies. Also, training costs could be transferred to the student. Law enforcement is one of the few occupational fields that employs their personnel and then proceeds to train them. In summation, it appears that agencies may be far better off from a cost standpoint if personnel were trained prior to employment. Authorized strengths could be maintained and training costs shifted to students pursuing careers in law enforcement.

The NASDLET survey results provided information concerning time devoted to topics in basic recruit training. Topics presented appear to be representative of curriculum at the entry-level. However, it also supports other research in the field which reflects that 80-90 percent of training conducted constitutes only 10-20 percent of the job. There also exists another implication concerning the content of training programs. Specific reference is made to how instructional needs were identified. The practice of "doing it in our heads" in the curriculum development process continues today along with student "happiness" evaluations. There are various technologies and techniques available that can be utilized to determine training content. For example, organizational analysis, task analysis and person analysis have been used effectively for such purposes.

2. Coverage of Topics in In-Service Training

The NMS reflects that academies are increasing their role in the training of in-service personnel. A list of courses offered in academies is presented along with percentages of all topics covered and the number of courses afforded. The survey indicates that "The most frequently offered topics were firearms, criminal investigation, and criminal law." Again there is evidence that a disproportionate amount of training is conducted on a relatively small percentage of work performed by police officers.

3. Facilities

Most academies responding to the NASDLET survey "possess physical facilities for training, a library, and access to an indoor gymnasium." It is suspected by this reviewer that most have access to outdoor ranges for firearms instruction. Larger academies usually have an academy building (77%). Small academy operations responding to the survey revealed that less than half had an academy (39%), and regional operated academies were more likely to have facilities to accommodate students in a residential capacity. This is understandable because "agency-affiliated" academies are concerned with their own personnel and academic type operations are concerned with students within commuting distance. Also, some two-year community colleges are prohibited from having residential facilities because of state regulations.

Only a taken amount of information is provided concerning facilities. The adequacy of such facilities for example could not be determined.

4. Instructors

There is overwhelming evidence produced by the NASDLET survey that

"law enforcement academies rely heavily on part-time instructors." The NMS points out that "only 21 percent of all instructors at responding academies were full-time, and 56 percent of the 206 academies reported having no full-time instructors."

Reasons given for reliance on part-time personnel were small class sizes and irregular course offerings. Also, respondents cited they preferred to utilize specialists in the instructional process. The reasons given certainly have merit in the opinion of this reviewer. However, there exists some underlying factors which should be brought out. The frugal expenditure of funds by those who control the budget prevent the employment of full-time instructional staff. It is suspected that respondents indicating full-time instructors may be somewhat misleading. Many full-time staff spend much of their time coordinating with part-time instructors to teach subjects in training programs. They may be more appropriately titled full-time coordinators.

Such extensive use of part-time instructors has an adverse impact on the qualitative aspects of training programs. Such instructors are usually not available for counseling, nor are they usually aware of the state-of-the-art in the training field and are not available for planning, analysis, research and evaluation activities which are vital to the quality of training programs. The general lack of such capabilities in law enforcement training are apparent to this reviewer. A programmatic thrust designed to establish such a capability in a police academy should be pursued by the LEAA. The role of what is being advocated would include manpower planning, training needs assessment, program development, evaluation, research, etc. in the academy environment.

5. Funding Sources

Persons that received the NASDLET survey were asked to "indicate whether their academies received funding from either a state planning agency, a state's standards and training commission, or a national or regional office of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration." Responses received indicated that 40 percent had received funding "from at least one of these sources." Information provided in the NMS would be somewhat misleading to some readers because state planning agency funding is actually provided by the LEAA.

Other funding sources were not addressed in the NASDLET survey. For example, state funds returned to academic institutions for training generated through police academy programs.

C. Comparison of the Current Status of Law Enforcement Training Academies With Desired Standards

This section of Chapter VII focuses on "Standards for innovative teaching techniques, field training, instructor training, desired class size, and the use of performance objectives are compared with current practice as indicated by the NASDLET survey." Although the standards used for analysis purposes are valid, they fall far short of a comprehensive and systematic approach to determining the effectiveness of training programs. In order to make such determinations the entire training process must be viewed. This, of course, would include needs assessment, program development and evaluation which constitute the above referenced training process. Additional comments pertaining to each of these areas will be integrated in this reviewer's analysis of subsequent areas addressed in this chapter of the NMS.

1. Teaching Techniques

The primary thrust of this section is placed on the proper utilization of teaching methods and media. Evidence was presented which reflects an overreliance on the lecture method of instruction. Reference is made in the NMS to a survey conducted in 1965 by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency which states that the "lecture method was the predominant mode of instruction used in police academies." Also, it is pointed out that the National Advisory Commission on Standards and Goals "recommends the adoption of student-oriented instruction methods to increase the trainees' level of participation and receptivity." A panel of training experts used in the NMS effort felt that a critical problem existed in the area of teaching methodology.

The content of this section of the NMS lacked depth and breadth. Such areas as conditions for transfer, preconditions of learning, conditions of practice, transfer, etc. were not highlighted or mentioned.

2. Performance Objectives

A recommendation made by the National Advisory Commission was cited in the NMS. According to the Commission, law enforcement academies should "define course content and student evaluation according to performance objectives." However, the NMS fails to stress the importance associated with properly performing a needs assessment. Various technologies and techniques are available to properly identify instructional needs. Specific reference is made to organizational analysis, task analyses and person analysis to determine such needs.

Various survey techniques are available for data collection. These include employee attitude surveys, problem surveys and the Delphi technique. In addition, records can prove to be a valuable resource in the assessment process. For example, personnel records can often provide a basis for planning training activities.

The basic foundation of any training activity is predicated on the proper identification of needs. Information compiled in the assessment phase of the training process influences all subsequent activities. It provides the blueprint for the development of objectives and the identification of evaluation criteria. Emphasis was placed on the importance of objective development in the NMS. However, the survey neglects to properly address the groundwork that precedes objective development.

The NMS gave only token reference to the evaluation of training programs conducted in law enforcement academies. Evaluation is an integral part of a training program from a qualitative standpoint and should have been recognized as such in the NMS. Elaboration on the subject of evaluation was restricted to the testing of students. A much more comprehensive approach should have been articulated in the NMS report. Literature in the field indicates that training evaluation consists of procedures designed to systematically collect the descriptive and judgemental information necessary to make effective decisions. According to the American Society for Training and Development, evaluation procedures should consider four levels of criteria - reaction, learning, behavior, and results. Reaction is what the trainees thought of the particular program. Learning is concerned with measuring the students acquisition of principles facts, techniques, and attitudes that were specified as training objectives. Behavior refers to the measurement of job performance. Results pertains to the impact of training on organizational objectives.

In addition to the aforementioned levels of criteria, the NMS does not focus on formative and summative evaluations. Formative evaluation is used to ascertain if the training program is operating as originally intended or if improvements are necessary before the program is offered. In short, formative evaluation stresses tryout and revision processes, primarily using process criteria. Summative evaluation is the evaluation of the final product with the major emphasis being program appraisal.

If training programs are not predicated on a sound developmental process and properly evaluated, it is practically impossible for training managers to defend their programs. Many trainers in the field are becoming increasingly concerned with vicarious or transfer liability. A recent court decision in the State of New York may be an initial step toward stripping away the immunity of state

and local governments. The case alluded to above focuses on the responsibility of governments to provide job related training. Law enforcement trainers can not afford to disregard the increased emphasis being placed on management accountability.

In conclusion, efforts should be initiated by the LEAA which are targeted at improving the quality of police academy programs. When viewing law enforcement training in historical perspective, it becomes clear that past efforts have been quantitative in nature.

Results of the NASDLET survey suggests that approximately one-half of the respondents "have not identified the necessary skills and competencies of police officers or formulated a way of measuring them during training." It is suspected by this reviewer that probably much more than half of the police academies in operation fall into this category. It is surmised in the NMS that the use of performance objectives is not common in basic recruit level training. This reviewer believes this fact is also applicable to in-service training programs.

The NMS suggests that "a valuable contribution of future Federal funding assistance in this area would be the early development of model performance objectives for a set of the most critical skills that a law enforcement recruit needs." However, this reviewer believes that proper needs assessment should precede objective formulation. Also, it is questionable whether or not a model should be developed rather than capacity building efforts designed to increase expertise in the field. Perhaps a thrust in both areas would be justifiable in order to improve and strengthen the quality of academy programs.

3. Stress Training

The NMS surfaces the fact that "If stress is indeed inherent in the various roles played by the police officer than the issue becomes how to train the recruit to perform most effectively under stressful conditions." Considerable research has been conducted in the field which concentrates on occupational stress. However, the value of training in the area of stress is inconclusive according to the survey. In light of this fact, additional research is probably warranted in the law enforcement field.

Work performed at the Los Angeles Sheriffs' Academy suggests that stress training conducted is more effective than "a battery of psychometric tests." Any future efforts involving research in stress training should be performed in conjunction with research in psychological testing designed for use in the police selection process.

It appears to this reviewer that a strong relationship prevails between efforts in both of these research areas. Psychological testing can be an important tool in screening applicants prior to enrollment in stress training. Refinement of psychological testing could possibly reduce or eliminate the need for such training activity.

At the time of the NASDLET survey only a few academies were involved in stress training activities. Only 14 percent of those responding to the survey indicated any involvement. Information gleaned from the survey reflects "that the more acceptable stress situations in the traditional academy's mode are giving way to the nonstress, in which instruction is likely to occur in a more relaxed atmosphere."

4. Field Training

Field training programs are theoretically designed to facilitate the transfer from the classroom to the realities of the job. However, such programs are plagued with numerous problems. These problems include the lack of management support, inability to recruit qualified field training officers, adoption of informal practices by recruits and the reluctance among some officers to participate because they consider the training officer role undesirable and potentially dangerous.

Information collected during the NMS effort shows that field training programs are more likely to be found in "agency-affiliated" academies. Such programs are least likely to be found in academies affiliated with academic institutions.

The NMS recommends that "field training be formalized, that its instructors be given special training and increased status, and that the programs be given strong management support." This reviewer would also include the development of a sound selection criteria for training officers in the aforementioned recommendation. Many agencies have the tendency to arbitrarily assign recruits to veteran officers. The LEAA should contemplate funding to support field training programs from both a qualitative and quantitative standpoint.

5. Class Size

Approximately one-half of the academies responding to the NASDLET survey were in conformance with the Peterson Commission's recommendation that classes be "restricted to a maximum of 25 trainees." Those academies considered "agency-affiliated" and "college-affiliated" are more apt to comply with the standard set by the Commission.

POST commissions should be encouraged to maintain better control over class sizes in law enforcement academies. Data presented in the NMS further substantiates the problems some POST operations apparently have in their regulation of training programs.

6. Instructor Training

The NMS clearly articulates that "One of the most important factors in assuring the quality of any training program is the quality of its instructors." This reviewer certainly agrees with the above statement and strongly recommends programmatic efforts designed to upgrade instructional personnel. Literature in the field is drawn upon by the NMS to emphasize the need for selection criteria, duration and content of training, and certification for training instructors. It is felt that each of these areas are in need of considerable improvement. The expert panel assembled by the NMS expressed concerns with inadequate instructor development programs, lack of credibility with students and strong practitioner origin of current instructional personnel.

Serious consideration should be given to the possibility of requiring minimum standards training for instructional personnel to ensure competency among trainers in the field. The importance of qualified instructors in the field is associated with properly preparing individuals for police work. Training curriculum for academy trainers and field training officers should be formulated after a task analysis is completed for the positions. The duration of such training should only be determined after the above analysis is completed.

It is personally felt by this reviewer that many trainers in the field of law enforcement are not properly prepared for instructional work. When comparing the state-of-the-art in the private sector with police training in the field, the lack of preparedness becomes obvious. There is most certainly a need to improve and strengthen the quality of instruction, the program development process, and evaluation of training in the police academy setting. Trainers in the field will have to be depended upon to bring about needed change in academy training.

Reviewer Conclusion

The LEAA should be supportive of efforts to promote improvements in the qualitative aspects of training conducted in all types of police academies. Data presented and conclusions reached in the NMS certainly underscore the need for support in several primary areas. Although the NMS focused on factors "believed to influence the efficacy" of training programs, a comprehensive presentation was not made in the opinion of this reviewer. Material presented failed to adequately address the three primary phases associated with the training process. The quality of training afforded can

be traced to the areas of needs assessment, program development and evaluation which constitute such a process. The NMS only sporadically covered subject matter related to the areas alluded to above. Particular weaknesses were noted in the areas of needs assessment and evaluation by this reviewer.

More full-time personnel should be employed to improve planning, research, analysis and evaluation of training programs conducted in police academies. In addition, future training efforts should be targeted at existing personnel with training responsibilities in the above referenced areas of need. Curriculum should also be developed and offered to field training officers where needs exist. Training programs developed for both types of trainers should be anchored in a sound needs assessment process.

In conclusion, the increased emphasis being placed on management accountability dictates the need to upgrade police academy personnel. The quality of programs conducted are dependent upon the caliber of those involved in training activities. The time has come to move from a quantitative to a qualitative approach in law enforcement training. We must remain cognizant of the fact that manpower constitutes the most valuable resource law enforcement has.

The following is a rank ordering of priority needs identified by the NMS and this reviewer.

1. It is recommended that LEAA, in association with appropriate state agencies, establish regional instructor training centers for both law enforcement and correctional academies. Such centers could perform several functions. In addition to their primary mission of training instructors and coaches in field training programs in the use of the most appropriate education methodologies, they could provide technical assistance to academies in developing programs for performance testing, and on related training matters.
- *2. An effort should be generated by the LEAA to adequately train those responsible for properly developing and evaluating their training programs. Curriculum should focus on needs assessment, program development and evaluation which constitutes the training process. This should follow a task analysis targeted at the trainer position. It is strongly suspected that such training is needed in all types of academies. (closely related to 1 above)

*Priority developed by reviewer

3. It is recommended that LEAA examine closely occupational analysis findings and provide for the establishment of a curriculum committee of law enforcement personnel and other selected groups to compose offerings at training academies with current and future occupational demand.
4. LEAA in coordination with state planning agencies or commissions, and academic institutions, should place priority on upgrading the training being provided to the smaller agencies.
5. The high crime rate among juveniles and the small amount of course work in recruit training allocated to special law enforcement problems associated with juveniles appear to be incongruent. It is recommended that LEAA arrange for the development of prototype courses, or course components, on the subject for use by law enforcement academies.
- *6. The LEAA should support a pilot effort designed to improve manpower planning, research, analysis and evaluation in the academy setting. This could be accomplished by establishing an organization unit within an academy to address the above areas. The role of such a unit must be well conceptualized and staffing patterns matched with required expertise.
- *7. A pilot effort should be funded by the LEAA which focuses on training individuals for police work prior to employment. Such an effort should focus on relieving agencies of financial burden and promoting the maintenance of authorized strength levels.
- *8. A feasibility study should be conducted by LEAA to determine the value of developing uniform selection standards among agencies in academy jurisdictions. If considered feasible, a pilot effort should be funded and tested in the field.

* Priority developed by reviewer

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1. It is recommended that LEAA, in association with appropriate state agencies, establish regional instructor centers for both law enforcement and correctional academies. In addition to their primary mission of training instructors and coaches in the field training programs in the use of the most appropriate methodologies, they could provide technical assistance to academies in developing programs for performance testing, and on related training matters.
- *2. An effort should be generated by the LEAA to adequately train those responsible for properly developing and evaluating their training programs. Curriculum should focus on needs assessment, program development and evaluation which constitutes the training process. This should follow a task analysis targeted at the trainer position. It is strongly suspected that such training is needed in all types of academies. (closely related to 1 above).

*Priority developed by reviewer

1. There is presently a monograph development effort which focuses on training needs assessment, program development and evaluation. This effort is being conducted by Michigan State University with funds provided by OCJET.
2. See number 1 above which pertains to monograph development

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3. It is recommended that LEAA examine closely occupational analysis findings and provide for the establishment of a curriculum committee of law enforcement personnel and other selected groups to compose offerings at training academies with current and future occupational demands.
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5. The high crime rate among juveniles and the small amount of course work in recruit training allocated to special law enforcement problems associated with juveniles appear to be incongruent. It is recommended that LEAA arrange for the development of prototype courses, or course components, on the subject for use by law enforcement academies.

3. OCJET recently sponsored a task analysis symposium in Dallas, Texas. This effort was designed to bring together the state-of-the-art in law enforcement task analysis efforts.
4. None Identified.
5. None Identified.

*Priority developed by reviewer

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- *6. The LEAA should support a pilot effort designed to improve manpower planning, research, analysis and evaluation in the academy setting. This could be accomplished by establishing an organization unit within an agency to address the above areas. The role of such a unit must be well conceptualized and staffing patterns matched with required expertise.
- *7. A pilot effort should be funded by the LEAA which focuses on training individuals for police work prior to employment. Such an effort should focus on relieving agencies of financial burden and prompting the maintenance of authorized strength levels.
- *8. A feasibility study should be conducted by LEAA to determine the value of developing uniform selection standards among agencies in academy jurisdictions. If considered feasible, a pilot effort should be funded and tested in the field.

- 6. OCJET is presently working with a large law enforcement agency to determine the feasibility of establishing a human resource development center within the organization. Such a center would perform manpower planning, research, analysis and evaluation on an agency-wide basis.
- 7. None Identified.
- 8. None Identified.

*Priority developed by reviewer

Chapter VIII: Law Schools

We are a litigious nation. The courts are often viewed as the final repositories for any number of social ills. Rather than negotiate disputes, we move quickly into the judicial arena, seeking redress for a myriad of legal wrongs, real or imagined.

This reviewer is reminded of a particular example of this while a law school undergraduate. The professor had just defined a civil battery as an intentional, impermissible, non-consensual touching of one by another indicating the slightest touching would be actionable. The conceptual emphasis here was upon the initiation of a legal civil action with little or no thought given to our woefully backlogged court systems and the fact that the judicial forum could be better conserved for matters of greater import. Yet the Socratic method of law teaching, developed by Christopher Langdell at Harvard, and in use in virtually all law schools in America, fosters the litigious attitude and narrows rather than broadens a "system" perspective. The emphasis, in most law schools, is not upon the mastery of substantive legal doctrine. Instead, it is upon a rigorous process of distilling facts into appropriate legal principles and processes.

The NMS reports law school goals as falling into three categories. First, there is the manpower goal--to produce graduates equipped to function primarily as legal practitioners. In addition some of the "elite" (primarily eastern) law schools are concerned with equipping their graduates to serve as legal statesmen (judges, law professors). Few law schools are concerned with the preparation of graduates to serve in essentially non-practitioner positions (planners, court administrators).

The second law school goal is skill development achieved through the Socratic method of teaching, employing the casebook (a series of appellate cases, which build upon one another) rather than the textbook method.

The third goal of a law school is long-term reform. Law schools as institutions, however, do not usually see law reform as a goal per se.

I alluded earlier to the narrow focus of legal education. This, as the survey notes, is especially true with respect to the study of criminal law. The traditional criminal law course heavily emphasizes the elements of a crime--the requirements for criminal liability or responsibility. Most criminal law casebooks treat criminal procedure issues but rarely is there an integration of procedural issues into substantive law

materials. Moreover, the procedural treatments are almost always doctrinal in approach, emphasizing constitutional issues with little demonstration of the interrelatedness of the processes of the criminal law is important, a knowledge of criminal process is indispensable to the practitioner and policymaker, and a course in criminal process ought to precede one in substantive criminal law. In short, what is lacking in the traditional approach to the teaching of criminal law, is a system overview. The criminal process is a dynamic one, one which flows. It is not static.

The emphasis, in terms of process, in teaching criminal law is placed most often on the trial phase. Yet fewer than 10% of all criminal cases ever reach the trial stage. Most are plea-bargained or disposed of at the preliminary hearing--usually for some evidentiary defect.

Another defect in the current law teaching perspective especially with respect to criminal law, is the failure to stress and develop interpersonal skills, so vital to the "lawyering" process. Interviewing clients or witnesses, the process of negotiation, and counseling are extremely important to a criminal practitioner. It is virtually unthinkable for a practitioner to be an effective advocate without these skills.

It has already been mentioned that the law curriculum over-emphasizes litigation, or the common law perspective. As a consequence, legislation as a means of reform is often treated as an afterthought.

Course Offerings

The NMS analysis of 1975 catalogs from 162 of the then 163 ABA approved law schools disclosed that 99% offered criminal law, compared with 100% in 1966; 88% required it in the first year, compared with 96% in 1966. The analysis also showed that 78% of those law schools offered criminal process compared with 69% in 1966; 30% required it in the first year. However, the non-seminar criminal justice offerings accounted for only 5.8% of the total non-seminar offerings. The median number of courses and seminars on criminal law topics was 5.45. The range of criminal justice offerings was 1 to 18 courses and seminars, or 2 to 12 percent of the total. The average increase in the emphasis on criminal justice offerings between 1966 and 1975 was over 59%, although it appeared that much of the increase (25 to 50 percent) was due to the addition of criminal justice seminars rather than substantive course offerings.

At *New York University Law School and the University of Chicago Law School, a Masters of Laws degree is offered in criminal justice. At

New York University, a rich criminal law and criminal justice curriculum is offered. Both undergraduate and graduate law students may avail themselves of these courses. They include: Introduction to criminology; advanced criminal justice procedure; comparative criminal law; international criminal law; law of criminal corrections; criminal justice planning and reform; correctional planning and reform; international criminal justice planning and reform; law and psychiatry; the criminal justice process (police and pre and post trial phases). This latter course involves both classroom and clinical work.

*There may be other law schools as well offering this specialized degree.

Clinical Legal Education

The development of legal education in this century has included a movement toward clinical legal education which arose from a desire to relate the professional responsibility of the bar to the actual skills that a practicing lawyer needs. With Ford Foundation assistance, the National Council on Legal Clinics, sponsored by the National Legal Aid and Defenders Association with the cooperation of the ABA and the Association of American Law Schools, began a pilot project at several law schools. Among the objectives of this project were broadening the definition of "professional responsibility" to include public policy concerns for law reform, providing legal services to the indigent, and increasing technical competence in the practice of law. In 1975, at least 129 of the 163 ABA credited law schools offered clinical legal programs.

The value of the clinical program is two-fold. It increases the expertise (or perhaps develops) of the student in "lawyering" skills, including client interviewing, fact analysis, counseling, negotiation and trial advocacy. The clinical experience, additionally, exposes the student to the realities (and the vagaries) of legal practice (e.g., coping with an overburdened criminal court system). Clinical experience may also expose law students to the systematic problems of criminal justice that underlie the problems they encounter. Clinical programs exist under the supervision of a faculty member, himself an attorney, whose task it is to furnish guidance, direction and support to the student. Many jurisdictions, by Supreme Court rule, allow law students to prosecute and defend indigent criminal defendants. (See, for example, Massachusetts Supreme Judicial Court Rule 3:11.)

Prioritizing of Recommendations

Before reaching the prioritization of recommendations, it is the

opinion of this reviewer, supported by the NMS, Chief Justice Warren Burger, and David Bazelon, former Chief Justice of the U.S. Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia, that it is the duty of the law schools to produce effective advocates and practitioners. It is also, (and I do not know whether Messrs. Burger and Bazelon concur on this) incumbent upon the law schools to train legal "statesmen" and reformers. It is not enough, nor is it responsible thinking to expect lawyers to gain needed skills and insights by happenstance of some other external device and at the expense of a client.

1. Curricular innovations such as clinical law programs should be supported, both for their value in furthering professional responsibility and for their potential for influencing change in the non-clinical law curriculum.

(The "Law Center" concept is invaluable for this purpose. Law Centers combine the external programs of the law school with the undergraduate law programs. This is buttressed by basic and applied scholarly legal research conducted on an ongoing basis.)

2. Faculty research should be encouraged to take a systemic, rather than a common law, case approach to criminal justice.
3. Law schools should also be encouraged to provide assistance to criminal justice education and training programs.
4. Greater use of legal internships should be made and a national clearinghouse for criminal justice employment should be created. These activities would not only benefit the criminal justice system but would foster interest in careers in criminal justice.

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*Priority developed by reviewer

1. (related) - National Institute for Trial Advocacy. This is not a clinical program per se (i.e. participants do not represent clients or engage in litigation), but the emphasis of the training is to develop advocates for these purposes.
2. None identified.
3. None identified.
4. None identified.

Chapter IX Continuing Legal Education for Criminal Law Practitioners

This chapter in Volume 5 Criminal Justice Education and Training, begins with a statement and a premise: "While law school provides the basic knowledge and skills required of the criminal attorney, it is essential that these qualifications be maintained and expanded." This reviewer disagrees with the statement that law schools provide the basic skills required of the criminal attorney. Our law schools, for the most part, simply do not prepare lawyers to be trial lawyers. We have not embraced the British concept of training Barristers (trial lawyers) at special Inns of Court. In Britain, as noted in the review of Chapter VIII, Volume 5, those wishing to become litigators attend these Inns of Court. Those not wishing to become trial lawyers, receive conventional legal training and become "Solicitors" (preparers of instruments and contracts, serving as counselors, not advocates). (For an excellent discussion of the failure of law schools to adequately prepare those trial lawyers see

Bazelon, The Ineffective Assistance of Counsel, 42 U. Cinn. L. Rev. _____, _____.

The responsibility, in the first instance for preparing lawyers to become trial lawyers, lies with the law schools. No continuing legal education program can provide the foundation and the requisite skills necessary to become an effective advocate. The function of continuing legal education programs should be maintaining and expanding these skills. While many law schools offer clinical legal programs and courses in trial advocacy, this is not enough. A curriculum should be developed in the nation's law schools to train trial lawyers. While every law student should be exposed to at least a basic course in trial advocacy, an elective program should be developed for those wishing to become trial lawyers. It has been alternatively suggested that this curriculum could be made part of the undergraduate law curriculum or exist as a separate graduate law program.

The first National Conference on the Continuing Education of the Bar was held at Arden House in New York City, in 1958. It reaches the following conclusions:

1. "CLE" should be emphasized for newly admitted lawyers.
2. Emphasis in CLE on professional competence should be supplemented by inclusion of program elements emphasizing professional ethics (including law reform).
3. CLE programs should make greater use of professional staff.
4. Responsibility for CLE in each state should be placed with the state bar.

5. The need for specialty training should be emphasized.
6. An ALI-ABA committee should establish national standards for CLE.

Continuing legal education organizations may be classified as national, regional, state or local. National programs include: those of the ALI-ABA Committee, the ABA and its sections, the Federal Bar Association, the National College of District Attorneys, the National College of Criminal Defense Lawyers and Public Defenders, the National Center for Defense Management, the National Institute of Trial Advocacy, the American Trial Lawyers' Association, the National Legal Aid and Defenders' Association, the National District Attorneys' Association, the Practising Law Institute, and various profit-making organizations such as Prentice-Hall and Lawyers Cooperative Publishing. Northwestern University Law School's short course for prosecution and defense is perceived to be the best of its type.

Regional, state and local continuing legal education programs are typically of two types. The most typical are operated by a bar association or through a corporate affiliate of the bar association. The second type is offered by a law school or with bar association sponsorship. Examples of the second type are found (as of 1975) in 16 states: Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Virginia and Wisconsin. Usually county or local bar associations are without full-time staffs and as a result, as noted by the survey, their programs lack regularity or continuity. Their efforts, nonetheless, account for about 25-35 percent of all continuing legal education activities.

Types of CLE courses for criminal law practitioners are classified by content or by recipient. The content will normally differ based upon the status of the recipient (newly-admitted, experienced or specialist).

Several sources, according to the NMS, suggest that approximately 10 percent of all CLE courses have a criminal law or procedure focus. CLE courses existing throughout the nation in 1975 as reported to an ALI-ABA catalog and survey disclosed the following subjects taught and their number:

Assigned Counsel	-	2
"Bridging the Gap"	-	8
Evidence	-	15
Courses for General Practitioners	-	11

Courses for Juvenile Court Practitioners	-	7
Recent Developments in the Law	-	5
Specialized/Advanced Courses	-	33
Pre-trial Functions	-	2
Constitutional	-	3
Trial Mechanics and Advocacy	-	22
Prosecution and Defense Management	-	6
		Total 108

Entry-level Continuing Legal Education

Only Texas offers a sufficient entry-level training program for the practicing attorney. In that state, the state bar and criminal defense lawyers have joined in an LEAA-funded CLE program that reaches more than 1,000 lawyers each year. Only two other states have even a minimum number of such courses. In the remaining 47 states (again, as of 1975), there are no entry-level CLE courses. The absence then, of sufficient entry-level CLE, is a major deficiency.

The ALI-ABA survey showed that the average CLE Course Length is one work-day (8 hours). The suggested minimum-mandatory CLE course length requirement is 15 hours or nearly twice the length of the average course given.

Costs of attending CLE programs coupled with an inability to attract high quality faculty are two major inhibiting factors noted by the survey to successful CLE programs. The CLE costs for many new lawyers practicing civil law are paid by their firms. Many criminal lawyers, however, are sole practitioners who must bear the burden of the costs themselves. There is little prestige or monetary compensation for faculty of most CLE's. Hence, many CLE programs suffer in terms of breadth and depth.

The major weaknesses of national CLE programs were seen as frequent dependence upon lectures and the use of volunteer faculty.

Large state CLE organizations were found to have higher quality programs than those in small states and state programs are generally better than local ones. Recent trends towards joint sponsorship of state and national CLE providers has potential for improving the quality of state CLE. CLE programs associated with law schools in conjunction with the bar (e.g. Michigan) seem to be noticeably superior to those not having such resources.

LEAA Support of Criminal Law CLE

Programs which offered CLE at little or no cost to the recipient (i.e., LEAA-supported) generally had large attendance for their total criminal law programs. Those charging higher fees (as noted earlier) generally has low total attendance.

A review by the NMS of the ALI-ABA catalog of CLE courses indicated that almost 26 percent of all criminal law courses in 1975 had LEAA funding. (This figure is admittedly not very accurate). Nor can the NMS state with any degree of certainty whether the quantity of CLE provided criminal law is attributable to LEAA funding. Some of the programs might have been offered without LEAA funds. It has also been suggested that the availability of LEAA funds to some providers has driven others out of the criminal law field so that LEAA-funded programs may merely substitute for non-LEAA funded programs.

Deficiencies in CLE Perspective

There is a conspicuous lack of CLE courses in the pre-trial and juvenile areas. Since less than 10 percent of all criminal cases ever reach trial, this is certainly a curriculum deficiency. About half of all courses on juvenile justice available were directed toward prosecutors. Less than one-third of all private and public attorneys are engaged in juvenile law. A proportional imbalance exists between prosecution and defense for this type of CLE.

Mandatory CLE

It is reported that two states, Iowa and Minnesota, currently require attorneys to attend CLE courses. Interest in mandatory CLE exists in other states and in January 1977, Wisconsin joined the other two states in making CLE mandatory. Mandatory CLE programs are seen, at least in one sense, as an alternative to a more far-reaching proposal by many public interest groups for periodic re-examination of attorneys.

Three common criticisms of mandatory CLE were voiced through the NMS. First, a mandatory requirement cannot guarantee the motivation of attendees. Secondly, because mandatory CLE is not directed to the

specific needs of individual lawyers, the need to meet mandatory requirements may discourage individuals planning their educational programs in accordance with career desires. Thirdly, and lastly, mandatory CLE is criticized for failure to test its students to determine the extent of learning.

As for the future of mandatory CLE, the consensus of the ABA National Conference on continuing legal education in November 1975 was that mandatory CLE should not be adopted by other states until the expense of Iowa and Minnesota have been evaluated.

Specialization

Legal specialization, so-called, may be of two types: self-designation or certification. While self-designation is self-explanatory and akin to advertising, with respect to certification and state must certify that the individual is a specialist. State certification processes may include mandatory CLE, with examinations for lawyers wishing to be certified as specialists. Mandatory CLE without examination is the case in Texas, while examinations - and vigorous qualifications - are required in California. At the time of the survey, these were the only two states with specialization certification procedures. In California, fewer than 10 percent of all lawyers engaged in criminal defense work are certified as specialists.

Some form of specialization, according to the survey, seems inevitable. An alternative to the criminal law specialization plan is the proposal for imposing certification requirements on all trial lawyers. This proposal derives from the many public statements of Chief Justice Burger and others who have expressed doubts about the quality of trial advocacy in the courts.

Recommendations and Prioritization

1. The need for CLE is for greater than its availability. Because of this, the need for Federal support of continuing legal education far exceeds the level of such Federal support currently. While continuing legal education is indispensable to efforts to improve the quantity and quality of lawyers engaged in criminal law, it cannot be reviewed as a substitute or a remedy for inadequate preparation in law school.
2. LEAA-funded research on the value and costs of specialization and mandatory CLE should be encouraged.
3. A comprehensive plan for criminal law CLE must assume that bar associations presently offering courses in the criminal law field will continue to do so. Bar associations provide a convenient vehicle for transfer of learning through CLE. Inadequate bar

programs should be upgraded and not replaced.

4. Federal, state and local CLE programs should be strengthened through coordination. SPAs may be the logical point of coordination at the state level through incorporation into the State Comprehensive plans.
5. A national clearinghouse of CLE materials in the criminal law field should be established.
6. Grants should be given to law school faculty members to develop CLE materials. Not only would better quality course materials be generated, but potentially, long-term law school support for CLE could result.

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- *1. Continuing legal education programs should be increased. They should, however, never be viewed as a substitute or a remedy for inadequate preparation in law school.
2. LEAA-funded research on the value and costs of specialization and mandatory "CLE" should be encouraged.
3. Inadequate bar association continuing legal education programs should be upgraded and not replaced.
4. Federal, state and local "CLE" programs should be strengthened through coordination with other "CLE" programs.
5. A national clearinghouse of CLE materials in the criminal law field should be established.

*Priority developed by reviewer

1. LEAA funds the National College of District Attorneys and the National College of Defense Lawyers and Public Defenders.
2. None identified.
3. None identified.
4. None identified.
5. The Criminal Justice Reference Service provides some information. However, it was not established to serve a CLE coordination role.

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Chapter X. Professional Education In Corrections

A. Introduction

This chapter focuses on the "educational status" of a limited number of occupations in the areas of correctional treatment and probation/parole activities. The NMS places emphasis on "the social worker, psychologist, sociologist/criminologist, and the rehabilitation counselor."

Research conducted by those responsible revealed that perceptions about the usefulness of some of the above referenced positions were different. Since the field of corrections did not have expertise in the occupations referred to previously, these other disciplines were looked to for support and assistance. The NMS notes that no single discipline could be called upon to accommodate needs in rehabilitation activities.

Various academic disciplines will be examined in light of "their value in preparing professional personnel for entering the correctional field." The survey indicates that before making additional commitments, institutions of higher learning should conduct a needs assessment to determine if operational agencies are willing to establish "substantive positions" for graduates of their programs. There is evidence which reflects that many graduates from such disciplines seek careers outside the correctional field. These career path changes are attributed to such factors as "working conditions, low pay, and concern about opportunities for applying one's professional training in a closed and authoritarian environment." In this reviewer's opinion, many individuals find their job frustrating because of external factors. This is certainly contrary to the purpose of education and training programs---to bring about a change of behavior in the learner. Serious questions can be raised concerning the value of education when behavior is restricted in the correctional setting.

Subsequent information portrays an educational profile for various degree programs which prepare individuals for professional positions in the field. Information presented will focus on program offerings, placement opportunities and some of the problems encountered in providing the "needed skills for future correctional programs."

B. Social Work

It is brought out in the NMS that the field of social work has long been recognized as an appropriate field of study for persons preparing for a career in corrections. However, other educational disciplines

have made inroads to the field in recent years. The following is an assessment of the present role of social work and its projection into the future.

The examination of the four years prior to the NMS indicate that social work educational programs have increased very slowly. It appears to this reviewer that educational development has practically stabilized. However, doctorate level programs did experience a slight increase. Out of the total number of graduate level programs identified in social work "Approximately one-third of the schools offer a specialization" in the corrections or criminal justice fields. It is interesting to note that some social work programs have "extensive reliance upon departments outside the school of social work to provide coverage of topics in the specific area of criminal justice." It is concluded in the NMS that there is very little difference between those schools that offer an area of concentration in corrections/criminal justice and those that do not. The only exceptions appear to be in two areas. First, there are programs that "tend to offer a larger proportion of courses in correctional policy and practice, while programs not offering this concentration tend to offer more courses in general criminal justice topics." Second, "A large proportion of general criminal justice courses are offered in schools without a concentration in corrections."

Another indicator of involvement by the social work discipline can be found in data collected on placement of students. It was determined by the NMS that "All approved social work programs require that students serve a period of time in a social service agency as part of their academic preparation." Out of the total number of field placements in 1974, approximately 5 percent were in a criminal justice agency. The NMS states this percentage has remained fairly stable since 1971. It was noted in the survey that some students were placed in criminal justice agencies that were not enrolled in programs with an area of concentration in the field. Therefore, it is logically concluded by this reviewer that some students were placed in criminal justice agencies without receiving course work specifically designed for the field.

Social work programs are tailored along two central themes of discourse. The survey indicates that some "programs prepare students to enter direct service roles while other programs prepared students for what are called 'macro' level positions -- that is, positions in research, policy planning, and administration." There is some evidence which indicates that more emphasis is being placed on the latter area in recent years. This is an interesting point because there is a definite need for better management in the field

of criminal justice. Movement in this direction appears to coincide with a pressing need in the criminal justice field.

Set forth below are brief descriptions of programmatic thrusts identified in social work programs.

- Generic multi-method practice is an approach that is rarely utilized because of the general approach taken. In short, it merely provides students "with a variety of materials, methods, and areas of specialization" in the curriculum. It is broad based and does not have specificity in any particular area.
- Micro, direct service, clinical, case-work, and groupwork focuses on "providing the student with the necessary skills to deal with individual clients in a professional casework relationship."
- The group work approach is very similar to the casework method. The knowledge and skills imparted remains the same. However, treatment focuses on the group instead of the individual and the group is utilized as a "therapeutic resource and the direction of the social worker."
- Community organization, planning, and development is a "preparation for work at the 'macro' level of social work practice with a particular emphasis upon the coordination, development, and utilization of resources in the community."
- Administration, management, social policy, mezzo or macro intervention is a "preparation for work at the executive and administrative level of social service agencies."
- Research is a "preparation emphasizing competence in understanding and applying scientific research methods and in the utilization of research findings in social works practice."

It can be concluded that curriculum content varies in social work programs at the graduate level. With the exception of the "generic multi-method practice", there are specialized areas of concentration.

There is some indication that suggests that past requirements for a degree in social work may be changing. Although this trend was identified in the NMS, there has been an increase in social work programs. In this reviewer's opinion, evidence prevails which is indicative of the lack of educational planning which appears to permeate the entire educational spectrum. Institutions appear to be in a

reactive instead of a proactive mode with regard to educational needs in the future.

Responses received from probation and parole agencies revealed that the overwhelming majority did not feel that degrees in social work were appropriate at the entry level. The same is true for promotion requirements among such agencies.

The survey arrives at the conclusion that "the contribution of social work to the professional preparation of correctional personnel is relatively small." This reviewer feels that information provided in the NMS certainly indicates this is accurate. However, most of the information presented to support such a conclusion was derived from the probation and parole sector of the correctional field. Other correctional areas, such as juvenile justice, were not adequately represented in the information provided. A tremendous emphasis has been placed in this particular area in recent years. Prior to formulating firm conclusions, additional data is needed from other correctional areas pertaining to degrees in social work and prerequisites for employment at the entry level. Such information could possibly alter the conclusion reached in the NMS.

Based on information provided in this section of Chapter X, social work education does not play a significant role in the "professional preparation of correctional personnel." The future contribution of course work in the social work discipline will be influenced by trends in the correctional field. Such trends will be determined by the direction taken in the correctional field with regard to treatment approaches. In any event, it is doubtful that many social work graduates will pursue a career in corrections. This, of course, is attributed to a past history of poor working conditions and the "unfavorable image of corrections."

In conclusion, it is of paramount importance for educators in the field to keep a watchful eye on future trends. The failure to do so may result in an "overproduction" of students with credentials that make them unemployable in the corrections field. The importance of educational planning is certainly apparent to this reviewer when considering the aforementioned matter.

B. Other Academic Programs Providing Professional Manpower for Corrections.

The primary focus of the NMS effort was in the social work discipline. However, there exist other disciplines which play a role in providing educated persons for positions in the criminal justice system. These particular disciplines will be briefly

expounded on in the following.

1. Psychology

A survey was conducted by leading psychologists in the field to determine "interest in the topics of crime, delinquency, and corrections." It was concluded that a significant level of interest prevailed, but only a token amount of work had been conducted in regard to course work development. In addition, data indicated that only a few institutions provided internships in the field of corrections.

The actual number of psychology graduates entering the corrections field is unknown. Available information suggests that such numbers are minimal. However, there is some evidence that the corrections field does frequently employ persons with four-year degrees in psychology. It appears to this reviewer that minimum involvement is restricted to degrees above the baccalaureate level. The NMS states that "graduate psychology students seldom enter corrections work despite openings, and that those few who enter are generally unprepared to deal with the particular problems of offenders." This is interesting in light of the correctional field drawing frequently upon persons with undergraduate degrees in psychology. Based upon the above NMS statement, these individuals are not prepared to deal with offender problems either. Generally speaking, persons employed with degrees in psychology are not properly prepared for work in the correctional system. If the need exists for psychologists in corrections, curriculum development efforts should be initiated to properly prepare students for such work.

In conclusion, the reasons referred to previously that militate against social workers seeking employment in corrections are probably applicable to psychology students. Specific reference is made to poor working conditions and the poor image of the correctional field.

2. Sociology/Criminology

This particular academic discipline has provided "the largest proportion of professionally trained personnel to corrections" over the years. The speciality area of criminology is usually found within the discipline of sociology. However, there is evidence which reflects that separate departments have emerged in criminology in recent years. Information presented in

the NMS indicates that students completing sociology/criminology graduate programs are employed primarily in probation and parole agencies and teaching positions outside the criminal justice system. It is concluded by the NMS that "the contribution of criminology/sociology programs to corrections staffing is significant especially for professional treatment positions." Although the survey does not reflect figures for students entering the police and courts components, many do enter employment in these areas. This probably attributed to the limited amount of information available concerning graduate student employment. Institutions of higher learning have experienced tremendous difficulty in tracking their former students.

Academic programs in criminology/sociology place emphasis on several different areas. These areas are identified as parole, probation, research, institutional treatment, teaching institutional-custody and correctional administration in the NMS. Program directors at various institutions felt that students were best prepared in the area of probation.

The contribution of criminology/sociology programs to the corrections field will be influenced by several factors. Such factors include "responsiveness to correctional needs as corrections redefines its treatment efforts, their ability to reflect these needs in appropriate graduate program offerings and their ability to attract and place students in positions which fulfill these needs." The NMS continues on to point out that the future of criminology will depend on the future of the treatment approach. Also, a struggle continues in the field to develop a body of knowledge applicable to the field of criminal justice. Prevailing difficulties are tied to the interdisciplinary nature of academic programs. Crime-related degree programs contain subject matter drawn from the disciplines of psychology, sociology and other traditional course work in higher education. Also, these traditional disciplines have failed to adequately respond to the needs of

3. Rehabilitation Counselor

The NMS stipulates that counselors working in the correctional field have multiple roles. It is concluded that the diverse nature of these roles dictate the need for a clear delineation of work performed by correctional counselors. It appears to this reviewer that efforts directed at job analysis are practically nonexistent for counselor positions in the field. An analysis of these positions would facilitate the development of educational

standards and the formulation of curriculum content.

This particular section of Chapter X addresses only one type of counselor--the rehabilitation counselor. The NMS determined that the "term counselor has been used loosely in corrections to refer to professionals as well as those individuals without formal educational preparation in counseling." Information gathered when the survey was conducted revealed that "approximately 80 graduate and 60 undergraduate" programs existed which supported rehabilitation counseling. These educational programs represent the resources available to support counseling needs in the correctional field. According to the NMS, graduates from rehabilitation counseling programs are preparing students for positions in corrections. In addition, the survey points out that more will probably enter the field "since greater emphasis is being placed on those offenders who are handicapped in terms of employability and cultural and educational backgrounds."

Future needs for professional counselors will probably be in the area of juvenile services. Such needs will prevail in both the institutional setting and reintegration of juvenile offenders into communities. This reviewer agrees with the future emphasis in the juvenile area. Efforts presently underway certainly substantiate the NMS projection.

The review and analysis of this section raised a particular concern to this reviewer. Specific reference is made to the lack of educational planning. Institutions of higher learning need to generate activities which focus on trends, job analysis, turnover, employment increases, etc. which is important in such planning. In short, it is suspected that such efforts have not been initiated in the academic community. There are serious implications attached to the failure of educational institutions to properly prepare students for positions in the field.

D. Volunteers and Professionals

The use of volunteers in correctional work has gained momentum over the years in the correctional field. It is brought to light in the survey that "Volunteer work in the courts area has largely centered on juvenile probation. In the broader corrections field the use has been more wide-spread covering counseling of offenders in institutions and activities, service in work-release and jail programs, institutional and community based tutoring programs for illiterates and educational marginals as well as other

'activities'." Support for the utilization of volunteers can be found in such organizations as the American Bar Association. Individuals serving in a volunteer capacity have a broad range of occupational backgrounds and "are capable of providing some of the same services as professionals."

Research conducted concerning the use of volunteers in corrections reflects the need for additional research, better selection procedures and improvements in training programs. In order to improve and strengthen the effectiveness of volunteers, the aforementioned needs must be addressed. Also, problems continue to plague the various volunteer programs which have been instituted in the criminal justice system. Specific problems have been identified in the areas of turnover, supervision and appropriate use of volunteer talents. This reviewer feels that the two most pressing problems associated with volunteer programs are the lack of the will to act and the ability to effectively organize programs.

Problems experienced in recruiting professional personnel may result in an increased dependence on volunteers and paraprofessionals. This, of course, would require additional job restructuring in the field and appropriate educational programs to prepare individuals for such positions. The NMS suggests that training and education programs for these support personnel be initiated at the associate degree level. If needs in the field continue to dictate the need for volunteers and paraprofessionals, educational institutions will need to expand their programs.

E. Conclusions and Recommendations

The field of social work makes only a moderate contribution to the criminal justice system. Future directions in the corrections area will have a direct impact on the contributions made in subsequent years. Direction in the future will depend on the emphasis placed on offender treatment. The NMS states that "the graduate social work degree may no longer be the generally recognized prerequisite for certain positions in correctional practice." The discipline of psychology will also be affected by future trends in the correctional field. Should the need for psychology oriented graduates become apparent, efforts will have to be undertaken to modify curriculum at the present time. It is also interesting to note that the disciplines of criminology and sociology may be affected in the future years. In short, graduate preparation may no longer be demanded except in the area of research.

The role of counseling in the correctional setting will determine future directions in academic disciplines. There is an existing need to ascertain what the counseling function should be in the field of corrections. Serious contemplation should be devoted to the future of incarceration and treatment in the field by institutions of higher learning. According to the NMS, "if the current disciplines do not prepare persons for new or modified functions, the corrections system may need to look elsewhere for help."

Research conducted indicates that "adversary relationships" exist among correctional professionals. The nature of corrections work "produces conflicts" according to the survey. It is further stated that "there is a two-fold challenge to the educational community: one in the training of administrators in the management of professionals; and secondly, in the training of professionals to work effectively in interdisciplinary environments."

Other problems alluded to in the NMS include the reluctance of many students to enter the correctional field, resistance to change by practitioners in the field and the questionable worth of contributions made by various academic disciplines. It can be concluded that significant issues need to be addressed by academicians and operational personnel in the correctional field.

In conclusion, the survey states that "the proper recruitment, selection, and training of volunteers (and paraprofessionals) is essential to the functioning of professionals in the correctional setting." This reviewer would broaden the statement made in the NMS to include the entire spectrum of human resource development. Career development, salaries/wages, education, etc. should also be included. Recommendations made in the survey are included in the following section entitled "Reviewer Conclusions."

Reviewer Conclusions

Significant problems pervade the correctional field and the educational system which prepares individuals for various occupational positions. This reviewer's analysis of information presented in the NMS substantiates the aforementioned conclusion. The preparedness of individuals graduating from academic programs to enter the corrections field is questionable. The lack of role definition for correctional counselors, adherence to traditional curriculum, lack of educational planning and resistance to change exemplify prevailing problems in the field. Only a concerted effort to overcome these conditions will reduce such problems to more manageable proportions. Hopefully, the following recommendations made in the NMS and by this reviewer will promote future activities designed to resolve existing conditions. It should be

noted that recommendations made are in priority order established by this reviewer.

1. LEAA should organize a professional educational readiness committee which will work closely with correctional treatment program developers and with experimental programs now in progress (e.g., Butner) and with probation and parole groups. The purpose of this committee would be to develop occupational requirements and corresponding educational programs to fulfill these needs for professional personnel in light of the anticipated changes.
2. The study committee effort should also include consideration of the training and utilization of volunteers and the education of paraprofessionals in new or modified correctional programs, in order that roles and tasks auxiliary or complementary to professionals can be developed at the same time.
3. LEAA should fund a study to determine the feasibility of developing the professional correctional generalist and the professional probation/parole generalist whose training would draw from the contributions of many disciplines but whose repertoire of professional talents would be developed exclusively for the unique needs of the correctional system.
- *4. Research efforts designed to clearly delineate out various counselor roles should be supported by the LEAA. Such efforts will facilitate recruitment, selection, training, education, etc. in the field. The results of such efforts will have a direct impact on all facets of human resource development.
- *5. LEAA should support efforts designed to improve and strengthen educational planning in crime-related degree programs in colleges and universities.
- *6. A pilot effort should be supported by LEAA which will address the prevailing problems associated with turnover, supervision, and talent utilization in correctional volunteer programs.

*Priority developed by Reviewer.

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
ATTACHMENT

VOLUME Five
NEED PRIORITIES BY NMS CHAPTERS

EXAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED
PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

Chapter X

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*Priority developed by reviewer

1. None identified.
2. The development of a generic planning model for human resource development is underway in OCJET. This effort is being conducted by Sam Houston State University, Michigan State University and the University of South Florida.
3. Same as 2 above. Development of a generic planning model for human resource development.

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS
ATTACHMENT

VOLUME
NEED PRIORITIES BY NMS CHAPTERS

EXAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED
PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

- *4. Research efforts designed to clearly delineate out the various counselor roles should be supported by the LEAA. Such efforts will facilitate recruitment, selection, training, education, etc. in the field. The results of such efforts will have a direct impact on all facets of human resource development.
- *5. Leaa should support efforts designed to improve and strengthen educational planning in crime-related degree programs in colleges and universities.
- *6. A pilot effort should be supported by LEAA which addresses the prevailing problems associated with turnover, supervision, and talent utilization in correctional volunteer programs.

- 4. Same as 2 and 3 above. Development of a generic planning model for human resource development.
- 5. Same as 2, 3 and 4 above. Development of a generic planning model for human resource development.
- 6. None identified.

*Priority developed by reviewer

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ATTACHMENT

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NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS

ATTACHMENT

Volume III
NEEDS PRIORITIES

The executive summary of Volume Three on corrections identifies six critical personnel priorities that pertain to correction efforts on behalf of children and youth:

Staffing

1. Probation and parole staffs, including both case workers and support personnel.

Education

2. Treatment and educational staffs, in both adult and juvenile facilities.

Training

3. Probation and parole officers
4. Juvenile corrections personnel
5. Managerial personnel
6. Supervisors

REVIEWER PRIORITIES

1. Deinstitutionalization
2. Restitution
3. Youth advocacy

EXAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

The major activities of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) in the correctional area are focused on deinstitutionalization and the development of alternatives to incarceration.

It is the intent of Congress, as expressed in the legislative history of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (JJDP) Act of 1974, as amended, that all youth presently incarcerated (except about 10-15% -- those who have committed dangerous/violent offenses) be deinstitutionalized. Earlier OJJDP action initiatives (deinstitutionalization of status offenders and restitution) were first steps in this effort to carry out the JJDP Act mandates in this area. The OJJDP recently began Phase II of its deinstitutionalization effort -- which encompasses other non-violent/dangerous youth than status offenders -- through undertaking a large-scale training program, the audience of which includes correctional officials and personnel.

In addition to these activities, the Office also has underway numerous research, evaluation, program development and technical assistance activities related to deinstitutionalization of youth.

REVIEWER CONCLUSION SECTION

It is difficult to relate to the priorities without providing a frame of reference in terms of which to provide priorities, so we begin with a statement of our view of the goals immediately appropriate to the field. In so doing we must relate to juvenile corrections as a process rather than as categories of agency employees.

The three priority goals of training for juvenile corrections, at the present time we would argue, are youth advocacy, restitution, and deinstitutionalization. Therefore from our perspective manpower innovations should be planned to further those rather than other

goals. It appears to be true that the employees that have priority, either in terms of numbers, education, or training are those in a position to aid achievement of the three priority goals -- those personnel who can provide advocacy, assist with ~~restitution~~ and decrease use of institutions by developing and using programs that present to the least restrictive alternative appropriate to the situation. A second priority are employees who work at the front of the system where the largest part of youth are to be encountered.

In terms of manpower categories the priorities might be stated in the following order:

1. employees of community-based programs;
2. probation staffs or agencies that combine probation and parole services;
3. parole agencies (under special conditions stated below); and
4. juvenile correctional personnel (under special conditions stated below).

Each of the above categories ~~is~~ discussed separately.

Employees of Community-based programs

There is no consensus about what the educational attainment of such employees should be in terms of number of years of formal education. Many would argue that a requirement of specific formal degrees would eliminate many employees who work best with children in trouble. Further, a high level of formal education would operate against making such programs available to large numbers just because of costs.

CONTINUED

3 OF 4

Training of employees of community-based programs is an on-going part of their operation, although often carried out informally. More adequate training should be encouraged. We present our view of what "adequate" refers to in a later paragraph.

Probation staffs or staffs of agencies that combine probation and parole services.

Agencies that carry out a probation function are in a strategic position to use restitution as an alternative to incarceration, provide advocacy, and minimize penetration. They carry out official functions and therefore should have formal educations appropriate to their role and should have the advantage of training at entry to their jobs and while carrying them out. We will return to what that formal education and subsequent training should be.

Great care should be taken not to eliminate through educational requirements others who have a natural talent for work in this area. Continued use of paraprofessionals seems indicated. However, greater efforts should be made to help them upgrade their formal education and their skills through training programs.

Parole Agencies, Under Special Conditions

Secure care has not and will not disappear: there is a small percentage of youths who will be held securely because they are dangerous to others. (We do not here discuss what such care should be or who should carry it out). We do argue, though, that support of manpower should be given to jurisdictions that are providing secure care in an

appropriate manner and need help in increasing skills in assisting young men and women in integrating themselves appropriately when returning to the community.

Juvenile Correctional Personnel under Special Conditions

While much secure care could be provided by community-based agencies, jurisdictions that minimize secure care in appropriate ways should not be discouraged from recruiting appropriately educated personnel or providing appropriate training on the job. That education and training should have as its focus the eventual return of youth to the community.

The kind of formal education needed for carrying our correctional roles is a subject of debate. Clarity is provided through recognition that the clientele of juvenile correctional institutions should be limited to 10-15% of youths presently incarcerated, consistent with Congressional intent, as expressed in relation to the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as amended. Therefore, first priority must be given to community-based programming. Such education should be oriented to the assumptions, evidence, and experience obtained in attempts to serve children and youth better through advocacy, and deinstitutionalization--recognizing the need for secure care of a few.

In-service training should not concentrate exclusively on interpersonal relationships, although that content should be continued. The need at the present time is assisting staffs in how to intervene in the official system and in the community to help children and

youth directly.

Equally important is training in how to encourage development of needed resources and how to encourage opportunities for children and youth to function successfully in the communities where they live or to which they will return.

VOLUME THREE
CORRECTIONS
(CHILDREN AND YOUTH)

Chapter II. Current Manpower Assessment

A. An Overview of Correctional Manpower

Finding's

1. Juvenile institutions employed 43,000 Full-Time Equivalent employees in 1974.
 - a. 29,000, or two-thirds of this total, were employees of state juvenile institutions.
 - b. 14,000 were employed by locally-operated facilities such as detention centers or group homes.
2. Publically-funded community-based juvenile residential facilities operated by a non-governmental agency were not surveyed.
3. Delinquency cases disposed of by juvenile courts--including status offenders by excluding traffic cases--rose by 64 percent between 1965 and 1974, but the number confined in state juvenile institutions remained stable between 1965 and 1970, then dropped sharply in the following three years. In 1974, it was 35 percent lower than in 1965.
4. Employment at state juvenile institutions increased about 41 percent from 1965 to 1974.
5. Although the populations of state juvenile institutions had declined during which staffs increased, 38.5 percent of the administrators of such facilities in ten states in 1975-76 told NMS staff during field visits that their "most serious manpower problems" was an inadequate number of authorized positions (this proportion was smaller than that pertaining to state adult institutions or probation and parole or given by sheriffs). Inadequate training or personnel was listed as the "most serious manpower problem" of state juvenile institutions, a proportion larger than reported for any other category of facilities.
- * 6. The report concludes: "Despite the inherent limitations of attitudinal questions of this type, the pronounced contrast in patterns of response between kinds of juvenile institutions and other categories of correctional administrators appears consistent with our overview of recent trends in correctional workloads and staffing. Juvenile institutions experienced a very substantial reduction in their resident populations between 1965 and 1974, concurrent with a growth in staff employment. It may be assumed that these trends have ameliorated earlier manpower shortages in these institutions, as perceived by their administrators. Hence, the most critical problems in these agencies are more likely to be those resulting from qualitative personnel deficiencies.

B. State Correctional Institutions for Adults

1. content is not applicable

C. Local Jails

1. content is not applicable

D. Juvenile Corrections

1. Nearly 45,000 juveniles were being held in custody in 829 separate facilities on June 30, 1974. About 30,000 were in State-operated facilities. Local governments were providing care to the remainder.
2. "Both state and local agencies in some states also operate community-based halfway houses and group homes. However, most of the latter facilities--as well as foster home arrangements--are privately operated under contract with the state or local correctional agencies." The latter facilities have not been covered in this research.
3. The populations residing in all categories of facilities except three declined between 1971 and 1974. State shelters and the halfway houses and group homes sponsored by state and local governments increased in numbers of residents.
4. Over the same period employment in juvenile facilities remained fairly stable at the state level and that in local-government facilities increased significantly.
5. The disparity between decline in juvenile populations and stability or increase in staff cannot be explained satisfactorily.
6. In 1973 the child care workers outnumbered other categories of employees in detention centers and shelters, reception or diagnostic centers, and training centers. At the ranches, camps, farms, halfway houses, and group homes educational and treatment personnel collectively were more numerous.
7. "Only 36 percent of the heads of juvenile correctional facilities reported that an inadequate number of authorized positions was their 'most serious manpower problem,' while almost as high a proportion (32 percent) identified inadequate training or staff."
8. Administrators reported that an increase of 15 percent in total employment would permit them "to fulfill effectively all the duties and responsibilities" of their agency. Relatively they reported a greater need for treatment personnel (29 percent) than for child care workers (12 percent).

- * 9. By 1975 the staffing levels of state training schools recommended by the NCCD had been achieved for treatment workers on an overall basis. The overall ratio of children per total institutional staff was well below the ratio of 3:1 proposed by the ACA in 1966.

10. "Thus, the latter comparison--as well as the administrators' own responses--both indicate a generally favorable overall staffing level for the state training centers."

E. Probation and Parole Agencies

1. The material presented does not always distinguish between services to children and to adults. Only the relevant comments directly pertaining to children's services are summarized here.
2. In field interviews with heads of adult and juvenile offices in ten states administrators reported manpower shortages in both juvenile and adult agencies. The manpower shortage in adult programs appeared to be more extensive. Among agencies for juveniles there is no consistent pattern of manpower shortage.
- * 3. Case unit ratios were lower for adult parole and juvenile agencies, than for adult probation. In general, the orientation of most agencies is towards somewhat closer supervision of juveniles and parolees, and minimum supervision of adult probationers."
- * 4. Movement of status offenders has shifted a growing proportion of juvenile corrections work load from state institutions to the community.
5. Administrators of both adult and juvenile institutions reported a greater relative need for treatment specialists than for line custodial personnel.
- * 6. Based on comparison with professionally recommended staffing ratios, the most serious personnel shortages, in the agencies examined, were found in probation and parole agencies, and among treatment specialists in all categories of correctional institutions--particularly in local jails.

F. Conclusions

1. On the other hand, such trends as movement of status offenders out of state training institutions and deinstitutionalization, have shifted a growing proportion of the juvenile corrections work load from state institutions to the community.
2. Administrators of both adult and juvenile institutions reported a greater relative need for treatment specialists than for line custodial personnel.
3. Based on comparison with professionally recommended staffing ratios, the most serious personnel shortages, in the agencies examined, were found in probation and parole agencies, and among treatment specialists in all categories of correctional institutions--particularly in local jails.

Chapter III. The Outlook For
Corrections Employment:
Manpower Projections to 1985

A. Introduction

1. Content is not applicable

B. The Projection Scenario

1. Content is not applicable

C. Key Trends Affecting Corrections Employment

1. Content is not applicable

D. Projections of Corrections Employment

1. Juvenile institutions, are expected to experience very little net growth--only 12 percent between 1980 and 1985, with reductions in employment in state juvenile institutions, such as training centers, offset by continued growth at the local levels.
2. Child care workers. Employment of child care workers, on the other hand, is projected to increase by only 10 percent between 1974 and 1985, as a result of the projected continued trend towards deinstitutionalization for certain categories of juvenile offenders, and the consequent slow net growth in overall employment in juvenile institutions.

E. Assessment of Key Correctional Developments

1. The National Assessment of Juvenile Corrections reported a total average daily population of 5,663 juveniles in more than 50 separate state-related community-based residential facilities during 1974. These accounted for 17.7 percent of the total number of juveniles in state residential corrections programs. The total covered both privately operated and state operated programs, and contrasted with a much lower LEAA/Census estimate of 1,218 youths assigned to state-operated community centers alone in 1973.

Although the above data sources are not completely comparable, they indicate a much greater relative utilization of community centers for juvenile programs (17.7 percent) than for adult inmates (4.8 percent).

2. Nearly one-half (46 percent) of the executives of both adult and juvenile institutions reported that they were currently administering community-based facilities or halfway houses. However, a somewhat greater proportion of heads of juvenile agencies, 39 percent, reported that they expected increased staffing needs for either existing or planned community programs in the next two years, as

compared with 31 percent of the heads of adult correctional institutions.

3. In contrast to the relatively limited and supplementary role of community-based institutions for adults, these programs have been advanced as a major alternative to institutionalization in the case of juveniles, on the grounds that they are more humane, more effective and less costly. The sharp decline in the number of juvenile inmates in state training centers--from nearly 41,000 in 1969 to 25,000 in 1974--combined with indicators of growth in the community-based programs, suggest that this trend has, in fact, occurred. Moreover, as noted above, nearly two-fifths of the 500 juvenile corrections executives responding to the NMS survey in 1975, anticipated an increased use of community-based programs in the next two years.
4. The limited available evidence on results of deinstitutionalization of juveniles is still not conclusive.
5. From a long-range manpower standpoint, a continued trend towards deinstitutionalization clearly implies a reduction in staffs of state operated training centers--after some period of adjustment, but an increase in personnel needs for largely private community residential centers, as well as for juvenile probation activities. However, no comprehensive data are available on personnel of contract-operated community facilities.
6. These programs tend to be more frequent for adult inmates than for juvenile inmates. The NMS surveys of correctional administrators found that nearly 58 percent of state adult correctional institutions and 36 percent of juvenile institutions operated work release programs were in effect in 45 percent of the adult institutions, and 38 percent of the juvenile institutions.

F. Conclusions

1. The outlook for juvenile corrections suggests a continued movement away from large state institutions, towards community-based residential and non-residential programs. This trend, in combination with the projected decline in the proportion of teenaged youth in the population, will result in a relatively small net increase of 12 percent in total employment in juvenile institutions, entirely at the local level.

Chapter IV. Recruitment And Retention of Corrections Employees

A. Introduction

1. Content is not applicable

B. Recent Recruitment and Turnover Experience

1. It is noteworthy that about 1 of 8 administrators of juvenile institutions, did identify high personnel turnover as "their most serious manpower problem," rather than other possible responses, such as an inadequate number of authorized positions or inadequate staff training.
2. The NMS report for juvenile corrections notes that: "Turnover for houseparents is lower now than in previous years. Strains in the economy have reduced movement within the usually volatile position of houseparent."
3. Among juvenile institutions, the frequency of reported recruitment and turnover problems was lower than for adult institutions in all occupational categories. Child care workers were most frequently identified as posing recruitment and turnover problems among the four major occupational categories.
4. The FY 74 turnover rate for child care workers was 27 percent. The rate, when related to aggregate employment estimates for the occupations, corresponded to a total volume of new hires in FY 1974 of 6,000 child care workers.
5. Personnel turnover rates tended to vary inversely with agency size.
6. The quit rate of 27.2 percent for child care workers in 1974, based on the NMS, can be compared with a total separation rate among child care workers, or "cottage parents," of 28.3 percent in 1967, as reported in the Joint Commission survey.
7. Salary rates of line correctional employees continue substantially below those of line personnel in police and sheriffs' agencies, as indicated by the following comparisons for 1975, based on the NMS surveys.

	Median Minimum Entry Salary, 1975
Police officers	
Deputy sheriffs	\$9,914
Probation and parole officers	9,540
Correctional officers, adult institutions	9,533
Child care workers, juvenile institutions	8,328
	7,798

8. Child care workers. "Two primary factors contribute to turnover. One, as could be expected, is the opportunity to get better jobs. The other is the poor career progression available for personnel in key occupations...especially for those having positions in institutional facilities. In community-based programs, reasons for turnover tend to be more program specific. The variety of reasons offered includes intensity of the work, lack of regular time off, lack of seeing very many juveniles become successful, disinterest in the program, change in management, and requirement for longer term program commitment by staff than previously."

C. Projected Recruitment Needs

1. The projections, indicated a sharp reduction in annual recruitment needs for all three line correctional occupations during the 1975-80 period, as compared with FY 1974. The reduction will be proportionately greatest (35 percent) in the case of child case workers, as a result of the very limited net employment growth expected in this occupation.
2. These projections, on balance, suggest a generally favorable recruitment climate for correctional agencies during the coming 10-year period, particularly when allowance is made for the continued growth in the Nation's labor force and for the rising educational level of new labor force entrants. These agencies may therefore be in a position to be more selective in personnel recruitment standards, and with the prospect of a more stable work force, may be able to place greater emphasis upon the quality of both entry-level and in-service training.

D. Employment and Recruitment of Minorities and Women

1. The available statistics from the Census Employee Characteristics Survey do indicate that a relatively large proportion (33.7 percent) of custodial personnel in contact with juveniles are women, as compared to much smaller proportions of women in adult institutions (7.5 percent) or in sheriffs' jails (17.3 percent)--the latter including detention facilities for both adults and juveniles.
2. The proportions of both minority group members and of women are significantly higher among administrators of juvenile institutions than either among heads of adult institutions or of probation and parole agencies.

Chapter V. Education For Correctional Occupations

A. Introduction

1. In summary, the primary focus of this chapter is on the actual levels of education currently evident and on the effects of various efforts to upgrade these levels. Discussion on the relationship between education and performance is confined to existing occupational requirements that suggest the need for certain levels of educational attainment.

B. Assessment of the Educational Attainment of Correctional Personnel Standards and Levels

1. Responses from executives of juvenile institutions revealed higher [than adult] agency standards. Although 19 percent had either not established educational standards or had set standards or had set standards below the recommended minimum, 28 percent had gone beyond the Commission's recommendation of a high school diploma. Slightly under 18 percent of the agencies responded that some college level work was required for entrance as a line juvenile worker and 11 percent mandated the attainment of a college degree. This may be an indication that the higher standards set by juvenile institutions reflect child care workers as a member of the treatment team, whereas the adult correctional officer's role is more likely to be custody and security.

2. Table V-2
Current Agency Minimum Educational Requirements

Minimum Education Required	Juvenile Institution (Percent)
No minimum required	12.1
Less than high school diploma	7.1
High school diploma	52.0
1 year of college	3.1
2 or 3 years of college	14.8
Bachelor's degree	0.3
Total	100.0 (n=576)

Source National Manpower Survey, Executive Survey, 1975

3. Juvenile corrections child care workers. In the past it has been suggested that, in view of the better working conditions, better salaries, and generally higher status accruing to employees in juvenile corrections, it has been possible to recruit better educated personnel in that area in comparison with the adult corrections system. This judgment appears to be borne out by the evidence.
4. In 1974, the average educational attainment of the juvenile custody officer was somewhat over 13 years, or one year beyond a high school education. Thus, the average juvenile custody officer can be said to be better educated than the average adult corrections officer by approximately one year of education.
5. The proportion of juvenile custody officers failing to meet the minimum standard of a high school education is comparatively small.
6. A significantly larger proportion of juvenile custody officers have earned degrees beyond the bachelor's than in adult corrections.
7. Well over 60 percent of juvenile supervisors have an educational attainment beyond high school.
8. Overall, better than 80 percent of juvenile supervisors meet or exceed a minimum standard of a high school education.
9. Among juvenile custody supervisors, the most frequently held degree is the bachelor's constituting almost three-fourths of all degrees held. There is a correspondingly smaller proportion of master's degrees held in comparison with line personnel. However, this is offset by a substantially larger proportion of supervisors holding a professional degree, a proportion far larger than that found among the other correctional occupations so far examined.
10. Juvenile corrections line workers and supervisors are generally younger than their counterparts in adult corrections. The average age of this group is estimated to be about 37 years, or 2 years younger than the average adult officer or supervisor. The average educational attainment of this group is slightly less than 14 years of education, in comparison with the average of somewhat more than 12 years of education in adult corrections.
11. The proportion of line workers and supervisors with less than 12 years of education increases steadily as the age of the respondent increases. It would appear that the educational base of personnel in juvenile corrections is not only higher than in adult corrections but is shifting much more rapidly toward higher educational levels.
12. There has been, and will continue to be, significant improvement in the overall educational attainment of juvenile custody personnel. The magnitude in this improvement is also interpreted to be somewhat greater than in adult corrections, where there appears to be a larger and more stable proportion of custody personnel at or around the 12 year educational level. Increases in educational attainment

due to the retirement of older personnel are also likely to be more significant than in adult corrections.

Thus, again barring radical changes in entry and turnover patterns it is reasonable to assume a significant overall improvement in the educational attainment of juvenile corrections custody personnel.

13. With respect to the pattern of attainment of newly employed child care workers, there has been a major shift away from the high school educational level degrees. In the group of child care workers employed prior to 1960 the proportion with better than 12 years of education was only 7.5 percent. However, among officers employed subsequent to 1960, the proportion with 13 or more years of education increased dramatically, so that among those employed between 1970 and 1974, over half have some education beyond 12 years and over a quarter have attained 16 or more years of education.
 14. Based upon these figures it can be suggested that new juvenile corrections child care workers are increasingly oriented toward degrees in higher education, and that improvement in entry-level educational attainment is much more rapid than in adult corrections.
 15. The rate of in-service upgrading in juvenile corrections appears to be comparable to that found in adult corrections.
- C. Assessment of the Educational Attainment of Probation and Parole Officers: Standards and Levels
1. Content is not applicable
- D. Assessment of Correctional Treatment Personnel: Standards and Levels
1. A large proportion of treatment personnel in juvenile corrections employed fail to meet the minimum requirements of 16 years of education. In juvenile corrections, the proportion below this level is 44.6 percent. A significant proportion of correctional treatment personnel can be regarded as having an educational attainment below that thought to be minimally necessary by the various national commissions and associations and also the level suggested by the occupational analysis.
- E. Efforts To Upgrade the Educational Attainment of Adult Corrections Officers
1. Content is not applicable
- F. Efforts To Upgrade the Educational Attainment of Juvenile Corrections Officers
1. Juvenile corrections agencies appear to anticipate a greater level of educational upgrading merely on the basis of entry-level requirements.

2. Eighty-seven percent of juvenile executives responding indicated that new child care workers should be encouraged to continue their education toward a college degree.
3. Juvenile corrections agencies are slightly less likely than adult agencies to utilize education as a criterion for promotion and more likely to permit time off to attend classwork. Thus, it may be suggested that juvenile agencies are less likely to provide concrete incentives thought to be most effective but are more willing to facilitate through other means the continued education of their custody staff.
4. The total proportion of those with less than one full year of additional educational credit can be estimated to be between 7 and 10 percent of the entire population of juvenile officers and supervisors.
5. In 1974 the proportion of juvenile officers and supervisors that had attained at least one additional year of education after entry was 23.1 percent. The group most likely to have increased its educational attainment was the group with better than a high school education but less than 16 years of education at entry. The groups that were least likely to have increased their educational attainment were those with exactly 12 years or 16 years of education.

G. Efforts To Upgrade the Educational Attainment of Probation and Parole Personnel

1. Content is not applicable

H. The Impact of LEEP Upon the Educational Upgrading of Correctional Personnel

1. Comparing the two areas of adult and juvenile corrections, it appears that juvenile corrections personnel were generally more likely to participate in LEEP than adult corrections personnel.
2. In juvenile corrections less than 20 percent of all those raising their attainment one year had participated in LEEP. Thus, although the impact of LEEP can be regarded as significant, it appears that within corrections a large majority of personnel have raised their educational attainment without this assistance.

I. Summary of Major Findings and Recommendations

1. Juvenile corrections child care workers are better educated than either adult corrections officers and adult corrections supervisors with an average attainment of around 13 years of education.
2. Juvenile corrections supervisors, however, have an average attainment of 14 years, which is only slightly below the level of attainment found among juvenile corrections treatment personnel.

3. Juvenile corrections appears to be moving toward higher educational levels at a faster rate than adult corrections. Whereas the educational attainment of adult corrections officers remains heavily oriented to the 12-year high school education level, juvenile corrections appears to have increasingly recruited from among those with 13 or more years of education.
4. Juvenile corrections had made a more rapid movement toward higher educational levels than adult corrections. However, the principal reason for this appears to be the more rapid improvement in the educational attainment of newly-employed personnel rather than a more concerted effort to upgrade personnel already employed.
5. Juvenile officers in the Western regions tend to be better educated than officers employed in Eastern regions
6. In both adult and juvenile corrections over 15 percent of those employed in treatment positions reported no college education at all.
7. LEAA and the educational community, together with the adult and juvenile correctional facilities should examine jointly the current procurement programs, educational opportunities, and in-service training programs for the purpose of accelerating the educational level of attainment of adult and juvenile corrections treatment personnel. Given the urgency of juvenile needs and the requirement to strengthen juvenile services, first priority should be given to the juvenile treatment group.
8. In pursuing the above objective, specific emphasis in educational and training programs should be given to the development of those skills and knowledges which are directly related to the counseling and guidance function as it applies to the solution of juvenile problems. Most of these skill and knowledge requirements, some of which have been identified in Volume VIII of this report, indicate a need for college level preparation, supplemented by graduate study. In the examination of current programs against these occupational requirements, it is also recommended that any revised courses also reflect further impacts which changed institutional or community-based correctional treatment programs, based on new correctional strategies, may have on position requirements and occupational standards.

Chapter VI. Training For Correctional Occupations

Introduction

1. The purposes or goals that are being pursued through the provision of training must also be considered. A number of possible goals of a general nature can be suggested. The first and most obvious is to assure that personnel can and will carry out assigned duties within the general guidelines set down by the agency that employs them. This objective involves the provision of basic skills, having reference only to the requirements of a specific job within a specific agency at a given time.

A second goal of training involves more than the specific job the person being trained will immediately perform. It extends to the potential role of the trainee in the course of his or her career. The purpose of training in this context relates to the development of general as well as specific skills that can be utilized across a wide range of occupational positions. This objective may be described as general career development, referring to a broad category of skills required for future as well as present duties.

A third and more general purpose of training relates to the concept of system or organizational development. Under this conceptualization, training is regarded as more than the preparation of individuals. It is viewed as a device for enhancing the general potential of the organization itself.

A. Existing Training Standards

1. Contents not applicable.

B. Training for Line Personnel in Adult Corrections

1. Contents not applicable

C. Training for Juvenile Child Care Workers

1. In juvenile corrections, the level of training provided is significantly lower than in adult corrections. Thus it is necessary to consider the overall pattern of training before examining the entry-level and in-service components separately.
2. Provision of training. Twenty-eight percent of all juvenile correctional agencies in 1975 provided no formal entry-level or in-service training to their personnel. The remaining 72 percent of the agencies provided some form of training as follows: 43 percent of all agencies provided both formal entry-level and in-service training, 21 percent provided formal in-service training only, and 8 percent provided entry-level training only. In short, the overall pattern in juvenile corrections suggests a significant lack of training effort. However, in comparison with the available information relating to training provided prior to 1975, these data indicate small but possibly significant gains.
3. Smaller agencies, those employing fewer than 75, represent the principal area of difficulty with respect to the provision of training. Apart from a generally low level of training, evidenced by the fact that only 68 percent of the agencies provide any form of training, agencies of this size tend to provide both forms of training. Among the larger agencies the likelihood that both forms of training are provided is significantly higher than in smaller agencies, and the incidence of no training, or only one form of training, is significantly lower.
4. Approximately 79 percent of all child care workers are employed in agencies providing some form of training. Of these, the largest number are in agencies providing both entry-level and in-service training. However, 22 percent are employed in agencies providing only one form of training, most frequently in-service training.
5. Types of training provided in the various types of juvenile corrections agencies surveyed by the NMS. Although in some cases the number of agencies of a given type in the sample may not be representative to the entire class of juvenile agencies, the pattern noted is indicative of variations in training effort among juvenile agencies in general.
6. The pattern suggested is that training is more likely to be provided by the more secure facilities such as detention centers, training schools, ranches, camps, and farms. Less training is provided by juvenile shelters, halfway houses, group homes, and non-residential programs. This factor clarifies the finding that the latter agencies tend to be rather small.

7. The type of training provided also appears to vary according to the level of security maintained. The more secure facilities tend to provide both entry and in-service training more often than the less secure agencies. However, significant proportions of all types of agencies provide only in-service training. Agencies in which entry-level training is the only form provided are relatively rare in juvenile corrections. However, this policy appears to be more often found in juvenile detention centers and halfway houses than in any other type of agency.
8. In summary, the evidence suggests that size of agency and level of security are critical variables with respect to the type of training provided. This is probably attributable to the fact that the smaller agencies tend to have fewer resources and less flexibility of staffing of the sort required for adequate training programs. It may also be possible that more secure facilities have a more stable and regularized organizational and operational structure that permits the development of training programs.
9. Entry-level training. Approximately 50 percent of juvenile corrections agencies provide entry-level training to new child care workers. Although the largest proportion of these programs are in agencies providing both entry and in-service training in about 8 percent of all agencies entry-level is the only form of training provided.
10. Among the agencies providing entry-level training, over 90 percent require this training of all new personnel. Approximately 5 percent of these agencies waive the entry-level training requirement for child care workers with prior experience in juvenile corrections. Only about 4 percent of these agencies provide training on a selective basis.
11. Such training is provided almost exclusively at the facility where the new child care worker is employed. Only a small proportion of agencies utilize centralized training facilities, such as regional or state training institutions, and an even smaller proportion use local educational facilities or other agencies.

The pattern in the location of entry-level training is not expected to change significantly in the next two years, although the direction of the changes anticipated by agency executives surveyed by NMS are similar to those noted for adult corrections. The executives indicate that there should be a moderate decline in the utilization of the facility where a new child care worker is employed for entry-level training. The responses also forecast an increase in the utilization of state and regional facilities, and the use of the facilities of other correctional agencies. Most significant is the magnitude of increase expected in the use of

local educational facilities. Although the number of agencies involved is small, the responding executives indicate a doubling of the use of this resource within two years.

12. Duration of entry-level training. The estimated average length is approximately 30 hours. The smaller agencies appear to be devoting the least amount of time for this purpose. However, the difference between the smaller agencies and the other agencies providing training is relatively slight.
13. Examination of the distribution of personnel among the agencies suggests that the picture is somewhat better than is apparent from the agency data alone. However, the general pattern does not significantly alter the conclusion that entry-level training is neither widely nor extensively provided in juvenile corrections.
14. With the exception of training schools, the duration of training provided does not vary significantly among different types of agencies.
15. Given the uniformly low level of training indicated in the data, it would be superfluous to attempt a detailed assessment based upon fixed standards.
16. Content of entry-level training. The heaviest coverage of training topics for child care workers is in the areas of custody, agency policy, and security. Beyond this, moderate coverage is provided for such topics as report writing, counseling, and child psychology; and a less amount is provided for law, race relations, drug and alcohol treatment, sex education, and vocational counseling. This pattern is maintained with minor exceptions across all sizes of agencies.
17. Although custody and policy-related topics are provided most frequently by all types of agencies, they are most often covered in juvenile detention facilities and juvenile ranches, camps, and farms. Counseling techniques are more frequently covered in agencies other than detention facilities, particularly among training schools and halfway houses. Topics such as law and adolescent and child psychology are uniformly among the topics provided with less frequency by all types of agencies. However, despite the variations noted above, the magnitude and relative priority of training coverage does not appear to reflect major differences among types of agencies.
18. In-service training. In 1975, approximately 64 percent of all juvenile corrections agencies provided some form of in-service training to their experienced child care workers. Approximately 70 percent of these agencies provided this training in addition to an entry-level program. In approximately 20 percent of all

agencies, in-service training is the only form of training provided. Thus, juvenile agencies appear to place greater reliance on in-service training than adult corrections agencies, and are generally more likely to provide in-service than entry-level training.

19. The proportion of child care workers receiving in-service training in agencies providing such training is considerably larger than in adult corrections.
20. It can be estimated that only about one-half of all child care workers actually receive in-service training during a given year.
21. The primary location of in-service training is the juvenile facility itself.
22. Duration of in-service training. The average duration of in-service training provided was approximately 35 hours in 1975. This is slightly more than the estimated average of 30 hours provided in entry-level training programs, and considerably less than the average duration estimated for adult correctional officers.
23. There appears to be relatively little variation among the various types of agencies.
24. Content of in-service training. The pattern of topics covered in in-service training appears to be different from that noted in the case of entry-level training. Although the overall hierarchy of topics is maintained, in a number of cases certain topics are more often covered in in-service than in entry-level programs. The clearest example is counseling techniques, which is provided in almost 80 percent of in-service programs. By contrast, this topic is covered in entry-level programs by only 66 percent of the agencies. Department policies, covered in almost all entry-level programs, is provided by only 67 percent of the in-service programs. Finally, topics related to child and adolescent psychology are provided by approximately 40 percent of the entry-level programs, but are covered by 64 percent of agencies providing in-service training. These differences suggest that in-service training, in addition to being more widely provided than entry-level, is also more diversified in content. However, an examination of other training topics covered with a high degree of frequency--supervision of juveniles, management of disruptive behavior, and maintenance of discipline--suggest that in-service programs remain heavily oriented toward custody and security topics.
25. In-service programs involve considerably more variation across types of agencies. Juvenile detention facilities appear to emphasize training in such topics as the supervision of juveniles, counseling techniques, alcohol and drug treatment programs, and vocational counseling. They also provide more coverage of legal topics than the other types of agencies. Halfway houses and group homes appear to provide training in counseling techniques, child

and adolescent psychology, sex education, and vocational counseling slightly more often than the other juvenile facilities although the proportions remain extremely low in all agencies. At the same time, they provide training in the control of disruptive behavior, discipline, report writing, medical treatment, legal topics, and race relations less frequently than the other agencies. The more secure institutions--training schools, and ranch camp and farm facilities--appear to be similar in terms of their training coverage, although training schools train in legal topics and topics related to the maintenance of discipline and the supervision of juveniles less often than the ranch, camp, or farm facilities. The latter appear to cover psychological topics less often than any of the other type of juvenile agency.

26. As in the case of entry-level training, the coverage of topics in in-service training closely matches the priorities suggested by the executives.

X 27. Major findings relating to training for child care workers. In summary, the major findings derived from the analysis so far are as follows:

There appears to have been relatively little growth in the amount of training provided in juvenile corrections in the last 7 to 10 years.

Training levels, in terms of number of agencies providing training, remain significantly low, both for entry-level training and for in-service training.

The duration of the training provided remains far below suggested standards. Only a small proportion of agencies meet or exceed the minimum training standard of 100 hours for entry-level training standard of 100 hours for entry-level training, and less than 50 percent of agencies providing in-service training meet or exceed the minimum standard of 40 hours.

The location of training is primarily the employing agency, although in-service training programs appear to utilize a somewhat broader range of facilities than entry-level programs.

The content of the training provided generally conforms to both the relative priorities of juvenile corrections executives and to the primary skills and knowledge required of child care workers.

X The content of the training itself appears to be heavily oriented toward primary custodial, policy, and security topics.

X On the basis of these findings, it can be suggested that the overall condition of training in juvenile corrections is one of serious weakness with respect to the incidence of provision and in the duration of the training provided. This in turn strongly implies

that, despite the apparent congruence of training content to the demands of the occupation, the training itself is of doubtful value, considering the limited amount of time devoted to it. In addition, the significant number of agencies providing no training whatsoever further aggravates the deficiency in this area.

D. Training for Probation and Parole Officers

- X 1. In general, juvenile probation agencies are more likely to provide training than adult agencies. In adult probation, 36 percent of the agencies do not offer training, while among juvenile agencies this proportion is 25 percent. Among agencies in which both adult and juvenile offenders are served, the proportion not providing training is also 25 percent.
2. A larger proportion of juvenile than adult probation agencies provide both entry-level and in-service training. However, in agencies providing probation services to both adult and juvenile offenders, the proportion providing both forms of training is larger than that among agencies serving either adult or juvenile offenders exclusively.
3. No variation among these three types of agencies is apparent with respect to the proportions providing only entry-level or only in-service training.
- X 4. Parole agencies. The pattern is the opposite of that found among probation agencies: adult agencies are more likely to provide training than juvenile agencies. Only 10 percent of adult parole agencies fail to provide training for their personnel, while 21 percent of juvenile agencies provide such training. When adult and juvenile parole functions are combined, however, the data indicate that all agencies provide some form of training.
5. The type of training in the area of parole also varies by the class of offender served. Among adult parole agencies, 72 percent provide both entry and in-service training. Among juvenile agencies, the proportion providing both forms of training is only 45 percent. However, agencies combining adult and juvenile parole functions provide both entry and in-service training more frequently (75 percent) than either adult or juvenile agencies.
- X 6. Consolidated probation and parole agencies. Combined adult agencies provide some training in 91 percent of the cases examined, whereas 87 percent of combined juvenile agencies and 84 percent of combined adult and juvenile probation and parole agencies provide some form of training to their personnel.
- X 7. To summarize, the most important factor with respect to the provision of training appears to be organizational centralization. In almost all cases, consolidated agencies are more likely to provide training than agencies in which functions are specialized. Parole agencies, usually organized on a statewide basis, provide training more frequently than probation agencies. The distinction between agencies serving adult or juvenile offenders also appears to be

significant with respect to training. In the probation area, adult agencies are more likely to train than juvenile agencies. In the area of parole, the opposite pattern is true: juvenile agencies are more likely to train than adult agencies. In general, however, the amount of training provided by agencies organized on a combined basis is superior to that provided by other types of agencies.

8. Entry-level training. As in juvenile corrections, the provision of entry-level training in probation and parole agencies lags behind the provision of in-service training. Combining agencies providing only entry-level training and agencies providing both forms of training, it is suggested that entry-level training is provided by approximately 58 percent of probation and parole agencies.
9. As in adult and juvenile corrections, the most common site of training is the agency in which the new officer is to be employed.
10. The average duration of training provided to new probation and parole officers is 61 hours.
11. There is relatively little variation in the amount of training provided among probation agencies, parole agencies, and combined probation and parole agencies when examined in the aggregate.
12. Probation agencies. In the area of probation there are significant differences between agencies providing services to adult offenders and agencies providing services to juvenile offenders. Juvenile agencies appear to provide significantly more training at entry level than agencies providing services to adult offenders.
13. Parole agencies. A broader variation in the duration of training provided by parole agencies is found when the class of offender served is controlled. Adult agencies appear to provide significantly more entry-level training than either juvenile parole agencies or combined adult and juvenile agencies.
14. Consolidated probation and parole agencies. Consolidated agencies are more likely to provide training than agencies providing only probation or parole services exclusively. However, with respect to the duration of training provided, these agencies are only marginally superior. Controlling for the class of offender served, there is little variation in the average length of training provided.

E. Assessment of the Length of Entry-Level Training

1. Among the individual types of agencies adult parole appears to come closest to meeting the standard of 100 hours. However, juvenile parole agencies appear to perform at a significantly poorer level in relation to the standard. Within the area of probation, only juvenile probation appears to have a significant number of agencies meeting or exceeding the standard. The consolidated agencies appear to perform the best in relation to the standard of 100 hours, with the adult and juvenile consolidated agencies having over half of the agencies meeting or exceeding the standard.

2. Chart VI-5 presents the findings of that analysis with respect to the tasks most commonly performed by adult and juvenile probation and parole officers. The tasks are ranked according to the proportion of officers indicating that they performed the task and the amount of time they devoted to the task.

Chart VI-5

Primary Tasks Performed by Adult Probation and Parole Officers

- * Establishes periodic verbal or personal contact schedule...and instructs client with respect to required conformity to the conditions of his probation, parole, or incarceration.
- * Establishes and maintains case file and evaluates information to determine the client's progress and needs.
- * Modified probation, parole, or correctional program in view of client's needs.
- * Advises or counsels clients...concerning conditions of probation, parole or incarceration, housing, education, community services, and management of personal affairs to establish realistic and socially acceptable behavior patterns.
- * Advises and counsels clients family and/or handles complaints on problems in dealing with client.
- * Prepares recommendations, reports, and dispositional plans on clients, for courts, parole board, or classification board.

The data indicate that there appear to be no major differences between the types of duties performed by adult and juvenile officers and that the overall ranking of tasks between these two occupations is virtually identical. Thus, it is possible to discuss the probation and parole role generically without reference to the class of offender served by the officers.

3. Those areas found to have a significant deficiency between desired and actual levels of expertise included: knowledge of investigative techniques; knowledge of the requirements for the revocation of probation or parole status, and other laws and rules pertaining to probation and parole; knowledge of the philosophy of the probation and parole agency where employed; knowledge of the various forms, records, and other materials utilized in probation and parole; the ability to develop plans for probationers and parolees; the preparation of case histories; the development of community resources; crisis intervention; and knowledge of the functions of correctional institutions.

Not all of the above topics are most conveniently learned through formalized training, as opposed to normal on-the-job-experience. However, the indication of significant gaps between desired and actual levels of understanding in these areas may suggest that such topics would be given a high priority in training programs.

The priorities expressed by executives do not appear to coincide precisely with the priorities suggested by the occupational analysis discussed above. The largest difference is in the apparent level of importance attached to legal topics and to basic office policies and procedures. These areas, where a significant level of deficiency was thought to exist, appear to be assigned a strong emphasis by only approximately 50 percent of the executives. Crisis intervention, an additional area where a deficiency was thought to exist, was assigned strong emphasis by 53 percent of executives.

Apart from these differences, however, executives appear to assign a high priority to most of the major areas where entry-level officers were thought to be deficient.

5. In general there is little variation in the emphasis given to the various training topics between the various types of agencies.

* 6. Summary and conclusions. In general, the status of training in probation and parole is similar to that in juvenile corrections. That is, although a majority of agencies provide some form of training to either their new or incumbent personnel, there are very clear areas of deficiency in both the quality and quantity of the training provided.

- * Approximately 20 percent of all agencies provide no training whatsoever.
- * Only half of all agencies provide both entry and in-service training.
- * The amount of training provided both entry and in-service is significantly below the proposed national standards in the majority of agencies.
- * The most apparent factor explaining the level of training provided is centralization. That is parole agencies and consolidated agencies are more likely to train than locally-based probation agencies.
- * The content of the training appears to coincide with the primary requirements of the position but more closely reflects the priorities of executives.
- * Certain areas, primarily legal requirements, are neglected during training.
- * A major problem is the large number of agencies providing only in-service training where, given the low overall duration of training and the restricted coverage of topics, there appears to be a lack of adequate topical coverage.

* The prospects for future improvement in the quality and quantity of training appear to be moderately favorable, although less favorable than in other areas of corrections.

In summary, probation and parole appears to offer a primary target for efforts to upgrade training in corrections, particularly in the area of probation. Although a certain amount of training might be foregone because of the overall higher educational attainment of probation and parole officer, there remains a need to establish some instruction in certain areas not customarily covered in educational programs.

F. Supervisory Training in Corrections

1. Contents not applicable.

G. Training for Correctional Treatment and Educational Personnel

1. In juvenile agencies in 1975, where the overall ratio of treatment and education specialists is much higher than in adult corrections, the proportion of agencies providing initial training to these personnel was approximately 52 percent, as compared with 76 percent of adult corrections agencies.

Table VI-42 indicates a significant variation in the provision of training by type of juvenile corrections agency. Although the overall pattern is not indicative of broad variations, it is clear that juvenile detention and half-way houses are less likely to train new treatment personnel than training schools and ranch, camp, or farm facilities. The constant factor here appears to be the fact that in the former facilities the period of time a juvenile is held is generally shorter than in the other two facilities. This may suggest that treatment functions are less crucial to the temporary facilities, thus reducing the apparent need to train. In the half-way houses and group homes, which are more heavily oriented toward rehabilitative processes, the neglect of training may be raised as a significant area of deficiency. The problem here, however, may be the relatively small size of such facilities, making regularized training difficult to sustain.

Table VI-42

Percentage of Juvenile Corrections Agencies Providing Entry-Level Training for Treatment and Educational Staff, by Type of Agency, 1975

Type of Agency	Percentage of Agencies Training	Total Number of Agencies
All agencies	45.1	193
Juvenile detention center	60.2	118
Training school	61.5	65
Ranch, Camp, or farm	43.1	86
Halfway house/group home	64.6	31
Other	51.7	493

Table VI-44 indicates that the length of training provided to treatment personnel in juvenile corrections agencies averaged 31 hours, far less than in adult agencies. Juvenile detention facilities and juvenile halfway houses tend to provide less training than either the training schools or the ranch, camp, and farm facilities.

Table VI-44

Length of Entry-Level Training Provided to New Treatment and Educational Personnel in Juvenile Corrections, by Type of Agency, 1975 (Percentage of agencies)

Type of Agency	Hours of Training					Number of Agencies	Average Length (In Hours)
	Total	1-16	17-40	41-80	81 or More		
All agencies	100.0	37.2	44.3	13.3	5.2	255	30.9
Juvenile detention center	100.0	44.8	47.1	8.0	0.0	87	22.7
Training school	100.0	28.2	40.8	21.2	9.8	71	39.1
Ranch, Camp, or farm	100.0	22.7	60.0	12.8	0.5	40	36.8
Halfway house/group home	100.0	45.9	40.5	8.1	5.5	37	26.5
Other	100.0	50.0	20.0	20.0	10.0	20	34.3

H. Major Findings and Conclusions in Correctional Training

1. Adult corrections.*

2. Juvenile Corrections.

Juvenile corrections is by far the most deficient of the three correctional areas, in terms of provision of training. Twenty-eight percent of the agencies provide no training, 21 percent provide only in-service training and only 43 percent provide both entry and in-service training. Smaller and less secure facilities appear to be the most deficient in providing training.

Almost all agencies providing entry training require it of all new employees and the average proportion receiving in-service training was 72 percent.

The location of the training was, as in adult corrections, most often the employing agency itself although there was a growing trend toward centralized facilities, and greater use was being made of educational facilities. This latter trend is more pronounced in in-service training than in entry-level training.

The duration of the training was the lowest of the three sectors of corrections. The average length of entry and in-service training was 30 and 34 hours, respectively. There was the expected relationship between size and length of training, and again, smaller and less secure facilities performed the poorest.

The content of the training varies between entry level and in-service courses and by facility type. The pattern is that of greater emphasis on policies, procedures, and custodial functions during entry level training, and greater emphasis upon counseling and psychology in in-service training. NMS staff concluded, based on occupational analysis, that there was a need for a better balance of training between custody and human relations skills.

3. Probation and parole.

Adult parole and juvenile probation provide the greatest amount of training.

4. Correctional supervisors.*

5. Correctional treatment and educational personnel.

Approximately 76 percent of adult agencies provide entry-level training to treatment and educational personnel compared with 45 percent of juvenile agencies providing such training. The average length of this training is 71 hours in adult corrections and 31 hours in juvenile corrections.

In adult corrections the provision of training to treatment and educational personnel varies by size, larger agencies tending to provide training more often than smaller agencies. No clear pattern was found in juvenile corrections.

6. General findings.

The overall superiority of adult corrections over the other areas is probably due, in part, to the fact that standards for adult agencies are set at the state level in most cases, whereas in the case of juvenile corrections the training programs are most often the products of local initiative.

7. Recommendations.*

The area most in need, on the basis of first priority, of immediate improvement with respect to training is juvenile corrections. It has been found to be deficient in the general provision of training and in the amount of time set aside for training in those agencies that do provide training. Supervisory training, although no less common in juvenile corrections than other areas of corrections, is a second area of deficiency. The amount of training provided to treatment personnel appears to be no more adequate than that provided for custodial staff. Finally, it can be suggested that the need for training in juvenile corrections is not greatly modified by the educational attainment of its personnel. In the case of custodial personnel the difference in educational attainment of adult and juvenile staff is only marginal, and in the case of treatment personnel the educational attainment of juvenile staff is generally lower than that of adult staff.

Chart VI-9

Future Skill and Knowledge Expanded Requirements for Correctional Personnel

Juvenile Community-Based
Counselor/Caseworker

Community Resource Development
Youth Counseling in More Difficult
Correctional Setting
Individualization of Client Relationships
Wider Understanding of Social and
Emotional Disorders

Juvenile Institution
Counselor/Caseworker

One to One or Small Group Counseling
Crisis Intervention
Court Appearances
Volunteer Group Interfaces
Community Resource Development

House Parent-Juvenile
Youth Service Worker
(Institutions)

Emergency Handling
Investigation and Search
Staff/Youth Interaction Procedures
Court Appearances
Detention Treatment Planning

Juvenile Community-Based
Administrators

Leadership Skills
Fiscal and Budget
Management
Planning and Evaluation Techniques
Administration of Volunteer Groups

Juvenile Institution
Correctional Administrator

Leadership Skills
Crisis Management
Staff/Youth Relationships
Fiscal and Budget
Management
Planning and Evaluation Techniques

Chart VI-10

Newer Job and Expanded Role Developments in Corrections

Juvenile and Adult Corrections (Institutional and Community-Based)	Juvenile Probation and Parole
Planning Specialists	Intake Specialist
Community Service Worker	Court Liaison Specialist
Youth Counselor (composite counselor and houseparent roles)	Vocational Specialist
Recreation Specialist	
Community Resources Manager	
Job Developers	

NMS REVIEW AND ANALYSIS ATTACHMENT

Volume IV
NEED PRIORITIES

NMS RANKING

- 1) Increase Personnel
- 2) Legal Education
- 3) In-Service Training

REVIEWER RANKING

- 1) Deinstitutionalization*
- 2) Restitution*
- 3) Youth Advocacy/Due Process*
- 4) Diversion
- 5) Legal Education / In-service Training
- 6) Increase Personnel

EXAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED PROGRAM EFFORTS UNDERWAY BY LEAA

The asteriked priority needs (diversion and legal education as well) are all being addressed by programs of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP). The Office has underway major action programs on diversion, deinstitutionalization of status offenders, and restitution. An action program on youth advocacy is currently being developed for funding this fiscal year.

* Priorities not based on NMS Analysis

Through the OJJDP's National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention training is currently being provided in the deinstitutionalization and legal education areas. In the latter area, training is provided in "law-related education" for adults and juveniles and also in-service training for juvenile court judges and other court-related personnel. The Office's Institute also has a number of research, evaluation, program development projects underway in the top four priority areas. In addition, the Office also provides technical assistance in the top five priority areas.

REVIEWER CONCLUSION SECTION

The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (JJDP) Act of 1974, as amended requires that OJJDP give priority at this time to deinstitutionalization, restitution, and youth advocacy. It also mandates that high priority be given to diversion of youth from the juvenile justice system. The law-related education training mandate was added in the course of the 1977 amendments to the JJDP Act.

Restitution programs must be implemented, not only in conjunction with diversion programs, but also as alternatives to incarceration (at the adjudication stage). Therefore, training focused on these two program approaches must be given first priority. Emphasis in such training must be placed on adherence to due process and recognition of children's rights. The central theme of such training should be "youth advocacy".

It is not infrequent that diverted juveniles appear to be drawn from first offenders and youths charged with minor violations, but these youngsters are often informally counseled and released or warned and cited. Ultimately, any lessening impact from diversion on the juvenile court workload must be attributed to diverting juveniles who would have otherwise been petitioned or detained. Diverting certain types of offenders, particularly if the population of eligibles is not carefully defined or appropriately targeted, could likely result in no workload reduction. It cannot be assumed that diversion

automatically leads to reducing backlogs and delay; it is therefore recommended that equally high priority be given to considering the nature of the population deemed eligible and its implications for court workload, as well as to assuring the extension of due process rights and procedural protections. It should also be stated that a slowdown in the rate of growth of the teenage population may not necessarily result in a decreased adjudicative workload.

Priority must also be given to provision of law-related education for youth and adults. Such education will serve to inform them of their rights and responsibilities under the law, thereby increasing the likelihood of law-abiding behavior on the part of youth, and increasing their understanding of the operations of our Nation's juvenile justice apparatus.

Lowest priority is given to increasing the number of juvenile court personnel. As is pointed out in the volume, case backlogs for juvenile cases during fiscal year 1975 did not show any significant change, and juvenile cases required a relatively short period of time for processing when compared to felony and civil cases. Emphasis on improved utilization of existing personnel with a focus on increasing quality is believed a better objective for which to strive.

VOLUME FOUR
COURTS
(CHILDREN AND YOUTH)

Review and Analysis of Volume Four (Courts) of The National
Manpower Survey of the Criminal Justice System

The following outlines provide a means to readily identify the findings, needs, conclusions and recommendations contained in Volume Four (Courts) of The National Manpower Survey which specifically pertain to the juvenile justice court system. A separate outline for each chapter provides this information. Chapters not specifically addressing the juvenile justice court system will be noted as such. Where need priorities are established regarding the juvenile justice court system, they will be clearly specified in the outline. The Reviewer Conclusion Section will come at the end, following all the chapter outlines and the rank ordering of need priorities.

Chapter II. Current Manpower Assessment

A. Introduction:

1. content is not applicable

B. Description of the Adjudicative Process:

1. content is not applicable

C. Organizational and Employment Characteristics

1. Juvenile courts, generally classed with limited jurisdiction courts, may be divisions of a general or limited jurisdiction trial court, a separate court, or part of a special jurisdiction court, such as a family court or probate court. In 1973, approximately 3,000 juvenile courts and 3,200 judges with juvenile jurisdiction reported spending full-time on juvenile matters.

An important feature of juvenile courts is that nonjudicial or parajudicial personnel may make judicial decisions including fact-finding or disposition. In some states, these functions are handled by judicial referees, while in others, they are performed by probation officers. In only 9 of the 28 states having statutory provision for referees is there a requirement that the referees be law trained, even when acting in a parajudicial capacity.

- * 2. Many prosecution offices have civil as well as criminal law responsibilities and deal with juvenile delinquency cases as well as adult crime. Responses to the NMS Survey, which was limited to state and county legal offices having prosecution responsibilities, indicate that...larger agencies were less likely to adjudicate juvenile cases or to have civil law responsibilities, but were more likely to engage in appellate proceedings than smaller offices. Large offices are located primarily in metropolitan jurisdictions, where a separate office of the corporation counsel is often available for civil law matters and for nonfelony criminal or juvenile matters.

D. Judicial Process Occupations:

1. content is not applicable

E. Assessment of Manpower Needs:

1. One available indicator of adjudicative workload trends is the number of delinquency cases disposed of by juvenile courts. This rose by about 50 percent between 1965 and 1970, but by less than 9 percent between 1970 and 1973. The relatively small increase in the latter period may be due in part to the slowdown in the rate of growth of the teen-age population in the early 1970's as contrasted to very rapid growth in the preceding decade.

The trends available do point to some slow down in the overall rate of growth of crime-related adjudicative workloads during the first four years of the current decade, as compared to the very sharp rates of increase between 1965 and 1970. This slow-down has been most apparent, in the case of Part II offenses and of juvenile delinquency cases. Both of these categories of cases impact, primarily, on the workload of the lower courts, rather than on that of courts of general jurisdiction or of prosecution and defense agencies.

Since the number of persons charged with Part I offenses rose by 33 percent, whereas the indicators of Part II charges and of juvenile delinquency cases rose much more slowly, these comparisons suggest that state and local judicial process agencies were more adequately staffed in 1974 than in 1970, in relation to criminal caseloads.

2. General jurisdiction trial courts who responded to the NMS survey in 1976 reported that, on the average, judges devoted about 51 percent of their work time to civil cases, as compared to 37 percent to criminal cases, 7 percent to juvenile cases, and 5 percent to traffic offenses. Data indicate that the number of civil cases pending greatly exceeded other types of cases in fiscal year 1975. Case backlogs increased by 10 percent for felony cases, and by 13 percent for civil cases during that year, with no significant change in backlogs for either misdemeanors or juvenile cases. Estimates of the number of months required to process pending cases were also computed for each type of case, by relating the size of these backlogs to actual dispositions during the year. These ranged, at the end of fiscal year 1975, from about three months for pending misdemeanors and juvenile cases, to nearly six months for felony cases, and ten months for civil cases.
3. The NMS survey of prosecutors requested information on the attitudes or judgments of chief prosecutors concerning their agencies' manpower needs, as well as statistics on actual employment and caseloads for their agencies. The survey was limited to state and county offices identified as having criminal prosecution responsibilities, and excluded municipal legal offices as well as those state and county offices with civil functions only. (N = 1178) About one-half of the prosecution agencies responding to the NMS survey on their manpower needs also provided data on their actual criminal caseloads in fiscal year 1975. Based on these reports, ratios of caseloads per prosecutor employed were computed.

To provide a weighted caseload measure for all major categories of criminal cases handled by prosecution offices, a workload measure referred to as "felony equivalent cases" was constructed by assigning the following weighting factors to non-felony cases: misdemeanors, .375; juvenile cases, .750 and appeals, 6.0. In the absence of representative data on the relative amount of

staff time required for these categories of cases, the weights used were adapted from those recommended for defender agencies by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals.

Based on this measure, the median felony equivalent caseload per prosecutor was 340 for agencies with 10 or more employees, or more than twice as great as the caseload of 154 per prosecutor for agencies with less than 5 employees. In the absence of any established caseload standards for prosecutors, the above data cannot be used to assess total manpower needs of these agencies. The implication of the above comparisons is, however, that the larger prosecution offices have a large relative need for additional staff attorneys to handle their criminal caseloads than do the small offices.

4. The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals had recommended, in Standard 13.12, that defenders should have average annual workloads of no more than 150 felonies, and also specified equivalents in workloads, for misdemeanors, juvenile cases and appeals. Using the latter weighting factors, the actual felony equivalent caseload per full-time equivalent defender was found to be 192 in fiscal year 1975, for a limited sample of 48 defender agencies, which reported all the needed data for this computation. This is about 28 percent greater than the standard proposed by the NAC. It must be emphasized that this small sample is not necessarily representative of all defender agencies. Standard 13.12 states:

. . .that defender caseloads per attorney should not exceed more than 150 felony cases per year, or 400 misdemeanor cases, or 200 juvenile cases or 25 appeals.

Considering only the requirements for representation of indigents in felony and non-traffic misdemeanor trials and direct appeals, and in juvenile delinquency cases for actions which would be a crime if committed by an adult, the National Legal Aid and Defense Association study estimated a need for about 17,300 staff attorneys in defender agencies (public and contract) for the defense of indigents.

The above approaches have clearly yielded widely divergent estimates of defender manpower needs. The analysis of caseloads per attorney for a small sample of these agencies, in relation to standards recommended by the NAC, yielded a somewhat higher estimate, in excess of 28 percent. In contrast, the NLADA estimates of the total "universe of need" for defender services indicated a requirement for a six fold increase in defenders, on a full-time equivalent basis. Several factors probably contribute to this gross disparity. The major one appears to be that the NLADA analysis of requirements is based on the proposed standard providing that all indigents charged with a felony, misdemeanor

or with juvenile delinquency are to be represented from the time of arrest.

F. Summary

1. The relatively slow increase in both misdemeanor charges and juvenile delinquency cases suggests, particularly, some possible amelioration in the heavy pressures upon the lower, or limited jurisdiction courts during this period.

Chapter III. The Outlook For Employment in Judicial Process
Agencies: Manpower Projections to 1985

A. Introduction:

1. Content is not applicable

B. The Projection Scenario:

1. Youth, and particularly disadvantaged youth, are much more crime prone--both because they have the highest unemployment rates and the most limited earnings potential in legal pursuits, and because they are more likely to take risks than more mature individuals. Key variables may affect future crime trends; among them are trends in the proportion of youth in the population, and trends in the concentration of population in urban areas.

Among these factors, one of the most important--and predictable--is the proportion of youth in our population. The sharp escalation of crime rates in the mid-1960's coincided with the "coming of age" of the large, post-World War II, baby-boom generation. During these years, juveniles and younger adults accounted for a large and growing share of those apprehended for many categories of serious crime. The outlook now is for a reversal of this trend. In the past decade and a half, rapid growth in the number of youths and young adults, aged 15-24 years, increased that group from 13.4 percent of the population in 1960 to 18.7 percent in 1974. This proportion will stabilize in the period 1974-80, and will drop significantly to 16.4 percent by 1985.

2. The crime rate, as measured by the FBI Index for Serious (Part I) Offenses, is expected to continue to grow between 1974 and 1980 due, in part, to the continued high average unemployment levels projected for this period. Its projected average growth rate of 1.8 percent per year between 1974 and 1980 is much lower than for recent periods, however, as a result of the stabilization of the proportion of youth in the population. A significant decline in the crime rate is projected for the period 1980-85, at a rate of -3.9 percent annually, reflecting mainly the combined effect of the reduction in the proportion of youth in the population and the assumed reduction in unemployment.

C. Employment Projections

1. The relatively slow employment growth anticipated for limited jurisdiction courts is associated with two trends, discussed in more detail later in this chapter. This first is the relatively slow recent growth in caseloads associated with Part II offenses, and in juvenile delinquency cases, which--in combination have

accounted for a major portion of lower court workloads. In part, these result from revisions in arrest policies and practices, resulting in de jure or de facto decriminalization of certain categories of offenses, such as public drunkenness. In part, they reflect increased reliance upon pre-trial diversion programs, particularly for juveniles and other first offenders.

The goal of speeding up the adjudicative process in criminal cases was given high priority in the report of the National Advisory Commission on Standards and Goals, as well as in other recent public critiques of the existing system. In addition to improvements in court organization and management, recommendations designed to expedite the adjudicative process have included proposals for decriminalization of certain categories of offenses and of diversion of certain types of offenders, as means of reducing courts and correctional workload.

D. Analysis of Selected Criminal Justice Issues and Trends

1. NMS queried prosecutors concerning the extent to which arrest policies have been changed in their jurisdictions for specified offenses in the past five years (either through legislative, judicial, or administrative actions), and about the effects of these changes on the number of arrests. The results indicate that, where changes had occurred, the effect of the changes was predominantly to reduce arrests, particularly for such offenses as public intoxication, marijuana possession, and sale of pornographic material.

When queried about the effects of revised arrest policies upon their manpower requirements, only between 12 percent and 16 percent of prosecutors who reported decreased arrests as a result of policy changes indicated that this change had reduced their offices' manpower requirements. This may be attributable to the fact that, in many jurisdictions, county and state prosecution offices play a limited role in prosecution of such offenses. Many are summarily disposed of by local police and magistrates, or by juvenile courts, without any direct involvement of either prosecution or defense attorneys.

2. Forms of diversion are practiced, often quite informally, by all components of the criminal justice system. As examples, police may exercise discretion in determining whether formal charges should or should not be brought against an individual. Intake workers in juvenile court may divert children who in their judgment could be better served by social and rehabilitative measures rather than formal and usually punitive court processing. The ability to utilize diversion as an alternative might be expected to contribute to reducing court backlogs and delay. The major forms of diversion being practiced today are pre-trial diversion, alcohol and drug diversion, juvenile diversion, mental health treatment alternatives, and first offender programs.

The extent of formal pre-trial diversion programs and their manpower effects were probed in the NMS surveys of probation and parole chiefs, prosecutors, and defenders. For juveniles, informal probation or consent degree programs appear to be most common.

E. Conclusions

1. Content is not applicable

Chapter IV. Recruitment and Retention of Staff Attorneys In
Prosecution and Indigent Defense Agencies

Contents Not Applicable

Chapter V. Legal Education and Training

A. Introduction:

1. Before the advent of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration little specialized training was available for judges, prosecutors or defenders, other than that provided in a few national programs. One of the first of these programs, the Appellate Judges Seminars sponsored by the Institute for Judicial Administration, was initiated in 1956. In the early 1960s the National Colleges for State Trial Judges and Juvenile Justice opened their doors. But for the great majority of the judiciary, particularly those judges serving in courts of limited jurisdiction, no national training programs were available.

B. Occupational Analysis Findings

1. Content is not applicable

C. The Role of Law Schools in Preparation for Criminal Justice Careers

1. The limitations of undergraduate law-school programs, as a direct preparation for the positions of assistant prosecutor and assistant defender--are confirmed by responses of chief prosecutors and public defenders to the NMS survey. A large proportion of the respondents considered law school graduates as inadequately prepared for such functions as trial advocacy, criminal trial procedure, and juvenile family law and court procedures, in contrast to much more favorable assessments of their preparation on such subjects as substantive criminal law, constitutional law and legal ethics.
2. From the standpoint of the law schools, the following improvements are recommended: 1) increased emphasis should be placed on closely supervised clinical programs, preferably in the setting of an operational agency. 2) Curriculum offerings in criminal justice should be expanded along the lines proposed in an illustrative model curriculum with increased emphasis on practical legal skills. 3) Faculty and institutional improvement should also be encouraged by supporting activities such as greater involvement in criminal justice research, internships in criminal justice agencies and development of better linkages between law faculty and operating criminal justice agencies.

D. Prosecutor Training

1. Prosecution agencies which reported that they conducted in-house training programs were also requested to indicate the topics covered in these courses. Subjects which are less frequently covered include juvenile and family law procedure, pretrial diversion and appellate advocacy, in part because many prosecution agencies and staffs do not have responsibility for these functions, or

because on-the-job training procedures are considered adequate.

One of the more significant gaps in coverage appears to exist in the case of juvenile or family law procedure. About 85 percent of all prosecution agencies reported that they had responsibilities in this area. Yet, among those conducting in-house training, less than on-half included this topic in their program. There is no reason to believe that training for juvenile court responsibilities is less needed than training for adult criminal court responsibilities; the tasks are no less complex or important. For example, in jurisdictions that include status offenses (i.e., noncriminal behavior which may be against state law, the basis for a delinquency determination), a juvenile who is "out of control" may be prosecutable; however, a parental claim to that effect may reflect parental neglect. A decision to prosecute the juvenile requires social work investigation, for which the prosecuting attorney is not trained, nor is he even commonly aware of the need. Even criminal behavior by the juvenile may be but a symptom of a dysfunctional family situation. Many jurisdictions resolve this problem by using probation intake staff to make the initial determinations of whether to charge the juvenile. But others do not, resting this responsibility solely with the prosecutor. In either case, the prosecutor needs to determine at charging or on subsequent review whether quasi-criminal proceedings will likely result in a positive solution for the juvenile, the parents, and society. For even where a social worker has screened some cases, the prosecutor must have the option and the concomitant expertise to screen or divert others from further criminal-like proceedings.

E. Defender Training

1. Some indication of the potential need for defender training is provided by estimates, based on limited survey data, which imply that as many as 45,000 private attorneys were engaged to some extent in criminal or juvenile defense work in the United States. Of these, perhaps as many as 10,000 might be considered criminal law specialists, while the remainder may engage in criminal or juvenile law work for less than one-fourth of their time.

Information on the subjects covered in both entry-level and in-service programs conducted, in-house, by public defender agencies is included in Table V-11. Certain subjects, such as constitutional law and criminal trial procedure, are included--with about the same frequency--in both entry-level and in-service programs. Entry level courses, however, more frequently cover certain basic practical skills such as case investigation, plea negotiation practices and preliminary hearing procedures, whereas more specialized subjects, such as evidence, substantive law developments and juvenile law are more frequently included in the courses for more experienced personnel.

2. Chief prosecutors and defenders were requested, in the NMS survey, to identify those specialized training subjects, or courses, which they would recommend as being especially helpful for future incumbents in their position, as well as to separately indicate which of these courses they themselves had taken.

One method for identifying significant gaps in prosecutor and defender training programs is to compare the proportions of respondents recommending particular training subjects with the proportion who have actually received training in these subjects.

For prosecutors, these differences were 20 percent higher in a number of subjects of which juvenile law (20 percent) was one. Thus, for both prosecutors and defenders, these comparisons point to the need for increased emphasis on subjects outside of the traditional CLE curricula and which provide needed perspectives to prosecutors and defenders in their roles as criminal justice executives.

F. Judicial Training

1. Based on NMS field visits to 10 states, the state-level training programs offered to sitting judges are very diverse in their structure and content. The types of state in-service training seem to be organized into four different models, of which two specifically address juvenile law. One is the special session; it is usually directed at a special group of judges and deals with one special topic for a short period of time. A program at one of these sessions might include presentations by members of various post adjudicatory agencies such as community-based treatment programs, and drug and alcoholic diversion programs. Another type of special session is directed at special classes of judges and even non-judicial personnel. For example, many states have annual sessions for traffic court or juvenile court judges.

The other model is a longer term training program lasting up to two weeks and just beginning in a number of larger states. These extended in-state programs are often called judicial colleges. In addition to orientation and training programs for new judges, the California Center for Judicial Education and Research conducts three institutes for justice, municipal, superior, and juvenile court judges and referees.

2. Despite the recent growth of state-level training activities, a number of national-level organizations continue to be the major providers of systematic training for various categories of judicial personnel. These include five LEAA-funded programs among which is the National College for Juvenile Justice. In addition, the

Institute for Court Management offers educational programs for court administrators and juvenile court personnel, both of which may include judges. Some national training programs are also offered by other national professional organizations.

X The largest of these programs is that of the National ^{Judicial} College of ~~State Trial Judges~~. The National College, located in Reno, Nevada, primarily offers two residential programs: In 1975, the National College conducted 23 resident sessions, and courses provided in the resident sessions included family law. The LEAA-funded National College of Juvenile Justice sponsors four two-week residential programs for judges and other juvenile justice personnel each year and joins with other organizations in presenting regional programs which are often cooperative efforts with state agencies. The curriculum is interdisciplinary, with an emphasis upon the behavioral and social sciences. In 1975, the College participated in a number of such programs. Many of these were, however, for corrections and probation personnel, rather than for the judiciary. Only four training programs were held in 1975 for judicial personnel in conjunction with the state courts.

X It should be noted that the organizational locus of juvenile courts varies from state to state, and that in many jurisdictions, there are no specialized judges whose responsibilities are limited to juvenile cases. Such cases may be handled by a division of a general or limited jurisdiction court, by an element of a probate or family court or by a separate juvenile court. Nevertheless, the special status of juveniles under the law and the need for close linkages with probation agencies and with a variety of community resources and programs, requires specialized knowledge and training not adequately provided either in undergraduate law school programs or in non-specialized CLE programs for judges or other adjudicative personnel. These are illustrated by a list of training topics of specialized interest to juvenile judges.

G. Major Recommendation

- X 1. Continuing legal education or in-service programs appear to be more generally available, through a combination of national, state and local sources. However, the available information suggests some obvious qualitative deficiencies. Juvenile law issues are often neglected. At the same time, there is a need for increased emphasis on inter-disciplinary subjects, such as community resources and community relations, and on management training, for those incumbents with significant management responsibilities.

Chapter VI. The Court Administrator

1. Contents not applicable.

END