Charting *the* Course

149160

Senior Leadership Program

Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute

FLORIDA CRIMINAL JUSTICE
EXECUTIVE INSTITUTE

149160

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Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute
Senior Leadership Program
Charter Class

Florida Department of Law Enforcement
James T. Moore, Commissioner

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Diane L. Zahm, Ph.D.
Barbara French
Editors
Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute

Foreword

Daron D. Diecidue
Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office

This is the text of the Charter Senior Leadership Program commencement address, given by class president, Col. Daron Diecidue of the Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office. His words are an expression of the learning and the philosophy of the Senior Leadership Program, and represent the thoughts of both Col. Diecidue and his classmates.

As representatives of public service agencies we as professionals are all united by a single common thread. Whether we represent a police department, sheriff's office, the Department of Corrections or FDLE, there is one commonality which we all share, and that is our dedication to providing the public with professional quality service throughout our agencies.

Private industry easily measures its performance by its bottom line: its profit margin. The question we must ask ourselves for today, and for the future, is *how are we to measure our public service agencies?* We know the future holds challenges and expectations for criminal justice in the years to come.

We must focus on a gauge, a yardstick, to monitor our performance in relation to those challenges. There is only one true measure of a criminal justice agency. Let me repeat that. There is only one true measure of a criminal justice agency.

No, it's not the crime rate, it's not how many burglaries have occurred or how many arrests we've made, its not drug shipments seized or numbers of prisoners detained. It's not any of those technical working statistics.

I submit to your, that the only true measure of a criminal justice agency is *public perception.* If the public thinks we're doing a good job, we are doing a good job. If the public is displeased, all the arrest statistics, drug busts, stolen property recovered and the like, will not matter.

Since our agencies are monumentally judged by public perception, how do we as leaders affect its outcome?

Certainly media coverage is important. That newspaper photo opportunity for the chief or sheriff with a new crime prevention program, or, perhaps, a corrections official on television highlighting a drug treatment grant, all are good in their own right. But none of these will ever compare with the overwhelming volume of daily citizen contact initiated by our rank and file employees.

Public perception is measured (won or lost) on the streets, on the sidewalks, in the residences, and in the offices within our communities. All other positive public relations moves which we orchestrate as administrators pale in comparison to those daily citizen contacts.

Our leadership challenge is to provide our employees with dynamic, non-stagnant support to deliver their services, and have them deliver that service with a professional attitude and a courteous demeanor.

The greatest obstacle we must overcome which hinders our mission as leaders, is that colossal evil called bureaucracy. But let's reduce bureaucracy from being overwhelming to just being merely challenging.

Bureaucracy is only overwhelming simply because we haven't applied leadership skills and efforts toward the concept of bottom line management.

As I mentioned earlier, private industry measures its performance by its bottom line, dollar profit margin. But for some unknown reason, when public service is compared, there then follows the sudden assumption that there is not bottom line in public service. This false assumption, and it is false, is often offered as an excuse for mediocre performance, status quo, and weak leadership.

But there certainly is a bottom line in public service, and that bottom line is two-fold: it is effectiveness and efficiency. The beauty is that its test can be applied in each and every facet of what we do in our organizations.

We need to focus our leadership attention to this bottom line, and if what we see does not measure up, then that is precisely where the leadership challenge begins. By exerting positive change, right there, we can reduce bureaucracy from on overwhelming intangible to merely a controllable nuisance.

Bureaucracy has spiraled out of control largely because we have not focused daily on that two-fold bottom line of effectiveness and efficiency.

In conclusion, let me say that during the past 19 months of the extensive training program, we were bombarded with a multitude of leadership quotations by our instructors.

However, in recollection, there is one which most assuredly identifies with the needs of criminal justice leadership today.

That quote is merely three words, which Alabama football coach Bear Bryant had posted over the door to the locker room, where the players would leave for the field. Those three words were *make something happen*.

The essence of leadership requires vision, a vision for the future, combined with the desire to make something happen.

We must ensure that Florida criminal justice agencies are standing together, looking with vision, at the critical issues of the day in the light of making something happen.

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Preface

Chief A. Lee McGehee
Ocala Police Department

The Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute was established in 1990 after a need for preparing existing and potential executives to lead Florida into the 21st Century was voiced by the Florida Sheriffs Association and the Florida Police Chiefs Association. With the strong commitment of the Florida Department of Law Enforcement, a Policy Advisory Board consisting of three Florida Sheriffs and three Police Chiefs was established. This Board was quickly expanded to include representatives from all segments of Florida's criminal justice system and its work was endorsed by the Florida Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission.

The Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute has a three-phased mission: to prepare existing and future criminal justice executives for 21st Century leadership; to conduct and sponsor research that will assist executives in the leadership roles; and to disseminate research articles and other publications to Florida's criminal justice executives.

This compendium touches each of these three components of the mission. It contains the research projects of graduates of the Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute's Charter Senior Leadership Program. The research effort is a major requirement for each participant in this 19 month leadership training.

The project requires that each SLP participant choose a topic which is relevant to Florida's criminal justice system. The research process must be followed, including developing a research design, surveying existing literature, developing data collection instruments, collecting data, analyzing the results and reporting on the findings.

The graduates of the Charter Class of the Senior Leadership Program have exhibited the qualities that are necessary for effectively guiding Florida's criminal justice system into new and uncharted territory. They are honing their skills and abilities to provide executive leadership in uncertain and, at times chaotic, environments. This compendium is one example of those abilities.

Introduction

James D. Sewell, Ph.D.
Director, FCJEI

The Senior Leadership Program

The law enforcement chief executives who proposed the Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute (FCJEI) recognized a need for the development of future executives. To meet this need, FCJEI was statutorily charged with providing an integrated program of training, education and research to the men and women who will be tomorrow's criminal justice leaders. FCJEI is administratively housed within the Florida Department of Law Enforcement and affiliated by statute with Florida's State University System. Our two principal courses -- the Chief Executive Seminar and the Senior Leadership Program -- are provided tuition-free to attending criminal justice executives by an appropriation from the Florida Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission.

Our educational offerings are designed to help the criminal justice community respond to both present and future challenges, e.g., evolving demographics, new developments in technology, and increasingly complex crimes and offenders. Participants are encouraged to analyze emerging trends and issues, and to develop a "futuristic approach" on the job. We hope that they will anticipate their communities' most pressing challenges rather than simply respond to day-to-day operational demands.

The Institute initially focused on the development and implementation of the Senior Leadership Program, a 19-month course of study specifically designed to foster the educational preparation of Florida's criminal justice leadership. The program includes a participant orientation and class sessions which focus on:

• Exploring the Future
• Futures Forecasting and Analysis
• Managing Human and Technical Resources
• Managing the External Environment
• Transformational Leadership
• Strategic Management
• Managing Change

These sessions provide extensive executive education to upper level criminal justice managers. Through the Senior Leadership Program, we believe participants develop greater organizational effectiveness; the program facilitates excellence in leadership and fosters, through innovative futures-oriented instruction, the ability to understand, influence and manage change.

The Directed Individual Study Project

The Directed Individual Study (DIS) project is an integral part of the Senior Leadership Program. The DIS allows each participant to identify, research and analyze a specific issue or trend and to present a detailed discussion and a proposed course of action. It provides a unique learning experience, i.e., the direct application of Senior Leadership Program material to the participant's professional career.

The DIS permits each participant to apply the Senior Leadership Program coursework and any corresponding knowledge and techniques acquired while achieving depth in a specific area. Although the project may result in a number of individual achievements, it is designed to:

1) broaden the scope of materials regularly read or reviewed by participants, not only in terms of criminal justice materials, but also with regard to materials outside the profession;

2) encourage participants to read critically and analytically, and to question what they read, particularly in terms of its impact on the criminal justice system now and in the future;

3) assist participants in developing a process for organizing materials for future reference, whether for general information or for use in professional research;

4) cultivate the research capabilities of participants;

5) refine the written and oral presentation skills of participants;

6) support and encourage "sharing" with others in the program, including participants from other segments of the criminal justice system; and

7) contribute to the body of criminal justice knowledge through research by practitioners.

The first phase of the project teaches participants to scan a variety of newspapers, journals and other materials, in order to identify problems or emerging issues. While scanning emphasizes the participant's own priorities, he or she also is expected to scan and record material to share with others in the program. This material is recorded and organized for future reference in resource files. These files serve as a starting point for selecting one or more concept areas for review and additional inquiry.

The second phase of the project requires the participant to narrow the focus of study to a particular subject or subject area on which to base the DIS paper. Each participant selects a topic, guided by its:

- applicability to the participant's agency and position in the agency

- benefits to the agency or the criminal justice system as a whole

- relevance to the goals and objectives of the program.

During the third phase of the program, the student actually completes background work and carries out the proposed methodology. This phase culminates in the preparation and presentation of a final study paper of publication quality.

The Compendium
This volume is a compilation of the final study papers of the Charter Class of the Senior Leadership Program. The papers presented here represent nineteen months of "blood, toil, tears and sweat" for participants and staff alike. They also represent the significant growth achieved by each of the participants.

The directed individual study experience was the first time many of our participants had been asked to complete work on a "research" project. They struggled with issues like attribution, field testing, and what to include in the appendixes. While students and staff tried to address such issues during the project's development, some minor errors or omissions -- as in any initial undertaking such as this -- may have occurred.

We are extremely proud to publish these works. We believe they are a significant contribution to criminal justice in Florida, not only because of their content, but because they demonstrate the outstanding abilities and reflect the vision of tomorrow's criminal justice leaders.

The Changing Role of Probation and Parole: A View to the Future

Isiah Brown
Florida Department of Corrections

Isiah Brown

Isiah Brown is currently the Correctional Probation Deputy Administrator in Tampa, Florida. A graduate of Florida A & M University, he holds a bachelor's degree in Sociology and is also a graduate of the Charter Class of the Senior Leadership Program at the Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute. Isiah is a corrections veteran; during his career in Circuit 13, he has advanced through supervisory ranks to Deputy Administrator. Of particular interest to him is the probation/parole identity issue - whether it is law enforcement or social work. He is married with three children.

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Staff safety issues and high risk caseloads increasingly will move officers away from traditional probation concepts of casework toward concepts more closely aligned with control or retributive ideologies. This research examines how the role of probation and parole has changed and what the future will be like depending on how we respond to the changes at hand.

Introduction

Under Florida statute, the Department of Corrections is to protect the public; provide a safe and humane environment for staff and offenders; work in partnership with the community to provide programs and services to offenders; and supervise offenders at a level of security commensurate with the dangers they present (Florida Department of Corrections, 1992).

These responsibilities pose tremendous challenges for the staff and administration of the Florida Department of Corrections and the criminal justice system as a whole. To have a marginal impact on these issues, the system must make some major changes in how criminal justice is dispensed. This is imperative as the crime rate continues to soar; as courts lose their effectiveness in deterring crime by leveling quick, stiff sentences; as correctional institutions admit inmates today and release them tomorrow to relieve overcrowding; and as offenders become more high risk.

The consequences of our inability to stem the tide of crime are frightening. A report in USA Today (1991) stated:

> probation departments have become seriously under-staffed just as they are being relied upon more heavily than at any point in history; probation, rather than prison, is the most prevalent form of punishment. Probation officers have become less and less involved in their traditional role, more kin to social work and are more consumed with law enforcement, tracking down those who have violated the terms of freedom. (p. 10A)

Despite a tremendous increase in the number of institutional facilities, an unprecedented number of offenders has been placed under supervision in the community. The Florida Department of Corrections has more than 100,000 felony offenders under supervision in Florida communities.

If it were not for overcrowding, many of these offenders would be serving lengthy sentences in state institutions. Law enforcement, the judiciary, the correctional system, and probation and parole have equal responsibility for the failure of the criminal justice system.

The problems noted above are enormous. To deal with these problems, much of what we do and how we do it will need to change. Many internal and external changes already have been made to respond to the personal safety concerns of probation/parole officers in Florida: modification of offices to provide for greater staff safety, soft body armor, and firearms. This research project evaluates areas where change is needed, as well as barriers that stand in the way of change.

Review of the Literature

According to Edward W. Sieh (1990),

> *Over the past several years, probation populations have increased more than eighteen percent (18%) versus about fifteen percent (15%) in jail and prison population and nearly thirteen percent (13%) in the number of parolees. Nearly 2/3 of the total correctional population was under probation supervision in the community at year end 1985.*

Sieh reasoned that enormous changes in the offender population have lead to changes in sentencing, as well as in how officers are expected or required to do their jobs. Twenty-five percent of convicted felony offenders get probation. Alternative sentences include intensive supervision and shock probation.

Sieh's research identified two basic models for supervising offenders -- "treatment" and "justice." The treatment model embodies traditional casework and rehabilitation, and measures change within the system. Sieh assailed the treatment mode, indicating that it is inherently coercive and unjust. It assumes a power over the lives of offenders out of proportion to their wrong doing; it ignores knowledge about the social rather than pathological causes of crimes; and it treats clients as mere objects of penal policy to be manipulated at a whim.

The justice model deals with the growing incidence of retribution. Sieh believes the model was created from public demand for certainty of punishment with minimum risk to the

community. In his definition of the justice model, the officer is not at all concerned with promoting changes in the offender; court orders become the instruction for supervision. Offender success or failure depends upon his/her compliance with the conditions of supervision, and is not the responsibility of the officer or the system. Intensive supervision, in his view, is an outgrowth of the justice model.

Sieh surmised that the system is moving inalterably closer to a retributive one - the justice model. He challenged contemporaries in the field to look for a balance.

Harris, Clear, and Baird (1989) found that the probation system, as a whole, continues to support treatment ideologies. Morran and Linder (1985) agreed, but found more significantly, that electronic devices, sophisticated drug and alcohol field testing kits, and computerized notification of new arrests are contributing to a greater emphasis of the law enforcement function.

Slauder, Shearer, and Potts (1989) measured the extent to which surveyed staff supported specific strategies for dealing with offenders. They found three distinct orientations among the participants that they labeled casework, resource brokerage, and law enforcement.

Casework. This strategy is concerned with the therapeutic and rehabilitative counseling of the offender and the offender's family.

Resource Brokerage. This strategy is concerned with rehabilitation of the offender and the family, however, the officer is less inclined to become directly involved in the delivery of these services. Time and experience necessitates that these functions be referred to others better suited to exercise these duties.

Law Enforcement. The law enforcement oriented officer is concerned exclusively with community safety and how the offender conforms to the conditions of probation, parole, community control, or other supervision. (Cole, 1989; Van Laningham, Table, & Diamants, 1977).

Trends in Probation and Parole

Trend #1: Office Automation. Hard copy, manually maintained probation and parole files require thousands of square feet of storage, plus staff support to locate these files, prepare them for storage, attend to them, and work with them. In Circuit Thirteen, 2,000 square feet of professional office space is used for storing over 40,000 offender files.

Probation officers are required to maintain case books that record contacts with and progress of offenders, and monitor compliance with court ordered conditions,

treatment programs, and community services.

Computer equipment, programs, and automation have become a major part of probation and parole offices. Although automation at one time only tracked offenders, newer systems allow for automated case review programs, investigative tracking, and automated accounting systems. Office automation, if fully implemented, may eliminate the need for file storage space. Probation officers will be able to electronically create offender files that can later be accessed for review by anyone with a need and right to know.

Trend #2: Electronic monitoring. Ten years ago, monitoring the whereabouts of an offender by the use of an electronic monitor appeared light years away. This view was less than realistic when we consider that endangered species have been monitored electronically for many years. Cold War espionage employed the use of electronic monitoring devices. And the Florida corrections system has actively participated in a monitoring program for more than ten years. Today, 800 offenders are under electronic monitoring supervision. The courts have overwhelmingly endorsed the use of the devices, and it is likely that electronic monitoring will be used at even higher rates in the future.

Trend #3: Officer safety. Between 1984 and 1988 the nation's probation caseload rose from 1.74 million to 2.36 million persons (35.4%) (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1989). Many authorities have also observed that the probation populations are increasingly comprised of serious offenders who often present a high risk of threat to the community and to the probation officers (Guynes, 1988; Petersilia, Turner, Kahan, & Paterson, 1985; Snyder, 1986). It is absolutely imperative that officers are provided a measure of safety to insure that they don't become victims.

Probation and parole officers were covered under special risk retirement up to 1975. At that time, agency reorganization occurred and Probation and Parole field staff were transferred from the Florida Parole Commission to the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services under the Division of Corrections.

The safety of officers in the field called for renewed interest in special risk retirement and the associated benefits of this retirement class. Other law enforcement entities recognize the value of probation and parole officers and appreciate the job they do. They also are aware of the dangers probation and parole officers encounter in working with offenders in the community:

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The Increased demand for thorough criminal sanctions and a retributive correctional mandate, the focus of probation and parole has shifted from an emphasis on rehabilitation to one of surveillance. With that shift, the nature of the worker/client relationship has become more adversarial. (Parsonage & Breshey, 1990, p. 68)

Trend #4: Employment selection process. Recruitment and selection of employees relies on identified KSA's (knowledge, skills, and abilities) necessary to perform the duties of a correctional probation and parole officer. Although applicants often have only a limited understanding of what is expected for the position, they tend to interview well.

These recruits are indoctrinated into the fold by academy instructors who espouse the caring and helping philosophy of the agency. However, when these recruits return from the academy, they hear and see experienced officers who very much represent an antithesis of caring and helping. Making unfriendly and demeaning references to offenders tends to change the helping attitude.

Trend #5: Alternative sanctions. There is a generally increasing trend in the use of alternative sanctions, several of which are outlined here.

a. Community Control is an intensive supervision or house arrest program, first implemented by the Florida Department of Corrections in 1983. This program has increased sanctions over probation. Offenders placed in this form of supervision often have already been supervised on probation, and violated or had offenses serious enough to "score them out" to a term in state prison. The program was designed as an alternative to prison attempting to relieve prison overcrowding.

Since 1983, 60,000 offenders have been placed under Community Control. Florida has the largest house arrest program in the nation. Each officer carries a caseload of 25 to 30 offenders. Offenders are prohibited from leaving their residences without express permission from their officers. Very tight control, particularly through frequent contact, is maintained over these offenders.

b. Probation Restitution Centers are half-way facilities designed to assist the offender who has had difficulty adjusting to supervision. These offenders are generally youthful offenders who have demonstrated a disregard for the conditions of their supervision and are delinquent in the payment of monetary obligations, i.e., court costs, restitution, and court impact fees.

The center emphasizes employment and educational

development. Offenders are required to maintain employment while in custody at the facility. The facility is not secured and offenders can leave at any point. That, unfortunately, occurs from time to time.

Offenders are committed to the facility for an average of six months. During this time, an offender participates in a number of rehabilitative programs designed to assist in complying with the conditions of probation and Community Control.

c. In Florida, first time, third degree felony offenders may be offered pretrial intervention after they have been diverted from the judicial process, but prior to a determination of guilt by the court. Those defendants, who complete the program and all of the requirements imposed, are eligible to have prosecution canceled, the charges completely dismissed, and their records possibly sealed.

Trend #6: Gridlock. The Criminal Justice Estimating Conference projected that gridlock will occur, despite alternative sanctions and release programs. The lack of available prison beds will result in the doors at Florida prisons closing, and more offenders will be diverted to probation and control release programs.

Changes in probation and parole service, combined with changes caused by socioeconomic and political events, have caused the varied functions of probation and parole to become more control oriented. However, staff have persistently continued to support a change orientation.

What Can Be: Scenarios
The fictional accounts of the routine activities of probation officers depicted here focus on an ideological shift in the way officers provide supervision.

Law enforcer scenario. John P.O. Jones, an officer with 10 years of experience in probation and parole, works with the Department of Corrections (August 7, 1998). A review conducted by the Auditor General's Office reports significant findings in several areas: the number of face-to-face contacts Jones has had with an offender; the level of compliance with the conditions of supervision; the cost of supervision; and the failure to complete risk reviews.

Given that offender compliance information is maintained on an automated database, and that random checks are conducted on officer performance, Jones should have monitored these areas more closely. Jones disagrees.

In his view, it is inconsistent for the Probation Program Office to espouse a caseworker approach to offenders when attentiveness makes little or no difference; there is no way to enforce noncompliance. With caps on prison admission, why bother?

In years past, Jones led the Circuit in offenders participating in officer directed groups, individual counseling, job development, and mentoring programs. Jones was keenly motivated in assisting offenders to better their station in life. His present attitude might be considered burnout by those familiar with his work in the past. Actually, he has adopted a different strategy for dealing with offenders -- he is now exclusively interested in the law enforcement function.

John had a very harrowing experience two weeks earlier when he was called to assist Wacky Hut, a surveillance officer he had mentored for the last two years. Wacky Hut is a frustrated cop. Making violation arrests and checking up on offenders is not, in his view, where his real abilities lie. He longs for the *real* action of police work, but has been turned down by the sheriff's office and the police department four times. John knows better. He knows that Wacky Hut could be a liability to any agency. He is a "hot head" and has put others in some difficult spots.

One evening, when sitting down for dinner with his family, Jones received a beeper message: one of his Community Control cases had just left his residence without authorization. The sound of the beep made the family frantic. His wife was extremely agitated, and at the same time, worried about his safety. John, too, was anxious about going out on a call with Wacky Hut.

As it turned out, an offender was found in a drug den in the Ponce De Leon Housing Project, as bad a place as there is on the face of the Earth!

As Jones and Hut drove up to the building, they were pelted with rocks and bottles and narrowly escaped personal injury. Once the offender was found, the people in and around the building stood in opposition to the offender's arrest. This was threatening, but, in the end, the offender was taken peaceably into custody, transported to the probation detention center, and held until his arraignment for violation of Community Control.

Although Bead Ashell, a certified sex offender, deserved to have been locked up a long time ago, he had been on electronic monitoring for ten months. Already he had violated Community Control by leaving his approved residence. For that violation, he was given ten weekends of detention in the probation detention center, but allowed to

return home during the week in order to continue his employment and to maximize the utilization of the detention center. Considering the excessive level of violations, the custody level is in dire need of expansion. In any event, the offender's family will benefit by his continued employment.

Ashell's placement in the detention center was not out of compassion. John was aware of a myriad of problems that the offender's family had. With his supervision strategies changed, he was unmotivated to spend too much time dealing with ancillary functions.

Law enforcer scenario: what can be. John Po (2001) -- John Po is busily completing the finishing touches on a motivational message he plans to deliver to residents of the Jordan Park Housing Project. Although many residents of the project will be in attendance, his speech is aimed at the young men who desperately need to break away from their present conditions of poverty and deprivation.

Actually, John is conducting this meeting off the clock. A model officer, committed to changing these men, by day John counsels, scowls, and cajoles them into conforming to their probation orders. After work, John, with assistance of a number of local sports celebrities, works tirelessly to help these men find some direction in their lives.

Time savings, from computers and other technological advances, have provided probation officers the opportunity to work out of their homes by using paperless files. Once, officers spent the majority of their time conducting surveillance on offenders. Now this time is more productively used in other ways, like these group meetings. Furthermore, probation supervision is now satisfying.

Future Directions

1. Integrated surveillance efforts established with local law enforcement. Many of the offenders committing crimes are currently under supervision. Cooperation between law enforcement and probation would maximize efficiency and, at the same time, provide for greater security for probation officers who might otherwise be required to make late night calls to tough locations without backup.

2. Expansion of automation can be developed to create paperless offices and eventually no offices at all. Inordinate amounts of time are spent logging contacts, payments, etc., bookkeeping functions that could be more easily handled with automation.

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3. <u>Supervisory functions are primarily used for quality control.</u> With the advent of automation, monitoring could also be more efficient and effective. Case reviews and officer evaluations will be streamlined with the development of programs designed for this purpose.

4. <u>Collection of monetary obligations consumes a lot of probation officer time.</u> A system requiring employers to garner wages for payment of fees would increase collections and eliminate any unnecessary effort on the part of officers.

5. <u>Interim disciplinary sanctions should be developed that can be used in lieu of court.</u> Judges would rather not be bothered with technical violations, yet probation officers need something to nudge the offender into cooperating with court orders. A probation detention center for technical violators could be used for jail therapy.

6. <u>Community service should become more retributive.</u> The public's clamor for offenders to pay should be achieved by requiring public service in some beneficial purpose to the state.

7. <u>Information collected on offenders should contain greater detail.</u> Criminal information files will be detailed to the extent that the requirement of a presentence investigation or postsentence investigation would be limited.

8. <u>With much of the above implemented, the necessity for formalized office space will be drastically reduced.</u> Officers using laptop computers would have little or no need for hard files. Speed writers and scanners would reduce the necessity for clerical support. The money used for leased space could be redirected into manpower or hardware necessary to wage war on crime.

The future is ours to mold and alter, or just let happen. Given an awareness of many significant developments, we should begin to accelerate some of the more desirable future expectations and slow those with less desirable expectations. To alter the course of undesirable functions, the establishment of offsetting principles and practices will be required.

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Brevard Uniform Laptop Law Enforcement Tracking System Version 5

Ronald L. Clark
Brevard County Sheriff's Office

Ronald L. Clark

Ronald is currently the Chief Deputy of the Brevard County Sheriff's Office. He served 12 years in the Titusville Police Department before he began his career in Brevard County. A graduate of the University of Central Florida with a B.A. in Criminal Justice, he also graduated from the FBI Academy and is pursuing a master's degree in Public Administration. Ronald is a graduate of the Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute's Senior Leadership Program (Charter Class, 1993).

By 1988, crime reporting at the Brevard County Sheriff's Office had become very inefficient. A simple case report could take weeks to reach the Records Division in Titusville and another few weeks before making it into the county-maintained Criminal Justice Information System (CJIS). After careful review and on-site visits, the Sheriff's Office decided to purchase a new laptop-based computer system known as BULLET -- the Brevard Uniform Laptop Law Enforcement Tracking System. This paper provides an overview and evaluation of the system's development, and shows how important planning and user input can be in the development process.

Introduction

The problems experienced by the Brevard County Sheriff's Office with its mainframe computer were not unusual. Charges for the Criminal Justice Information System (CJIS) running on the county mainframe were nearing a quarter of a million dollars per year. Data extraction and report generation required waiting for a programmer, unless the department had its own, since these tasks could not be handled by the average end user in the Brevard Sheriff's Office. The jail experienced similar problems with its portion of CJIS: not enough terminals, awkward data input, not user friendly, inflexible programming, etc. Changes in available technology and continuing frustration in the department proved the mainframe system was obsolete.

In 1988, the Sheriff's Office created a committee of four to review problems, determine solutions, and submit recommendations on an improved reporting system. The committee submitted two alternatives for consideration:

■ A call-in reporting system where clerks file reports based on information supplied by the deputy over the phone. This system was promoted in the City of St. Louis.

■ A laptop computer system similar to that used by the St. Petersburg, Florida, Police Department. This system would

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allow for case report approval and data extraction as well.

Because the call-in system would require the time of two employees to file a report, it was determined to be too costly. The laptop system was then explored as a reasonable alternative by staff members.

After careful review and on-site visits, the department decided to purchase the laptop computer system, including software, from Highland Technologies. Later the same year, the Brevard County Sheriff's Office purchased a Unisys computer system for laptop generated reports and computer support for other units in the department. This was the birth of the Brevard Uniform Laptop Law Enforcement Tracking (BULLET) System.

BULLET offered several advantages over the earlier mainframe system. First, it was tailored to meet the specific needs of the Sheriff's Office. Second, user friendly software reduced the need for programming staff. Third, the "open" Unix system allowed for programming modifications by Sheriff's Office staff. IBM, a proprietary system, can only be updated or modified by an IBM programmer in conjunction with IBM programs. Fourth, manual input by the data clerks would no longer be needed once the BULLET system was fully operational and used for UCR reporting. Finally, payback on the Unisys system would be less than three years; the services the system would provide might have cost an additional $200,000 per year if offered on the mainframe.

Laptop Computer Training
In November 1989, a training program was established to instruct each employee in the use and capabilities of the laptop portable computers. The training program was divided into two parts -- Computer Technologies I: Introduction to Portable Computers, and Computer Technologies II: Introduction to Database Computers.

Technologies I. Technologies I (24 hours) taught the line officer how to generate crime reports based on the Florida Uniform Crime Reporting System. The course included basic computer operations and specifics on the department's records system. The course was divided into four parts: Basic Computer Operations (12 hours), Computer Transfer (2 hours), Impres Report Generator (8 hours), and UCR and CJIS Codes (2 hours).

Technologies II. Technologies II (8 hours) provided additional training for supervising the collection, archiving and distribution of computer generated crime reports. Computer Technologies I was a prerequisite for the course.

The course was divided into 3 parts: Basic Computer Operations (6 hours), Printer Operations (1 hour), and Communications (1 hour).

For each module of instruction, the course and lesson plans were validated and sanctioned by FDLE and Brevard Community College. The training was subsequently accepted and approved by FDLE as meeting mandatory re-training standards.

Problems

Although the vendor advertised this system as capable of accommodating the needs of the Brevard Sheriff's Office, the original hardware would not handle the number of users planned for the department. The system was designed for the complaint reports of a small law enforcement agency; each laptop would hold only three complaint reports before it had to be "dumped."

Software reprogramming made the system conform to user needs. This meant that the entire report writing program and the way deputies formulated reports had to be reconstructed. Modifications were made in the reporting format to cut it back from three pages to one page. Each laptop was then capable of holding at least 12 complaint reports.

The programmer for the vendor was recruited and subsequently employed by the Sheriff's Office, putting aside the major hurdle of not having computer expertise on board. This action resulted in tremendous cost savings as well as a user friendly system for the entire department.

The programmer took the time to meet with each individual deputy and unit to explain the proposed system, and also what it could do presently and what it might do in the future. He allowed each to state what and how they would like for the utopian system to be. For the most part, he was successful in complying with most of their requests within reason. This small effort from the programmer created the attitude among the users that they had a part in creating the system, and therefore increased their pride in and satisfaction with the final product.

One of the more difficult tasks to overcome was changing the mindset of the deputies in accepting the innovation of computers. This was particularly difficult due to the average tenure of deputy sheriffs - 10 years or more. These deputies were set in their ways. It was unheard of for a deputy to use a laptop computer as opposed to the good old pen and report form.

A unique approach was taken to address this mindset. The North Precinct, which is the smallest precinct of the four

in the county, was selected as the experimental unit for the laptop system and training. As expected, training was met with resistance and at times hostility. The efforts of the system's programmer and trainer eventually resulted in a very worthy system and made the other employees understand its mechanics and respect it.

Once the first two class sections were completed, a change of mind toward the laptop system was evident. The gradual acceptance of the system occurred because of word-of-mouth by the deputies who had been trained. An article was published in the <u>Sheriff's Star</u> which praised the deputies and the department for the innovation.

Originally it was believed that the Uninterrupted Power System (UPS) within the communication unit would be utilized for the laptop system, but after two lightning strikes, an independent system was purchased to protect only the laptops. This has proven to be money well spent, not only for equipment damage, but more importantly, the loss of valuable time in reprogramming lost systems.

The 1992 Upgrade

System overload occurred because of the overwhelming success of the applications following initial installation. The original Unisys system, which was designed to handle 128 devices under maximum load, was maintaining support for over 130 devices. System locking and channel overloads occurred with greater regularity because of the increased use by personnel. This caused significant inconvenience to those employees who had come to rely so heavily on the system and its capabilities.

By June of 1992, it became evident that the current system would not accommodate the future needs of the Sheriff's Office. Research on a possible upgrade identified the following issues:

- easy transition from the old system to the new system
- capacity for both present and future needs
- opportunity for system expansion after installation
- upgrade without substantial financial investment

Negotiations were initiated with Unisys to upgrade to a system for up to 1,000 devices, with storage capacity in excess of any possible demands generated by the Sheriff's Office. Unisys arranged a site visit to another company using the proposed system. This was an important part of the decisionmaking process.

Unisys agreed to accept the Office's "old" system in trade, offering $72,960 -- almost the original purchase price --

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toward the cost of the proposed system. Its proposal included wiring, software, and any technical support needed to complete the installation. It did not address the changes required in the physical environment or the cost for communications equipment to support the jail. The Sheriff's Office would be allowed to retain ownership of the old system until all conversions to the new system had been completed, so that field personnel would not be inconvenienced during the crossover.

The decision was made to move forward with the acquisition of an upgraded computer system from Unisys at a net cost of $392,031, with software and wiring at a cost of $158,921, for a total of $550,952. Since the system was on state contract and included trade-in, the department was not required to process a formal bid.

Expanded Systems

After the upgrade decision had been made, a questionnaire on the current system was sent to each unit of the department. Input from the users of the system was solicited for several reasons. The department wanted to maintain the high interest of the users that had been exhibited to date and allow each user to create and be a part of his/her own unique system within BULLET. This was possible because the department employed an innovative computer programmer.

The following are systems requested for future users of BULLET:

1.   Fleet Maintenance. History tracking for vehicle maintenance; inventory control; property control; fleet mileage; test part tracking; automatic forms generation; model quantity analysis; bar coding; vendor tracking.

2.   Warrants.
    a. Immediate visual identification of wanted subjects - Photographs would be imposed onto the Warrants Division with all physical descriptions and warrant information, e.g., charge, judge, case number and bond amounts.

    b. Immediate access to Brevard County arrest records, which will expedite the processing of felony bench warrants.

    c. Access to the NCIC fingerprint classification.

    d. Interfacing with NCIC/FCIC, eliminating double

entries. Entries are presently made into the CJIS computer and then into NCIC/FCIC. The time used for researching ID information, processing information and entering it into two computers would be considerably reduced.

3. <u>Staff Services</u>. Training records on each employee; FTO program; career incentive programs; internal investigation files; department vehicle accident files; review board data (new hire, promotion); mutual aid data (local/state).

4. <u>Uniform</u>.
   a. Master Name Access - Criminal History Information.

   b. Report Generator - Eliminates the requirement for so many typewriters, and relieves pressure on clerical help.

   c. Traffic Citation System - Provides information regarding where, when, and by whom citations are issued. Used frequently to provide data to concerned citizens requesting traffic control.

   d. BOLO System - A source of pass-on information for shifts to utilize as they go on duty; provides direction as to criminal activity within each patrol zone.

   e. Report Management System - Useful in keeping abreast of activity with respective precincts.

   f. CAD System - Valuable information for precinct commanders such as calls for service, response times, time on each complaint report, areas of activity.

   g. Graphical Analysis System - Specific information as to the time of offense occurrence and location by grid as opposed to zone.

5. <u>Investigations</u>. Computer software program to provide computer aided analysis of telephone numbers which have been obtained through investigations, wire taps, and other cases. This program would allow input directly from pen register equipment.
   Pen register input would be expanded to include several different analytical options. The options should include the ability to retrieve subscriber lists, both alphabetic and numerical, as related to target telephone numbers; frequency of particular phone numbers called, as compared to total number of calls; and the ability to compare phone

numbers from different sources, i.e. toll to toll and DNR to DNR.

An Intelligence System has been created which provides a database for historical and current intelligence information. This database is shared with the Brevard County Drug Task Force and serves to eliminate duplication of efforts. This program should be modified to allow the agents the option to create an intelligence file from the person's block of case reports.

6. <u>Computer Generated Time Sheet System - Garcia</u>. The program automatically computes straight and overtime hours, according to the Garcia Ruling. The program provides a computerized printout of the time sheet, which is turned into Finance along with the individual time cards. This worked excellently and is a tremendous time saver for unit supervisors. It also eliminates the need for a written recap report and can be retrieved.

7. <u>Criminal History Files</u>. Search by partial name; mate records included within the history files; case dispositions; DNA database; search by physical characteristics; search by crime types or M.O.; search by geographical location; photo imaging; automatic fingerprinting identification.

8. <u>Inmate Management System</u>. The Inmate Management System centers around classifications. The majority of the data collected and the users of the data will come from the classification section. The implementation of the inmate management system and the design of a classification profiling system will allow the detention center to move forward in a more defined and efficient classification process. Ultimately it will allow the organization to reduce the staff required for the medium security felon inmates who have demonstrated no behavioral problems while incarcerated, and provide the possibility of going to a direct supervision program in the future, if the department so desires.

Essential in the implementation of this program would be the close coordination between other factions of county government. The coordination of the Court Clerk's Office and pretrial release will eliminate as much double data entry as possible and make data which is currently being stored by either the clerk, pretrial release, or the Sheriff's Office available to other user units.

The system consists of three component parts - the first being the mainframe data storage computer. The second is the photo imaging system, which requires a stand alone

system with enough storage capabilities to meet current and future needs. Last of the component parts is the bar coding system which allows for inmates to be identified by a unique number. The SPIN number would allow for easy tracking of the inmates from the time of incarceration until the time of discharge. The SPIN number is utilized on any subsequent incarceration periods and is used by the other investigative and operational units within the department to identify and track a particular inmate through the system.

9.   Imaging. The imaging system runs from a mini-mainframe computer at the detention center with three entry systems at the jail and one at the Viera booking station. One color and one black-and-white image processor will accomplish the following tasks:

a. They will replace the requirement for polaroid photos taken during the booking process for attachment to booking folders for identification during booking and releases. Since imaging supplies do not have the shelf life limitations of Polaroid film, this will simplify supply requirements and eventually create a cost savings.

b. Imaging will eliminate the requirement of 35mm photos being taken during booking. The color image processor can generate the same type picture without the need for a second photograph. It will allow for a copy of the image to be placed on the inmate's arm band for positive identification for all jail activities including: medical evaluations, meals, commissary visits, recreation, visitation, and razor issue and retrieval.
When combined with bar coding capability, it will allow these activities to be done in a much more efficient manner. Bar codes scanned into the system eliminate the need for manual logging of these activities for inmates.

c. Imaging will simplify identification of inmates who have removed arm bands even when the file copies of the booking photos have been lost or damaged. Since photographs are taken from a keyboard during the booking process, it will not be necessary to physically stand an inmate against a wall for photographing in the event the inmate is resisting. Simply restraining the inmate in a chair will allow the image to be taken.

d. Bar coding inmates in and out of the cell block areas will save money (log books, etc.), reduce archive

space requirements, and allow for a much more positive accounting of inmate activity. Investigations as to what inmate was where at a given time would be a matter of a simple keyboard entry.

e. Producing groups for the purpose of line-ups will be a matter of keyboard entry, thus eliminating the traditional manual searching of a file for photographs and physical description which appear to match.

f. Imaging will eliminate the need to take additional photographs of inmates who have been cleared for trustee status. The system will simply generate a badge photograph. Once repeat offenders are in the system, it will allow for another method of identification by matching the inmate with his or her previous booking data.

Computerization 2000

The BULLET system was the first computer venture for the Sheriff's Department. Beginning with the capability for laptop report writing, the system has since been fine-tuned with more features added to it. The project has been both challenging and rewarding, and the possibilities of the system are astonishing.

Managing technology within a law enforcement agency on a limited budget required research, planning, and commitment on the part of management. Law enforcement over the past 20 years has seen vendors bring new software and computer applications, sometimes without really knowing a lot about law enforcement. Very few agencies had technical expertise and were sometimes easy prey for companies that left law enforcement agencies with an incomplete package.

Knowing only too well that manpower, due to available funding, will be the law enforcement commodity in shortest supply in the future, all efforts at computerization of various functions should be focused on making the best possible use of available manpower resources. To that end, and toward our best possible manning scenario for the year 2000, I would envision the following phases for computerization of specific detention and law enforcement functions:

Detention. First we need to eliminate our dependence on the county CJIS and establish a link with the current Sheriff's computer. This provides the initial step toward reducing the number of times data on a given individual must be entered. Concurrent with the transfer of our record keeping to the Sheriff's computer, the JMCIDS should be

purchased and installed. Additionally, a link between the Sheriff's system and the Clerk of the Courts should also be established. The series of actions will allow a given individual to be booked (including incorporating a picture into the computer file), previous incarcerations to be reviewed for purposes of classification, and all pertinent court actions to be included into one file with limited requirements for multiple entries of data.

Once the data links are established and hardware is in place, the classification function should be computerized to the maximum extent possible (this should include the medical component of the classification equation). This will allow those individuals requiring maximum supervision during incarceration to be placed in locations where our maximum manpower is concentrated. Conversely, those individuals needing minimum supervision can be placed in locations requiring reduced manpower. We would thus provide management the maximum leeway in the reduction of manpower resources.

Next on the agenda should be inclusion of record keeping for additional functions such as feeding, recreation, commissary, showers, visitor logging, attorney visits, incident reports, etc. Keeping track of these functions not only requires many hours to log in various logbooks and forms, but requires many additional hours maintaining the archive function for these items for the required time frames.

After these functions are in place and working, we should concentrate on some of the functions to save the department additional funds, such as inventory control for the kitchen, office supplies, uniforms, etc. These are not as manpower intensive as the functions spelled out earlier, but there could be considerable savings by putting these functions on the computer.

By the year 2000, following the plan outlined above to its logical conclusion, I would envision the Brevard County Sheriff's Office being capable of the following:

A call comes in to the Communications Center regarding a crime in progress. Using the Computer Aided Dispatch System, the communications officer chooses the nearest available unit and dispatches it by sending all available information, including location, to the computer system located in the patrol vehicle. The shortest possible route and any road hazards to be avoided should also be transmitted. In addition, backup should be assigned and dispatched in the same manner.

Once an arrest has been effected, the officer fills out the offense report on his laptop computer. Checking for outstanding warrants, stolen vehicle, and any number of

other parameters will also be done at this time. The patrol vehicle then transmits this data through the communications network to all agencies requiring the offense information. Data is automatically transmitted to the jail with a complete record of all data on codefendants, and any other information which might influence the individual's classification. The computer should automatically initiate a check via FCIC/NCIC without the need for operator intervention.

Upon arrival at the jail, classification would have already determined the correct handling for the arrestee. A picture would be taken using the JMCIDS, property would be taken, and the individual taken to an assigned area as determined by classification. Functional areas, such as the kitchen, medical management, etc., would automatically be notified of an additional individual in population.

From this point, every action involving this individual would be logged via the system until the individual is either released or transferred to DOC. The majority of data input during this process could be done by clerks, freeing the law enforcement and corrections personnel to do the jobs for which they have been trained.

When an individual leaves the jail whether through release or transfer to DOC, the individual's records would again be archived until the next time he/she is arrested. The individual would automatically be removed from meal counts, medical rosters, etc.

Law Enforcement. The primary need of a law enforcement agency from a computer system is the processing of information quickly, accurately and closer to the deputy in the field. Here, in order of priority, are the future developments I hope can be accomplished.

1. Mobile Data Terminals - While MDTs have been around for quite some time, only recently has the price drop made them affordable and the advent of trunked radio systems made them viable. In the past, a separate radio network would have to be in place before MDTs could be put on-line.

Features of MDT'S include case reports being transmitted directly to the road units, and deputies having the ability to access a variety of databases: CJIS, CAD, laptop, FCIC and NCIC. Pictures of the jail imaging system could be accessed from MDTS. Reports could be transmitted to the laptop computer for even quicker input. Maps of Brevard County also could be stored in the terminal MDTs and would reduce the workload on the communications staff. Voice transmissions are reduced and inquiries into

teletype would be done from the car. The cost to supply 200 cars with MDT's would be $750,000 to $800,000.

2. Geographic Information Systems (GIS) - With the county committed to the system, all maps of Brevard are digitized and can be accessed. Some benefits for the Department of a GIS system are in crime analysis, man power/resource allocation, and real time maps in critical times.

Using computer work stations, maps can be drawn on the screen with certain parcels highlighted based on one or more criteria: burglaries in a given area for 30 days at a specific time vs. the Field Interrogation Card system. These maps could also be in the MDT's with a best route selected to get there. A screen in the Communication Center would also show the vehicle locations coming from an AVL system. Large maps of an area can also printed on a $50,000 color printer which is presently owned by the county. Cost for the first year is estimated at $40,000. Cost for a work-station is estimated at $15,000.

3. Continued Integration - This short term goal which is currently being pursued, is one relatively inexpensive way to provide the deputy with more information in which to do his/her job. A deputy can process databases from other computers from a terminal within the office or car. It gives a quicker response than writing a letter or calling other agencies on the telephone.

4. Imaging System for Records - While this application may save more in administrative costs, it will also benefit operations and personnel. Imaging of documents allows for copies of memoranda, letters, and case reports to be retained on computer disk instead of microfilm. Imaging allows for clear pictures of documents to be retrieved but also allows for instant access without having to search an entire file cabinet. (An example of this: an agent in Viera or a state attorney could access a case file without having to get a clerk to assist.) The existing BULLET system could also be very easily tied into the imaging system software, as well as hardware. Improvements at lower costs have made this a viable tool that would be of great benefit to the department and may be expanded to the needs of other units.

The projects will hopefully be funded in the near future, but given tight funds, it is not likely. However, future price reductions and the attractiveness of potential salary savings definitely justify dollars for these projects.

An Impact Analysis of the United States of America v. The State of Florida, Florida Department of Corrections

Bernard R. Cohen
Florida Department of Corrections

Bernard R. Cohen

Bernard Cohen, a Florida native, is currently the Chief of the Bureau of Staff Development at the Florida Department of Corrections in Tallahassee. His position entails responsibility for management and supervision of all training services for more than 22,000 employees. He began his corrections career in 1974 as a corrections specialist at Starke, Florida. Bernard holds a master's degree in Criminal Justice and a bachelor's degree in Psychology. He is married and has two children.

The Inclusion of women as professionals on a equal basis with men in the corrections work place demands the attention of all criminal justice practitioners. This dramatic change in traditional employment practices is the direct result of major litigation based on Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended. Over a decade ago, Officer Carolyn Modavi-Riggs filed a charge of discrimination by the Florida Department of Corrections that led to an investigation by the U.S. Department of Justice, and eventually resulted in the adoption of an Agreed Entry to provide relief for past discrimination and prevent discrimination in the future. The effect of implementing the provisions of the Agreed Entry continues to alter the culture of the Florida Department of Corrections.

Introduction

Perhaps the most controversial human resource management issue in the criminal justice community has been and continues to be the full utilization of women as correctional and law enforcement officers. Traditionally, women serving as officers in the criminal justice community have been assigned supporting roles which have not allowed their full exposure to the myriad of professional experiences necessary to contribute on an equal basis with their male counterparts. There has been considerable progress over the last 20 years towards the full utilization of women as correctional and law enforcement officers; however, the emerging dual-gender work force is demanding immediate action to integrate more successfully and fully utilize women in all correctional and law enforcement officer performance areas.

The few progressive steps achieved thus far have been the direct result of significant litigation based on Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended. A 1977 court case, *Dothard v. Rawlinson* 433 U.S. 321, concerned women serving as correctional officers in male institutions in the

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Alabama Department of Corrections. The court's ruling on this case supported the Alabama Department of Corrections' practice of prohibiting women from serving as correctional officers in direct contact with inmates housed in male institutions.

A current court case based on this act and pertaining to the underutilization of women employed by the Florida Department of Corrections as correctional officers in male institutions is the focal point of this research document. <u>The United States of America v. The State of Florida, Department of Corrections</u>, 86-7330-MP (1982), hereafter referred to as the U.S.A. Case, will render significant impact on traditional employment practices in the Florida Department of Corrections and perhaps criminal justice agencies throughout the nation.

The lawsuit, filed in 1986, specifically challenges the employment practices of the department pertaining to the utilization of women serving as correctional officers in institutions housing male inmates. Through significant discovery undertaken by the United States Department of Justice (DOJ) and the state of Florida, an Agreed Entry was filed in the United States District Court for the Northern District of Florida on October 29, 1991. If the court approves, this Agreed Entry will settle the lawsuit.

The purpose of this research is to examine traditional employment practices relating to how women have participated as officers in the corrections field and how we may expect them to participate in the future. A discussion of the major legal factors instrumental in creating significant changes in this area and identification of the issues that may be of greatest importance and concern in the future are presented. This information should prove useful in the development of strategies intended to bring about positive change, increased awareness, and sensitivity to this extremely important work place phenomenon.

The paramount questions serving as the driving force for this research are: (1) How can the Florida Department of Corrections fully implement the provisions of the Agreed Entry? and, (2) What strategies should be employed to achieve and exceed compliance in order to create a work environment that encourages and values unlimited inclusion of women in the performance of all correctional officer duties?

Historical Perspective
<u>Emergence of female correctional officers in the United States</u>. According to Morton (1991), in 1793, Mary Weed, the wife of the warden of Philadelphia's Walnut Street Jail, was

appointed to serve in her husband's position upon his death. Serving from 1793 to 1796, Warden Mary Weed distinguished herself as the first woman to serve as warden of a correctional institution in the United States. Contemporaries commented that she did not fear her responsibilities of maintaining control over 280 male and female inmates with her staff of four male officers who were without whips, chains, leg-irons, guns and canes, security items deemed indispensable in other correctional facilities. This event marked significant change in traditional employment practices relating to women serving in the male dominated corrections profession.

Further, Morton (1991) indicated that it was during the first half of the 19th Century that the correctional reform movements from England began to influence correctional practices in the United States. A movement to lobby for separate facilities for women inmates, to be run by female staff, was one of the first nontraditional practices to be attempted. Sing Sing Prison in New York was one of the first institutions to have a separate building for women offenders. In 1844, Eliza W.B. Farnham was appointed head matron at this facility. After a bitter public battle and major conflicts with other correctional administrators concerning her reformist ideas for education, attractive surroundings, and positive incentives, she left in 1868.

Throughout the latter half of the 19th century, women emerged as innovators and reformers in the corrections field, often acting outside and even in opposition to the corrections establishment. Women were becoming involved as participants and leaders of state and local governing bodies. Kate Barnard was elected in 1907 to be the first Commissioner of Charities and Corrections in Oklahoma. Katherine Davis, Ph.D., was appointed and served as superintendent of the Bedford Hills Prison in New York from 1901 to 1914. She established one of the first research centers to study female crime, and went on to be New York City's first woman to serve as Corrections Commissioner, Cabinet member, and Chairwoman of the New York Parole Board. Mary Bell Harris, Ph.D., in the course of a long and distinguished corrections career, instituted many innovations at the New York City Workhouse and the New Jersey State Home for Girls, including inmate self-government.

By the late 1930's, female corrections professionals had implemented nontraditional innovations and practices such as academic and vocational education, libraries, work release, behavioral classification systems, volunteer programs and inmate self-help programs (Morton, 1991). Not withstanding their many valuable contributions, women

remained unrecognized as professionals in the corrections field. Many of them faced internal hostility from their male colleagues, including personal character assaults, and public criticism from political enemies.

Emergence of female correctional officers in Florida. In contrast to the employment practices of women on the national level, there is little historical documentation regarding women serving in corrections professions in the early days of Florida's prison system. According to a 1992 Florida Department of Corrections publication, Women Facing the Future, the first appearance of a woman's name on an official document indicating job responsibilities was in the legislative record of 1917. That individual was actually an inmate who was performing in a matron's capacity at Raiford Prison, now Florida State Prison.

The first women to serve as correctional officers in the Florida Department of Corrections were hired at Florida Correctional Institution, a female institution in Lowell, Florida, in 1956. The first woman to serve as superintendent was also hired at Florida Correctional Institution in 1956. She was replaced a few months later, and it was not until 1971 that another woman was hired as superintendent. Florida Department of Corrections' records (1992) indicate that the first woman to serve as a correctional officer in a male facility was hired in 1973 at Apalachee Correctional Institution near Chattahoochee, Florida. It was not until 1992 that a woman serving as a correctional officer was appointed to the top rank of colonel (the highest rank in the correctional officer series) at Broward Correctional Institution, a female institution in Pembroke Pines, Florida.

The Florida Department of Corrections currently employs approximately 20,500 staff. Approximately 37% of the department's total staff are women, while 24% of correctional officers are women. A recent personnel survey of top level management revealed that none of the department's 16 senior management personnel are women. Women hold nine of 89 positions or 10.1% in the next highest level of management, and of 124 positions at the third highest level of management, 13, or 10.5% are women. These figures indicate that greater attention and positive action must be forthcoming in order to appropriately integrate women into the corrections work force.

U.S.A. Case Analysis

Carolyn Modavi-Riggs would probably agree that greater attention and positive action must be forthcoming in order to appropriately integrate women into the corrections work force. On November 1, 1982, Officer Modavi-Riggs filed

a charge of discrimination with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission and the Florida Commission on Human Relations. Officer Modavi-Riggs was employed by the Florida Department of Corrections as a correctional officer at Marion Correctional Institution in Lowell, Florida. Officer Modavi-Riggs alleged that the department discriminated against her by violating Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended, by not allowing her and other female correctional officers to perform correctional officer duties involving contact with male inmates, thus restricting her and other female officers to "noncontact" duties and post assignments.

This charge of discrimination caused the United States Department of Justice to initiate a major investigation of the employment practices of the Florida Department of Corrections. The purpose of the investigation was to determine whether the Florida Department of Corrections was affording the same employment opportunities and terms and conditions of employment to women as it afforded to men.

The United States Department of Justice, having reason to believe that the Florida Department of Corrections was engaging in discriminatory employment practices based on gender, filed suit against the Florida Department of Corrections in the United States District Court for the Northern District of Florida on December 23, 1986. The United States of America v. State of Florida, Department of Corrections case began more than a decade ago during the administration of Secretary Louie L. Wainwright, continued through the administration of past Secretary Richard Dugger, and remains an issue now during the administration of the current Secretary, Harry K. Singletary, Jr.

The original complaint (1986), in paragraphs number 7 and 8 brought forth the following allegations and required actions to ensure appropriate interim relief:

7. The defendants have pursued and continued to pursue policies and practices with respect to employment in the Department of Corrections that discriminate against females, deprive or tend to deprive females of employment opportunities, limit employment opportunities available to females, and adversely affect the status of females as employees because of their sex. Defendants have implemented these policies and practices, among other ways as follows:

    a. By traditionally following a practice of failing or refusing to recruit, hire, assign, transfer, and promote females on the same basis as males;

b.　By assigning and selecting females for certain positions separately from males and hiring and promoting them only to a limited number of positions;

c.　By subjecting female employees to different terms, conditions and privileges of employment because of their sex;

d.　By failing or refusing to take appropriate action to correct their discriminatory employment policies and practices.

8.　The acts, omissions, policies and practices of the Defendants described in the preceding paragraph constitute a pattern or practice of resistance to the full enjoyment by females of their rights to equal employment opportunities in the Department of Corrections without discrimination based upon sex. The pattern or practice is of such a nature and is intended to deny the full exercise of the rights secured by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended. Unless enjoined by order of this Court, the Defendants will continue to pursue policies ana practices that are the same as or similar to those alleged in this complaint.

WHEREFORE, Plaintiff prays for an order enjoining the Defendants, their officers, agents, employees, successors, and all persons in active concert or participation with them, from engaging in discriminatory practices based on sex with respect to employment in the Department of Corrections, and specifically from:

a.　Failing or refusing to recruit, hire, assign, transfer, and promote female employees and applicants for employment on the same basis as males;

b.　Assigning and selecting females for certain positions or locations separately from males and hiring and promoting females only to a limited number of positions or only at limited locations;

c.　Subjecting female employees to different and less favorable terms, conditions and privileges of employment because of their sex;

d.　Failing or refusing to eliminate all qualifications and standards for hiring, assignment or promotion that unlawfully discriminate on the basis of sex;

e.　Failing or refusing to make compensatory payments and to award retroactive seniority and other benefits to make them whole to female applicants and prospective applicants for employment and incumbent or former female employees who have been denied equal employment opportunities because of their sex;

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f.   *Failing or refusing to adopt and implement a recruitment program to inform women of equal employment opportunities available at the correctional institutions and facilities of the Department of Corrections and to attract qualified women to become correctional employees.*

Early in the discovery process, the Department of Justice filed a Request for Production of Documents (1986), which called for the department to provide materials currently available as detailed in a "Schedule of Documents" from 29 major correctional institutions for the period March 1972 to March 1987.

The discovery process continued with inspection and analysis of all documents provided by the department, a request by the department for production of documents from the Department of Justice, and other actions in preparation for trial which was set to begin October 28, 1991. The nature of evidence in support of the allegations, as set forth in the original complaint and identified during the process of discovery, motivated the department to move swiftly in the formulation and implementation of strategies to settle the case. Serious settlement discussions consumed a brief six months between May 14 and October 29, 1991, before a settlement was reached.

The Agreed Entry

The document of greatest significance to the success of the settlement is the Agreed Entry (Paul, 1991). This document is the governing authority for all activities undertaken to resolve the lawsuit. The Agreed Entry was accepted by both parties and the court as the final authority on all issues and actions deemed necessary to provide relief. It is important to note that acceptance of the Agreed Entry was not an admission of unlawful discrimination by the department which denied any unlawful discrimination.

The major provisions of the Agreed Entry, and violations of the Agreed Entry that may result in enforcement action, have been summarized by Assistant Florida Attorney General Lynda Quillen (1992):

1. Prohibits unlawful discrimination against employees, applicants, or potential applicants based upon gender.

2. Prohibits retaliation against an individual who has opposed alleged discrimination policies or practices, or has participated in or cooperated with the initiation, investigation, utilization or administration or the Agreed Entry.

3. Prohibits the unlawful discrimination against women in hiring, promotion, assignment and other employment policies and practices.

4. Requires the Department of Corrections to hire women in security positions in proportion to their interest in, and ability to qualify for such positions.

5. Requires the Department of Corrections to prevent, and take proper measures against any sexual harassment among employees.

6. Requires the Department of Corrections to continue affirmative efforts to expand career opportunities for women in the correctional field.

7. Requires the Department of Corrections to ensure that (through recruitment) the number of female applicants for promotion (in security) approximates their percentage representation in the jobs from which such promotions are made.

8. Requires that all correctional officer positions, shifts and assignments at all locations shall be open on an equal basis with men, except that under the Agreed Entry:

> A. Correctional officers will not be assigned to conduct a strip search on an inmate of the opposite sex; and

> B. The department may designate up to 25 percent of our security positions, posts, shifts and assignments which, in our view, should be staffed only by male correctional officers.

It must be emphasized that all provisions of the Agreed Entry are extremely important to the attainment of compliance and avoidance of future litigation. The actual document should be examined for information concerning all 52 provisions. Other provisions of the Agreed Entry (Paul, 1991) require the department to:

1. Provide 30 days written notice to the Department of Justice prior to modifying the minimum qualifications for correctional officers

2. Post a summary of the Agreed Entry at each corrections facility, with copies of the entire document available for taking at no cost in all department personnel offices

3. Consider all women currently serving as correctional offices eligible for promotion to correctional officer positions regardless of their lack of experience in areas involving contact with male inmates

4. Establish a "Settlement Fund" of $3,700,000 to satisfy all back pay claims of women entitled to these funds by virtue of their status as current or former correctional officers employed by the department who applied for employment as a correctional officer since January 1, 1983; met the minimum qualifications, however, were not hired as correctional officers based on gender; or, women who applied for a correctional officer position; met the minimum qualifications, however, were not hired based on gender; or, women currently employed by the department as

correctional officers, and promoted within the correctional officer series since January 1, 1983 and met the minimum qualifications for promotion, however, were not promoted to the position applied for based on gender; or, women currently serving in the department as correctional officers who applied for promotional opportunities in the correctional officer series since January 1, 1986 who met the minimum qualifications for promotion, however were not promoted to the position applied for based on gender

5. Establish a priority hire list based on the date of application, to hire qualified women who applied for employment within the correctional officer series since January 1, 1983 who were denied employment based on gender

6. Establish a priority promotion list based on date of application, to promote not more than 150 women currently employed by the department as correctional officers who applied for promotion to positions within the correctional officer series since January 1, 1986 but were not promoted based on gender

7. Provide retirement service credit and make employer contributions to the Florida Retirement System for back pay awards

8. Provide retroactive seniority credit to women awarded priority hiring or promotion upon achievement of permanent status in that position

9. Provide written notice of the settlement and a "Claim of Employment Discrimination" form by certified mail or department mail to all women who currently or previously served the department as correctional officers and all women who applied for correctional officer positions after January 1, 1983, but were not hired

10. On a semiannual basis, provide reports to the Department of Justice detailing the number and sex of all correctional officer entry-level and promotional applicants, those hired and promoted, those found ineligible for hire or promotion, and those who were terminated or resigned

11. On a semiannual basis, provide the total number, sex, post and shift of all correctional officers at each correctional institution

12. Upon compliance with all provisions of the Agreed Entry, or after four years from the date of entry into the Agreed Entry, which ever is later, the department must file a final written report which includes certification of compliance with all provisions. The department may be entitled to dismissal of this lawsuit 60 days after filing the final report unless the United States Department of Justice demonstrates good reason why dismissal should not occur.

Compliance Strategies and Operational Impact

The department is well on its way in the implementation of compliance strategies for successful resolution of this lawsuit. The planning and implementation process began in May 1992, even before endorsement of the Agreed Entry by the Court. After reviewing the major provisions of the Agreed

Entry, there was no doubt about the monumental effort required to accomplish this mission.

In the last few months since the endorsement of the Agreed Entry, the department has employed new staff, redirected the task of some existing staff, established a U.S.A. Case Project Administration Section, established a U.S.A. Case Database, allocated one inspector in each of five regions to investigate alleged civil rights violations including, any violations of the Agreed Entry, and begin conducting a host of training programs in support of various U.S.A. Case initiatives.

The Project Administration Section is a key instrument in the coordination of all activities related to achieving compliance with provisions of the Agreed Entry. This section was created to ensure implementation of all identified actions and strategies from claimant determination to database development to providing technical assistance to personnel officers and managers. The Project Administration Section has completed the mailing of 15,000 claim forms to potential claimants and coordinated the distribution of more than 7,300 claim forms to women currently employed by the department as correctional officers who are also considered potential claimants. All valid claims for monetary relief must be paid without objection; however, regardless of the number of valid claimants for monetary relief, the total amount distributed will be $3.7 million, plus interest earned thereon. The Project Administration Section has developed a database designed to aid in the implementation of the provisions of the Agreed Entry by providing claimant and applicant tracking. The data collected will be essential to the preparation of semiannual reports and the final report required by the Agreed Entry.

To facilitate monitoring, tracking, and completion of all activities and coordination, the Project Administration Section has developed an action plan and PERT Chart to illustrate the time frame in which these events and actions are planned to occur. This also highlights the relationship between specific events and actions.

The development and implementation of rules governing gender specific positions, posts and assignments were a critical requirement of the Agreed Entry that received immediate attention from the department. A proposed rule addressing this area was drafted, approved and implemented by September 17, 1992. Chapter 33-4.011, Florida Administrative Code (1992), entitled "Employment Gender Policy for Security Positions." It was created to comply with paragraph 8 of the Agreed Entry which stipulates that "all correctional officer positions, posts, shifts

and assignments at all department correctional facilities shall be open to women on an equal basis with men," except there is no requirement for correctional officers to strip search opposite sex inmates; and that the department is allowed to designate not more than 25% of correctional officer positions as gender specific. Considering that only 24% of the department's correctional officer work force was female at the issuance of the Agreed Entry, compliance with this provision may be the most significant operational impact resulting from the Agreed Entry. The department has already demonstrated that this provision is achievable by currently operating with only 16% of its correctional officer positions designated as gender specific.

The rule clearly states that the department will not engage in unlawful discrimination and will attempt to employ women in correctional officer positions in proportions approximating their interest and ability to qualify for such positions. The rule provides the Secretary of the department, or his designate, the authority to designate gender specific positions. The positions currently designated by the Secretary include all correctional officer positions requiring supervision of inmates in confinement areas and supervision of inmate work squads away from institutional grounds, both of which will be gender specific to the inmates being supervised. Additionally, all correctional officer positions at Union Correctional Institution and Florida State Prison, the department's maximum security institutions, are designated gender specific.

The employment of women in correctional officer positions proportionate to their interest and ability to qualify for such positions is yet another far reaching stipulation of the Agreed Entry and the department's rule governing gender specific employment. As previously indicated, the semiannual reports required by the Agreed Entry must include information concerning the number and sex of all applicants for positions in the correctional officer series and the number and sex of those hired, promoted, found ineligible, terminated or who resigned. Also, the number and sex of all persons employed in each correctional officer position are required. Analysis of this information should provide the means to determine the interest of women in serving as correctional officers and their ability to qualify for all positions in the correctional officer series. Full implementation of this provision should significantly increase the number of women serving at all correctional officer levels.

In response to affirmative efforts required by the Agreed Entry, the department has also developed and is currently

providing a specialized training program entitled, "Women Facing the Future" (1992). This training program is designed to provide the opportunity for women serving the department as correctional officers to enhance their professional skills in the supervision of male inmates, as well as their ability to work with and supervise male staff. All women currently serving as correctional officers and all women hired as correctional officers are required to complete this training program.

Sexual harassment training is also a requirement for all department staff. Training programs entitled "Appreciating Racial, Cultural, and Gender Diversity" and, "Managing a Racial, Cultural, and Gender Diverse Work Force" are also in-service training requirements for all department staff. These training programs include discussions addressing diversity in the work place, with particular emphasis on the emerging role of women and minorities in the current and future work force.

In addition to the placement of $3.7 million dollars in the Settlement Fund, the department has expended approximately $60,000 for mail and newspaper ads to notify potential claimants, $70,000 for computer equipment at major institutions to track required information, $70,000 for the development of computer software, $130,000 for salary and benefits for employees in the Project Administration section, and $100,000 to conduct sexual harassment training and the specialized training program. These expenses total approximately $4.13 million; however, employer retirement contributions and social security withholdings, among other items, can not be paid from the Settlement Fund. Therefore, the total expense to the department, the state of Florida and its taxpayers is certain to grow.

Conclusion

The current status of all strategies implemented for successful resolution of the Agreed Entry and dismissal of the lawsuit are on schedule or noticeably ahead of schedule. Department Secretary, Harry K. Singletary, Jr., has demonstrated outstanding leadership by sending the forceful message that the department will appropriately address all issues outlined in the Agreed Entry. He continually relates the importance of implementing and maintaining all provisions of the Agreed Entry and has dedicated the necessary resources to focus on details of each provision and strategy to ensure that nothing is overlooked or ignored.

Nontraditional employment practices involving women are increasingly becoming standard operating procedures. In discussing the department's progress in this area with Ron

Jones (personal conversation, January 7, 1993), Assistant Secretary of Operations for the department, it was my observation that he was very pleased and anxiously awaiting the announcement of even more progressive steps toward greater inclusion of women in all corrections professions. He could not wait to share with me that he had just recommended the appointment of the first woman to serve the department as Assistant Security Administrator in the Office of Operations. He was proud that the department was currently operating with only 16% of its correctional officer positions designated as gender specific; and he was supportive of further reductions of gender specific designations.

It is clear to all department employees and others interested in department activities that career opportunities are expanding for women working as correctional officers and all other positions available in the department.

The Agreed Entry is changing the traditional employment practices relating to how women will participate in the department's correctional officer work force. The Agreed Entry is changing the attitude of top managers and administrators concerning the utilization of women in all correctional officer performance areas. The Agreed Entry is changing the attitude of women in the corrections work place. The Agreed Entry is creating an environment where professional performance dictates the level of participation and ability to succeed rather than the gender of the employee. Secretary Singletary recently exclaimed:

> we will no longer measure one's performance based on the number of XX's or XY's they were born with, and that historical inequities in the use of women as   corrections professionals will continue to be addressed by sharing power, vision and duties among all work   force participants (personal conversation, January 7, 1993).

One area of caution and concern that the department has acknowledged is the negative attitude of some men who feel that efforts to enhance the work place for women will adversely impact their progress and status in the work place. Continuation of training programs designed to change the attitude and behavior of workers from one of merely tolerating racial, cultural, and gender diversity to one of appreciating racial, cultural, and gender diversity should go far in ensuring that this circumstance does not adversely impact department efforts to address inequities in the use of women as corrections professionals.

As the Florida Department of Corrections prepares for

the 21st century, the lessons of the past are clear, and the prospects for the future are bright. Employees of the Florida Department of Corrections know exactly what must be done to fully implement the provisions of the Agreed Entry. They are also aware of the strategies that must be employed to achieve and maintain compliance with the Agreed Entry. Current trends and conditions indicate that the creation of a work environment that encourages and values unlimited inclusion of women will be a reality in the Florida Department of Corrections.

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Development of Pre-Employment Psychological "Screening-In" Testing for Police Dispatchers

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This research seeks to determine whether psychological screening can be utilized as a valid tool in predicting whether police dispatcher candidates will be successful in the telecommunications field. A review of the literature reflected that only one similar research project on this topic has been conducted.

Dispatcher stress has been well documented. Also, the uniqueness and importance of that position, in conjunction with its integration to police work, is well known. Research and documentation regarding psychological testing for police officer candidates abounds. Therein lies the experience, foundation, and understanding needed not only for this research, but to substantiate results and to offer guidelines for the future. This study found that dispatcher applicants can be psychologically screened with marked differences exhibited between those candidates whose personality traits are similar to known outstanding dispatchers, and those candidates who exhibit serious psychological problems and/or personality traits not reflective of highly successful dispatchers.

Introduction

Past research indicates, and law enforcement recruitment history supports, that psychological screening has proven to be a valid, reliable tool in the selection process of applicants to the police ranks. Law enforcement candidates displaying gross psychopathology are "screened-out," i.e., eliminated by the process. Experience and refinements within law enforcement psychological testing programs over the past decade have produced advances which now enable psychologists to "screen-in" candidates. Not only are undesirables eliminated, but also, remaining candidates can be identified to those most suitable to be successful in the law enforcement career field. This research project focuses on the development of a pre-employment psychological "screening-in" profile for police dispatcher candidates, that may allow for the employment of individuals who are more ideally suited for their chosen field.

This research presents a review of the literature

containing information supporting the value of psychological screening for police officers, and also developmental test results from dispatchers participating in experimental research. The scope of this project allows the reader to have a basic insight into police psychological screening, which is a prerequisite to understanding the methodology behind the development of psychological test screening batteries for dispatcher applicants.

The findings and analysis should support one of two conclusions: 1) psychological testing of police dispatcher applicants can only serve as a screening-out elimination process, identifying only those who manifest gross psychopathology that would normally prohibit them from consideration for most any responsible employment; 2) a valid psychological profile can be developed that will enable the "screening-in" of dispatcher applicants. Not only will tests identify applicants with negative psychopathic personality traits, but further, the tests will designate applicants with certain characteristics suitable for the police dispatcher career field.

Glossary

<u>Screen Out</u>: used to reflect a selection alternative with candidates who demonstrate levels of undesirable personality characteristics, as compared to the general population (i.e., gross psychopathological traits).

<u>Screen In</u>: used to reflect a selection alternative with candidates who demonstrate levels of desired personality characteristics, as compared to demonstratively successful groups of individuals within the occupation for which the candidate is applying (i.e., critical law enforcement personality traits).

<u>Validity</u>: established through demonstrated relationships showing that the test actually measured that which it was intended to measure.

<u>Psychopathology</u>: behavioral dysfunction occurring in mental disorder, or social instability.

<u>Reliability</u>: Ability of the test to be repeated with the same group at a later date and achieve exact to similar result. This coefficient determines the extent of reliability pertaining to that particular group.

Problem Statement

Today, police communications centers not only serve as the time honored axiom of "police officers' life lines," but they also provide the primary initial answering point for the public seeking assistance and service. Although that first contact directly reflects an agency's image, attention to personnel assigned to communication centers has not kept pace with the enhancements allocated to sworn staff.

The Associated Public Safety Communications Officers, Incorporated, Florida Chapter (APCO) has not been unique in its efforts to professionalize telecommunications personnel, but it became a forerunner by gaining legislative training guidelines in 1982. Florida APCO had become disturbed by increasing reports that telecommunicators had failed to respond efficiently and expeditiously. Its study found that the average attrition rate of telecommunicators was in excess of 30%. Job dissatisfaction was related to low salary, job stress, and working conditions; and there was a lack of formalized training (APCO, 1980).

Telecommunications has historically been characterized in two ways. First, there is the positive "nerve center" perspective that demonstrates great respect for communications as being a vital and demanding component of the law enforcement and public safety mission. This position is held not only by

communications personnel, but also by virtually everyone who has studied and consulted on the role of communications. Second, there is the negative perspective with negative labels such as "second class citizens" and "step children" (Shenkman, 1986). However, through the efforts of APCO and concerned police administrators, the tide has changed, and more training programs are being established.

A survey of 13 randomly selected Florida law enforcement agencies, conducted by the Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office in early 1991, found extensive training requirements for dispatchers in all but four agencies. Programs range from 40 to 80 hour classroom sessions with combinations of on the job training requirements (Widdoes, Loper, & Heron, 1991). Such trends indicate that professional police agencies will continue to train dispatchers as 911 centers increase, communications consoles become more comprehensive and complex, and lawsuits become more prevalent.

Although training has been a major positive factor in the upgrading of telecommunications staff, there are two prevalent factors which delay progress. These two factors are directly related to this research project. The two factors are stress and the hiring process.

Much has been documented regarding telecommunicator stress. The type of work required of dispatchers is unique and demanding because of confinement, uncontrolled work flow, and periods of boredom, interspersed with moments of critical emergencies, shift work, irate callers, recorded conversations, work overload, and a totally reactive job function. Administrators can relate to the personnel problems associated with communication centers. Excessive disciplinary cases, abuse of sick time, high error rates, and poor attitudes are all symptoms of stress related conditions and lead to high turnover rates.

Of the 13 agencies in the State of Florida surveyed by the Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office, it was clear that only minimum qualifications are expected when hiring dispatchers. Although they vary from agency to agency, hiring processes include a written exam for reading comprehension, minimal clerical skills such as typing 20 words a minute, basic math, oral interview questions, and a minimal background check. It is obvious that police telecommunications candidates are selected under basic qualification standards, and are placed in low profile, high stress positions with performance expectations of serious magnitude.

The problem addressed by this research is the need to improve the "quality" of persons hired as police dispatchers. "Quality" refers only to the suitability of the individual for this particular career field. The more appropriate and adaptable the candidate is to the job, the greater the benefit derived by both the employee and the agency.

In the past, researchers have applied psychological testing to law enforcement dispatchers only once. This project assumes that augmenting the selection process by adding another dimension of pre-employment psychological testing will aid in hiring candidates whose psychological profile is compatible to a dispatcher's career. A reduction of stress and stress-related personnel problems may then be achieved. Reducing numbers of persons hired into positions of incompatibility would certainly be a positive enhancement and should have a positive impact on turnover rates.

This research is designed to determine whether a valid psychological profile can be established that will reflect personality traits of successful dispatchers. If successful, utilization of psychological testing as a pre-employment "screening-in" tool would be intrinsically valuable.

Review of the Literature
In 1988, Moriarty and Field suggested that psychological testing may be the answer in fitting the person to the job. As of this writing, the author and his associates, both in the law enforcement field and psychology profession, are aware of only one clinical research project involving the psychological testing of police dispatchers for job suitability. In 1982, Martin Reiser compared a sample of 40 working Radio Telephone Operators (RTO). The RTO's were divided by knowledgeable administrator's into an "excellent" and a "poor" group of 20 each, based on past performance. Both groups were comparable in terms of age, education level, marital status, and experience. The two groups were compared using the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) to determine measurable differences between those operators identified as "excellent" and those labeled as "poor." The CPI was administered to the groups by a trained clerical person using the standardized procedure. A T-test of significance between mean scores was computed for the two groups on each trait. Of the 18 personality traits measured by the CPI, six were found to significantly differentiate between the two groups. On five of the six measures, the "poor" group scored lower than the "excellent" group.

The poor group scored lower, at the .01 level of

significance, on tolerance (To), and well-being (Wb). Traits associated with low scores on tolerance are suspiciousness, aloofness, wariness, passiveness, excessive judgmentalness, and distrust. Related to low scores on well-being are lack of ambition and a leisurely, apathetic, and constricted approach in thought and action (Reiser, 1982).

In light of these findings, it is the opinion of this author that a replication of this research would produce a viable mechanism enabling law enforcement agencies to selectively "screen-in" law enforcement dispatcher candidates.

In times of increased litigation, demands for job excellence, and organizational standards, the horizon reflects more attention being focused on the telecommunicator. The advent of centralized 911 systems has done much to increase the awareness of the vital role played out daily by police dispatchers. With the knowledge of their importance in the police process, comes heightened levels of public expectation and demand for effectiveness and efficiency. Historically, police psychological testing was derived to meet those evolving expectations of trust and competency. In order to establish a foundation for this research, it was imperative to delve into the arena of police psychological screening. There, the history, the justifications, and the testing instruments that allow for this expanded research, can be found.

As early as 1954, a psychiatrist employed by the City Personnel Department (Civil Service) in Los Angeles, California, conducted psychological-psychiatric testing as part of the screening procedure for potential police officers. Without a valid psychological profile of a successful police applicant, the approach was to "screen-out" those considered to be emotionally unfit to function as a police officer, rather than trying to "select-in" those with desired personality traits and aptitudes (Reiser, 1982).

However, it wasn't until the mid to late 1960's that police officer candidate testing began to develop. In 1967, the Presidential Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice issued a report entitled, "The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society." This comprehensive study documented the evolution of policing, and also reported on the practices of selection, training, promotion, and management techniques. Recommendations for major innovations in all areas were advanced. In this regard, it is an historic document that attempted to address the fundamental conflict between the need for the police and the misuse of police power. The report also addressed and legitimized emotional stability of police officer candidates as

a necessary standard; psychological tests and interviews to determine emotional stability should be conducted by all departments, administered only by trained professionals (Benner, 1986).

The Commission reported that many of the screening criteria in the police officer selection process, such as physical requirements, education, credit history, and background checks, had a limited effect. The criteria did not necessarily identify potential good police officers. Psychological testing represented a new positive tool.

> Since the mid-1960's, candidates for law enforcement training have been psychologically screened for personality problems in many police departments. The actual number of agencies participating has been unclear but recent estimates in 1990, suggest that more than 50 percent of the major police agencies (those serving cities of over 100,000 population) make use of the psychological screening process. This is up from an approximate 20 percent utilization in the late 1970's. While doubts still lurk, such processes are generally accepted as a valuable service. (Bennett, 1990, p. 23)

The Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies (1987) stated:

> ...law enforcement work is highly stressful and places officers in positions and situations of heavy responsibility. Psychiatric and psychological assessments are needed to screen out candidates who might not be able to carry out their responsibilities or endure the stress of the working conditions. The Commission on Accreditation has set a mandatory standard that an emotional stability and psychological fitness examination of each candidate be conducted, prior to appointment or probationary status, using valid useful and nondiscriminatory procedures. And further, that only qualified professionals be used to assess the emotional stability and psychological fitness of candidates.

A report to the Florida Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission indicated that 43% of more than 4,300 police and correctional officers hired between October 1, 1990 and August 15, 1991 underwent psychological exams ("Police applicant testing," 1991).

The history of police officer candidate screening has actually evolved through three relatively distinct generations or stages. The first generation emphasized the use of intuition and expertise in hopes that a competent psychologist or seasoned police administrator would simply be able to spot a "bad apple." This was devoid of consistency.

The second generation was characterized by the

marketing of standardized tests and the development of norms based on deviant populations. The challenge was to compare the officer candidates to various groups of clinically disturbed people, rejecting those who presented a good match. The standardized MMPI tests have proven most suitable in determining personal psychopathology. This involved the process of "screening-out" those unsuited for police work. The question that remained unanswered was whether those candidates not "screened-out" would have the personality profiles suitable for police work. Selecting candidates, therefore was done by default.

The third generation is the current generation of testing. Psychologists have taken standardized testing and normed them to police work (Moriarty & Field, 1989).

Testing batteries used for law enforcement candidates may vary from psychologist to psychologist. For example, a typical battery could include a Psychological History, Rotter's Incomplete Sentence Blanks, Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation Behavior (FIRO-B), Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, Inwald Personality Inventory, and California Psychological Inventory (CPI), described at left.

Of paramount importance to this research, is the understanding that tests must be standard in nature and form. In other words, the tests do not change, nor are they modified when applied to different job groups. As an example, psychologists may use an Inwald, MMPI-2, and CPI test battery on potential police officer applicants and potential security guard applicants for a nuclear power plant. The MMPI-2 could typically reflect individuals with gross psychopathology or personality traits outside normal limits as compared to extensive past study results of the general population and deviant personalities. Beyond that, the CPI could typically identify differences in normal specific personality traits as compared to extensive past studies of the general

population. "Screening-out" takes place with the MMPI-2; "screening-in" is associated with the CPI. In the diverse career fields, the psychologist would be examining for differences in personality traits identified by the CPI. The security guard position may call for a quiet, passive, reserved individual, not one to make independent decisions, with limited verbal skills. For the law enforcement position, the higher test scores should be on certain scales such as independence, verbal skills, assertiveness, persuasiveness, poise, logic, and stress tolerance. The standardized CPI test reflecting personality variance in the general population would reflect the differences in applicant personalities.

The psychologist can now evaluate the performance of an individual ranging from the MMPI-2 (gross psychopathology), CPI (general personality traits), and Inwald (police-related personality traits).

There is no definitive clinical research indicating dispatchers have been group tested to determine if certain specific personality traits exist between successful and nonsuccessful dispatchers. As with law enforcement applicants (except as noted in the refinements of the Inwald Personality Inventory), a new test need not be created, only the application of standard models against the two groups of dispatchers is desired.

The third generation of pre-employment psychological testing received national attention and was sanctioned by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, which hosted a World Conference on Police Psychology in Quantico, Virginia in 1985. Based on research stemming from the conference, the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) Psychology Section unanimously approved a set of standards in 1987, which serve as guidelines for comprehensive psychological screening programs.

The IACP strongly recommends, as do the other psychology professionals associated with this field, that pre-employment psychological assessments should be used only as one component of the overall selection process. Written test results should not be used as the sole determining factor for a "hire/no hire" decision.

Inwald (1983) noted that "arguments in favor of psychological testing have become stronger in recent years and since it is unlikely that psychological testing will be banned and/or discontinued as a screening device, professionals must reach some consensus regarding minimum standards for conducting testing programs."

A review of the literature supports that psychological services for selection of police recruits has developed into a valid and reliable system. Professional psychologists in the

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field are cognizant of and practice methods to ensure that standards are maintained. This research was conducted so that valid and reliable psychological testing of police dispatch applicants could be developed to enhance the selection process.

Methodology

Communications Center supervisors at the Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office in Tampa, Florida, identified the 32 top performing dispatchers. The supervisors also recommended 26 dispatchers from "everyone left over," or those not chosen as outstanding. The groups were further broken down by gender to determine if different predictors exist for male and female employees. There were too few noncaucasians to statistically analyze for race differences. However, a breakdown was conducted for educational level (high school and below, versus college level) (Skotko, 1992). These dispatchers were then administered a battery of psychological tests:

- Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI-2)
- California Psychological Inventory (CPI)
- Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B)
- Psychosocial History

Psychologists conducting the tests were supplied with a complete job analysis profile of dispatcher tasks. The authors in this study sought to address the question of whether psychological tests can be of use in predicting which individuals will perform best in a dispatching position. There would have to be a marked difference in the scores on the various personality scales between Group 1 and Group 2, in order to claim a success in this endeavor.

Findings

An analysis of variance was conducted on relevant scales for all tests. For the MMPI-2, the three validity scales and ten (10) clinical scales, as well as the supplemental scales A, R, Es, Mac-R, 0-H, Do, Re, Si1, Si2 were analyzed (see Table 1).

MMPI-2 analysis showed that the scores reflected male-female differences and a significant group difference on the Pa scale only.

Male-female differences were found to be present on four validity scales -- K, Mf, and the supplemental scales A and Es. These differences are consistent with what would be expected in the general population and offer no special

Table 1 Group Means for MMPI-2 (Raw Scores)				
Scale	Group 1 (N=32)	Group 2 (N=26)	Main Effects	Other Effects
L	3.8(1.7)	4.6(2.6)		
F	3.3(2.7)	4.4(5.5)		
K	16.0(5.3)	15.5(4.8)	Males>Females[a]	
Hs	7.1(5.2)	5.0(4.1)		GroupxGender[a]
D	19.2(3.7)	17.4(4.7)		GroupxGender[a]
Hy	23.0(3.6)	20.5(6.2)		GroupxGender[b]
Pd	16.5(4.4)	16.0(5.2)		
Mf	31.0(6.3)	29.8(5.7)	Females>Males[b]	
Pa	10.1(2.6)	8.5(2.9)	Group1>Group2[a]	
Pt	9.9(7.0)	9.5(6.6)		
Sc	9.4(6.4)	9.6(8.7)		
Ma	16.6(3.3)	18.2(4.2)		
Si	24.7(8.5)	23.7(9.4)		
A	7.3(7.5)	7.7(7.6)	Females>Males[a]	
R	15.7(3.5)	15.5(4.2)		
Es	37.2(5.3)	36.6(5.6)	Males>Females[a]	
Mac-R	21.1(3.5)	221.(3.8)		
O-H	14.0(2.3)	14.3(2.5)		
Do	16.7(2.3)	15.7(2.7)		
Re	20.7(2.6)	20.3(3.7)		
Si1	4.8(4.0)	4.3(3.6)		
Si2	2.8(2.3)	2.8(2.4)		
[a] p<.05 [b] p<.01				

meaning. Coping skills are measured by the K scale. Mf measures masculine-feminine interests. The A scale is a general measure of anxiety and Es is a measure of ego strength.

The only group difference was identified in the Pa scale which is a measure of social sensitivity in subclinical ranges. This finding is also consistent with CPI results.

FIRO-B scores presented no significant differences except that successful dispatchers in Group 1 emerged as being more comfortable in social situations than the dispatchers in Group 2. The FIRO-B differences were overall insignificant.

The CPI scoring analysis showed a significant difference between the two groups in 14 out of 18 subscales (see Table 2, next page). A review of the main effects indicates that Group 1 dispatchers appeared more comfortable in positions of power and authority, have a stronger sense of self, and are much more sociable than individuals from Group 2. They also reflect greater self acceptance, social responsibility, and emotional control. Group 1, additionally, is more likely to work better independently and appear to tolerate ambiguity less well and prefer more structure than Group 2 individuals (American Psychological Association, 1985). The CPI did not indicate gender differences in its results.

No significant difference between the two groups was found in the amount of time on the job or with education.

Conclusion

While there were some statistical differences, the MMPI-2 failed to find any practical, meaningful effects. The

Table 2 Group Means for CPI (Raw Scores)				
Scale	Group 1 (N=32)	Group 2 (N=26)	Main Effects	Other Effects
Dominance	29.7(5.2)	23.8(6.3)	Group 1>Group2[b]	
Capacity for Status	20.5(4.4)	17.0(3.7)	Group 1>Group2[b]	
Sociability	25.4(5.0)	22.0(5.6)	Group 1>Group2[a]	
Social Presence	34.5(8.6)	25.8(6.5)	Group 1>Group2[b]	
Responsibility	30.7(3.8)	25.7(4.7)	Group 1>Group2[a]	
Socialization	36.9(4.3)	30.7(5.1)	Group 1>Group2[b]	Group x Gender[a]
Self Control	32.8(6.2)	23.9(5.9)	Group 1>Group2[b]	
Good Impression	21.3(6.5)	24.0(5.4)		
Communality	26.0(1.8)	33.2(5.6)	Group 1>Group2[b]	
Well Being	37.8(3.9)	31.7(5.8)	Group 1>Group2[b]	
Tolerance	23.1(6.5)	21.2(4.8)		
Achievement via Conformity	30.2(3.6)	29.4(5.0)		
Achievement via Independence	20.2(3.9)	22.9(5.4)		
Intellectual Efficiency	38.0(5.3)	30.3(4.7)	Group 1>Group 2[b]	
Psychological Mindedness	12.6(2.7)	17.1(3.4)	Group 1>Group2[b]	
Flexibility	8.2(4.7)	11.2(4.5)	Group 1>Group2[a]	
Femininity/ Masculinity	19.5(3.9)	14.5(4.1)	Group 1>Group2[b]	Females>Males[b]
[a] p<.05 [b] p<.01				

absence of those effects may represent an accurate picture of both groups in that MMPI-2 is most sensitive to identifying gross psychopathology. It may well be concluded that as compared to the general population, both groups simply were not pathological.

Scale differences on the FIRO-B were insignificant and therefore, did not support the hypothesis.

CPI emerges as a useful discriminator. The research tested two groups of dispatchers to determine whether a psychological profile of highly successful dispatchers would emerge. This clearly happened with the CPI showing the greatest strength in its ability to identify differences between the two groups.

The usefulness of the CPI as a potential predictor was further substantiated by a lack of gender difference on this measure. Also, no significant difference between the two groups was found in the amount of time on the job or education (see Table 3). This is vitally important because it shows the test scores tapping into more chronic personality features that are independent of length of employment or level of education.

The differences identified by the CPI are quite strong and pervasive indicating that psychological testing, at the applicant stage, is likely to be of value in identifying individuals who are more likely to achieve success in the area of police dispatching.

This research was not conducted under preconceived

ideas that it would be successful. The results have so impressed Dr. Vince Skotko, contract psychologist to the Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office, that all new dispatcher candidates will be tested with the CPI instrument as part of the candidate selection process.

Certainly, this individual research project does not mean an end to further research regarding psychological testing with dispatchers. Rather, it expectantly will encourage more examination and refinements. Retests of the same two groups to establish reliability is an area for consideration.

Given enough lapsed time to ensure sufficient justification, the CPI may be administered to both groups to determine if different scores or patterns will emerge. Additionally, Dr. Skotko is considering a retest of both groups with MMPI to re-evaluate the results. Any expanded research, to widen knowledge and enhance adaptability of the instruments, either within the Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office or beyond, is certainly encouraged.

The research results of this project may serve as a catalyst for professional psychologists assigned to other law enforcement agencies. By utilizing CPI, they can employ the same criterion validity model testing their "most successful" dispatchers and "other" groups. It is important to realize that there may be a variance in personality scales and results based on the difference in dispatchers from one jurisdiction to another. A successful dispatcher at an agency as large as the Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office may need to possess personality traits that are different from a successful dispatcher at a very small agency. Further, the personality differences of the two groups of dispatchers tested within the smaller agency may not vary significantly between each other. Because of differences in job responsibilities between agencies, profiles need to be developed locally. Until vast clinical testing is accomplished, no standard measure such as a counterpart to the law enforcement Inwald test, is likely to emerge.

Systematic development of a psychological profile and subsequent validation of the profile for civilian employees is a necessary prerequisite for implementation of a pre-employment screening program. Unlike sworn personnel, no existing database or body of scientific literature exists for selecting pre-employment measures. Therefore, it is

Table 3 Group Means for Demographic Variables				
Scale	Group 1 (N=32)	Group 2 (N=26)	Main Effects	Other Effects
Age	38.0(9.8)	35.7(10.2)		
Jobtime	4.1(1.2)	3.6(1.1) (N=25)		Group x Gender[a]

[a] $p < .05$
NOTE: for Jobtime, 3 = one to three years, 4 = three to five years

important to establish local norms which can be used to defend the choice and use of such measures in a selection process (Gamache, 1991).

As referenced earlier in the Review of Literature portion of this paper, psychological testing of police dispatchers has found its basis in the plateau reached in the third generation of police officer candidate testing. The same approach should be followed for dispatchers, as stipulated for police officers, under the International Association of Chiefs of Police Guidelines.

Psychologists, through their work with police candidates, have paved the road for development and research into the arena of dispatching. Dispatchers are police officers' life-line. Therefore, potential dispatchers should receive as much prescreening as professionally possible.

Most importantly, it should be recognized that psychology is not an exact science, nor are professional police administrators tasked with personnel decisions considered scientists. Harrison Gough, the creator of the California Personality Inventory (CPI), summed this:

> *Let us have tests and instruments which are relevant to life and true to life, and let us have users of these tools who possess the talent, the training, and the integrity to interpret them validly and with creative insight (Megaree, 1972).*

Addendum

The Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office initially tested the first group of 32 dispatchers under the guidance of Michael P. Gamache, Ph.D., in August 1991. The CPI test administered was the model established in 1954.

The second group of 26 dispatchers was tested under the guidance of Vincent P. Skotko, Ph.D., in January 1992. A change in contract had occurred after the first group was tested, which necessitated the change of psychologists. Dr. Skotko administered the 1987 CPI Version.

While these two instruments are very similar, they are not identical and can not be directly compared. Unfortunately, it was not until the research was complete and all documentation had been submitted that it was discovered by Dr. Skotko that different versions of the CPI had been administered.

Certainly, the results can not now be considered valid because different tests were utilized.

An attempt was made to duplicate conditions for a retest. It was discovered that during the 8-10 months period between the administering of the test batteries and the discovery of the error, 9 of 26(35%) dispatchers from Group 2

were no longer employed. Of Group 1, only 3 of 32(9%) had left.

Complete retesting was conducted on the remaining members of both groups utilizing CPI (1987 Version) and MMPI-2. Test results reflected no significant differences in the CPI scores between the "outstanding" group of dispatchers and the group identified as "not outstanding." This seems to be in conflict with the Reiser Study cited earlier and the results of this research paper. However, significant is the fact that 9 of the 26 dispatchers (35%) in Group II had left employment by the time the second round of testing occurred. In contrast, only 3 of 32 dispatchers (9%) previously rated as outstanding had left employment. Although not scientifically supported, these facts tend to support the hypothesis that psychological evaluation may well be an effective tool in identifying those individuals most likely to be successful in the dispatching field.

Tests results on the MMPI reflected significant differences, which were not the case with MMPI-2 in the original test segment. MMPI may emerge as a useful screening-out tool. However, rather than expound on its value at this time, it will further be examined at a later date. This research project will continue. In the near future, two new groups will be identified, (outstanding dispatchers and not outstanding dispatchers) and complete testing will be conducted utilizing MMPI and CPI (1987 Version). Those results will be analyzed, evaluated, and documented.

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Law Enforcement Accreditation: The Desirable Future or Just Another Passing Phase?

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This exploratory field study sought the opinions of the chief executive officers of 228 law enforcement agencies in North America about agency accreditation. Each of these agencies has been accredited through the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Inc. (CALEA). Their opinions were solicited through a single mail questionnaire to determine the viability of their agencies remaining with CALEA, seeking an alternative accrediting agency, or foregoing accreditation in the future. This study found that, although there are problems with accreditation, there is overwhelming support for the process in general and for CALEA specifically.

Introduction

The question addressed in this study is twofold: will the trend of accreditation continue to become the "desirable future" (Morrison, Renfro, & Boucher, 1984) of law enforcement agencies, and should the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Inc., (CALEA) continue to be the authority for that accreditation?

Law enforcement agencies in the United States and Canada have long sought the goal of professionalism. Every blue ribbon commission dealing with law enforcement has called for this professionalism. It was many years after the 1929 Wickersham Commission before concrete steps would be taken to establish the professional standards by which all law enforcement agencies in the United States and Canada could be measured (Tafoya, 1986).

The Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 created the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA). In September 1979, LEAA awarded a grant to the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) to develop and maintain an accreditation program for law enforcement agencies (Dean, 1980). In December of that year, IACP, working with the National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives, the National Sheriff's

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Association, and the Police Executive Research Forum, founded the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Inc. (CALEA) (Cotter, 1985).

In May 1984, CALEA accredited its first law enforcement agency (Mount Dora, Florida) and, as of August 1992, a total of 228 agencies in the United States and Canada have achieved the standards of professionalism as set out by CALEA.

Literature Review

Preliminary research was conducted on accreditation through extensive reading. Over 84 articles on the subject dating back to 1980 were found in such periodicals as The National Sheriff Magazine, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, Crime Control Digest, CALEA Commission Update, The Police Chief, and Law and Order.

In 1989, the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) published Making the Grade: The Benefits of Law Enforcement Accreditation, by Chief Gerald L. Williams of the Aurora, Colorado Police Department. The PERF discussion paper is an abridged version of Chief Williams' 1988 doctoral dissertation.

In his dissertation, Chief Williams studied various law enforcement agencies which had been accredited, or were in the process as of December 31, 1986:

> The premise of the study is that the national accreditation program, by mandating an in-depth organizational self-assessment and compliance with nationally developed standards, is addressing two of the major prerequisites of organizational professionalization. (Williams, 1989, p vii)

Chief Williams designed a questionnaire to gauge the impact of accreditation in four areas:

- Delineation of agency goals and policies
- Use of deadly force
- Police pursuits
- The collection and preservation of evidence.

The questionnaire also asked for information on agency characteristics, the direct and indirect costs of accreditation, the changes that had occurred as a result of accreditation, and the benefits and disadvantages of accreditation for police personnel, the agency as a whole, and the community. Finally, the chief executives were asked whether they would seek reaccreditation (Williams, 1989).

Chief Williams' discoveries are interesting and enlightening, however, the concerns of this study are mainly

the "also asked" information on Chief Williams' questionnaire. A real test of the worth of any action or program is the answer to the question, "would you do it again?" Chief Williams asked the question, "Will you initiate and follow through with reaccreditation when your initial five years has expired?" One agency did not respond to the question. The remaining agencies said they would seek reaccreditation when their current five-year accreditation expired.

As no agency in his study indicated that it would not seek reaccreditation, it can be inferred, except for the one who failed to answer, that the rest were committed to seek reaccreditation. However, since his survey, several of these agencies have withdrawn from CALEA. This seems fairly significant if it represents a reversal of an agency's determination to remain committed to the accreditation process. Of special significance is the withdrawal of the San Diego County, California, Sheriff's Office from the process.

The San Diego County Sheriff's Office participated in Chief Williams' study, and Sheriff John F. Duffy wrote the foreword to Chief Williams' PERF discussion paper. Duffy was Sheriff of San Diego County in 1986, when the office "became the largest agency in the nation to achieve accreditation" (Williams, 1989). At the time he wrote the foreword, Sheriff Duffy was serving as chairman of the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Inc.

In March, 1990, Wayne I. McCoy, of the Westerville, Ohio, Division of Police, produced Stop the Rhetoric: Can Accreditation Really Work? for the FBI National Academy. In his study, McCoy addressed the question, "Is accreditation viable for the law enforcement community?" To accomplish this, he designed a questionnaire to provide insight into the 'benefits and difficulties of the accreditation process." The questionnaire was sent to 35 randomly chosen agencies involved in the accreditation process. Of the 35 agencies, 32 returned their questionnaires. Seventeen of the responding agencies were accredited at the time and 15 were not.

Of the 17 accredited agencies, six have achieved reaccreditation and the remaining 11 have not reached the five year reaccreditation point as of this writing. None have withdrawn.

Of the 15 agencies who were "in the process," three have been accredited, four have withdrawn from the process and no longer seek accreditation through CALEA. Eight have not achieved accreditation as of May 1992, although some have been "in the process" for over two years.

In his study, McCoy discussed the "dark side" of the

accreditation process. His study indicated that for every agency that identified positive benefits of accreditation, each agency also identified problem areas. Although his study highlighted a long list of difficulties with the accreditation process, he states "this list of difficulties is not insurmountable. They are realities that must be dealt with if an agency is to receive accreditation. Awareness of and preparation for known problems will decrease the number of bad surprises in the process" (McCoy, 1990).

He concluded that there are "obvious, substantial benefits to be gained" by the accreditation process, but "if the decision is made to pursue accreditation, it must be made with adequate resources, political commitment, and great confidence in the ability and willingness of all of the agency's personnel" (McCoy, 1990).

In 1990, the Florida Statistical Analysis Center of the Florida Department of Law Enforcement (FDLE) conducted a survey of Florida chiefs of police who were members of the Florida Police Chiefs Association. Of the 167 agencies who replied to the survey, 129 (77.25%) were not accredited nor were they involved in the accreditation process.

Of the 167 departments which responded, 63% felt that police departments should be accredited. Several mentioned problems associated with the direct (funds) and indirect (personnel) costs involved with accreditation, and the majority of respondents (70.06%) agreed that state revenue should be available to local agencies for accreditation. More than half felt that Florida should develop its own accreditation program.

In addition to this preliminary research, numerous key people involved with law enforcement accreditation were interviewed for their input: Michael Brown, Legislative Aide to the Honorable James Moran, Democrat, Virginia, author of the Law Enforcement Responsibility Act of 1991; Captain Tony O'Brien, President of the Florida Police Accreditation Coalition; Chief Lee McGehee of the Ocala, Florida, Police Department; and Sergeant Ward D. Rheintgen of the Northfield, Illinois, Police Department, who is conducting similar research for a master's thesis.

Research Methodology

The goal of this study was to survey law enforcement agencies accredited by the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Inc. (CALEA) in order to get their opinions, experiences, and feelings on various subjects dealing with law enforcement accreditation in general, and specifically with CALEA.

To answer the two-part question of this study, a survey

Table 1
Respondents by
Number of Years Accredited

Years Accredited	# Respondents
0 - 1.49	37
1.50 - 2.49	26
2.50 - 3.49	34
3.50 - 4.49	33
4.50 - 5.49	26
5.50 - 6.49	20
6.50 - 7.49	14
7.50+	9

Years accredited is based on the date of first accreditation by the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Inc. (CALEA) to August 10, 1992.

Table 2
Respondents by Agency Size

Agency Size	Number of Respondents
1 - 9	0
10 - 24	10
25 - 49	29
50 - 199	87
200 - 599	38
600 - 999	18
1000 - 2999	14
3000+	4

Table 3
Respondents by Agency Type

Agency Type	# Accredited	# Respondents
Police Dept	181	155
Sheriff's Ofc	32	30
Other	15	15

questionnaire was mailed to the chief executives of the 228 organizations that had achieved accreditation through CALEA between May 1984 and July 1992. In addition, the results of those responding to the survey were compared against existing data on accreditation in general and CALEA specifically.

In July, 1992, a questionnaire of 57 questions was tested with members of the Charter Class of the Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute, Senior Leadership Program; the Florida Department of Law Enforcement Statistical Analysis Center; and selected members of the St. Johns County Sheriff's Office.

As a result of the feedback received from the pilot test mentioned above, a final questionnaire of 59 questions was developed. A Likert-style format was chosen due to the severe time restraints of most chief executive officers and the necessity that the questionnaire be self-administered. In addition, this format is much easier to code (deVaus, 1986). An attempt to overcome the disadvantages inherent with this format was made by providing space for respondents to comment.

Anticipating that many chief executive officers would be reluctant to personally fill out another survey, a letter asking their cooperation and participation in the survey was sent by Sheriff Neil J. Perry to each chief executive officer.

Responses were received from 200 of these agencies resulting in a respectable 87.72% response rate. (A breakdown of these agencies is given in Tables 1 - 3, at left.) Of the eight agencies listed by CALEA as withdrawn, responses were received from seven (87.50%). Their answers were included with the agencies not listed as withdrawn. It is suspected that there are more agencies who consider themselves withdrawn than are shown on the CALEA list, but not many more, as the percentages of statements dealing with this subject appears to be between 4% and 6% which is consistent with the "withdrawn"

percentage of 3.51% shown by CALEA.

The high response rate means that survey responses generally represent the attitudes of both accredited and withdrawn agencies. The distribution of responses does not indicate that a specific group is dissatisfied with accreditation or has concerns about the questions on the survey.

The questionnaire was designed to provoke response. Some of the questions were phrased in a confrontational manner in order to stir respondents' emotions. There was no hidden agenda in the survey. The sole objective of the study was to get to the honest feelings of the respondents. Honest feelings are sometimes very difficult to uncover in an area that is fraught with political pitfalls.

To illustrate the dilemma, an agency which had received the survey asked if there would be any way that the respondents could be identified in the finished study, because the agency was concerned that its governing body would be displeased if it knew how the agency really felt about accreditation. Even with personal assurances of anonymity, the agency decided not to respond. The chief feared the department might be identified during analysis by agency size or state. Other agencies refused to respond because of suspected bias contained in the survey.

Of the 200 completed questionnaires received, 84 submitted comments. In many cases it was difficult to determine who had actually written the comments. The best estimate is that approximately 50 percent were written by the chief executive officer and 50 percent were written either by the current accreditation manager or a senior staff assistant. In all cases, it is assumed that the comments were approved by the chief executive officer prior to transmittal. It is possible that these comments, even more than the questionnaire results, indicated the "bedrock" feelings of the law enforcement accredited agencies in North America.

Data Analysis

Responses were analyzed by agency type and size, years accredited, and subject groups. (A complete copy of the survey and total responses is provided in Appendix A, at the end of this paper.) During analysis the two largest agency size categories were consolidated in order to reduce the possibility of determining the identity of a particular agency with a particular question.

The results of applicable questions of previous studies were compared to the results of like questions in this study. The sample size of the FDLE survey is somewhat similar to the sample size of this study. Whereas this study dealt on an

national scale exclusively with agencies which had achieved accreditation the FDLE survey dealt only with Florida police departments, of which most were not accredited nor involved in the accreditation process.

These differences notwithstanding, it is interesting to note that 138 out of 167 respondents in the FDLE survey felt that police departments should be accredited, but only 38 were actually accredited or were involved in the process. Of the 100 agencies not accredited or involved in the process, the most commonly cited reasons for not seeking accreditation were:

1. Too costly in time and money, especially for small agencies
2. Supports state accreditation
3. Benefits don't justify the costs
4. Don't believe in concept
5. Not flexible to geographical location
6. No proof it helps
7. Standards too broad.

By far the reason most stated for not seeking accreditation was that it was too costly in time, money, and staffing, especially for small agencies. The argument has not been substantiated by this study, as 30 of the 39 agencies (76.92%) with 10 to 49 employees reported that reaccreditation is worth the money. In addition, 28 of these same agencies (71.79%) reported that the manpower requirements necessary to maintain accreditation status is an acceptable cost. Only 2 of the 39 (5.12%) indicated that they would be able to eliminate at least one position should they drop accreditation. The majority of the agencies (employing 10 to 49) who responded to this study disagreed with the above statements, except for number 2.

The actual experiences of the smaller agencies should give some hope to these agencies that accreditation can be accomplished at an acceptable cost.

The second most stated comment in the FDLE study is that many chiefs are not supportive of a national accreditation for law enforcement, but are supportive of a state run accreditation process. Of the agencies with 10 to 49 employees responding to this survey, only 13 out of 39 (33.33%) would consider a statewide accrediting body in addition to CALEA, or support a state process should CALEA fail. Also, 34 out of 39 (87.18%) agreed that for accreditation to have any real impact on the professionalization of law enforcement, it must be national in scope.

Although there is little support for state control of law

enforcement accreditation in this study, there is nevertheless considerable interest nationwide in state accrediting bodies. There are several statewide organizations which administer law enforcement accreditation programs, and in July 1991, the New York State Division of Criminal Justice Services announced the formation of a "National State Law Enforcement Accreditation Network." In addition, there is at least one statewide organization in Florida that has recently completed the development of standards for a statewide accrediting body. However, they are not ready to promulgate at this time.

It is the author's opinion that most of the law enforcement activity at the state level is in direct response to the financial burden the accreditation fees (as opposed to the cost of maintaining accreditation) place on small law enforcement agencies. If, as this study indicated, "In order for accreditation to have any real impact on the professionalization of law enforcement, it must be national in scope," then this activity at the state level could be counterproductive to the overall goal of the professionalization of law enforcement.

Possible funding source

In June 1991, Dr. Betty B. Bosarge, the Managing Editor of Washington Crime News Services, published an article in Crime Control Digest in which she severely criticized a proposed funding source for law enforcement accreditation. "The Law Enforcement Responsibility Act of 1991," H.R. 4270, was introduced in the House of Representatives on February 19, 1992 by Congressman James Moran, Democrat, Virginia. On a survey question concerning the proposed bill, 75% of the responding agencies indicated that they were unfamiliar with it.

Most of the law enforcement agencies in North America are small agencies. In the United States there are over 17,000 law enforcement agencies. It seems quite apparent to this author that the small agencies (1-49 employees) should comprise the majority of the agencies accredited by CALEA. This is not the case and it appears that the situation will not be corrected until some alternate funding mechanism can be developed for the small agencies. Hohensee (1992) might be correct when he indicates CALEA has "become available to only those fortunate agencies who have the resources to spare, both monetary and in personnel. Smaller, less well financed agencies who might benefit most from such an initiative, are precluded from participation."

In this author's opinion, the defeat of any proposed

funding source which might alleviate this situation would be counterproductive to law enforcement professionalization.

Conclusion

There were many thought-provoking and intelligent opinions offered by the respondents. The solutions to the problems of law enforcement accreditation may very well be found in these statements. In the author's opinion, the statement that best exemplifies the status of law enforcement accreditation in North America was submitted by one of the respondents:

> *I see law enforcement accreditation as a positive step toward true professionalism in police service over and above the process itself. It is, above all, a dynamic process with far reaching potential. The current process has fostered substantial interaction between the mid-managers at the local, regional, state, and national levels through coalitions and other help groups. These are folks who are actively and directly involved in the delivery of the service. They are also the future leaders in the law enforcement community. These interactions have provoked the ever increasing exchange of problems and ideas. This increased communication among law enforcement practitioners provides a good foundation for providing efficient and quality police service today and in the future. (anonymous)*

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Subject Group[1]	Question	Strongly Agree/ Agree[2]	Undecided	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree
	Accreditation Survey			
1	Accreditation was a good step toward the professionalization of this agency.	93.5%	3.5%	3.0%
3	My staff is committed to maintaining our accredited status through CALEA. (Disregard if withdrawn)	94.2	4.2	1.6
6	I would consider a statewide accrediting body in addition to CALEA. (Disregard if withdrawn)	37.2	22.3	40.5
1	Creativity and progressiveness was improved in this agency due to accreditation.	80.8	8.0	11.2
6	In order for accreditation to have any real impact on the professionalization of law enforcement, it must be national in scope.	83.0	8.0	9.0
6	Statewide Law Enforcement Accreditation Coalitions or PACS are beneficial.	82.4	14.0	3.6
3/5	The awarding of "string-free" grants to agencies for accreditation and reaccreditation would strengthen my resolve to remain with CALEA.	58.7	14.3	27.0
5	The Law Enforcement Responsibility Act of 1991 proposed by Congressman James Moran (D-VA), "will result in massive Federal control of state and local law enforcement" (Bosarge, 1991). (If you are unfamiliar with this Act, please do not answer this question.)	48.0	28.0	24.0
6	Any law enforcement accreditation body that is governmentally administered (either state or federal) will most likely lead to government control of local law enforcement.	49.2	20.8	29.9
6	Governmental control (State or Federal) is ultimately bad for local law enforcement.	54.1	20.4	25.5
3/6	If CALEA should fail for any reason: 1. The State Police Accreditation Coalitions (PACS) should form a private commission/ corporation and administer the accreditation process.	28.6	30.2	41.1
	2. An existing national private organization such as the National Sheriff's Association or Chief's Association should take over the accreditation process.	33.0	32.0	35.0
	3. An existing state private organization such as the Florida Sheriff's Association or some such organization should take over the accreditation process.	8.9	27.4	63.7
	4. Each state government should take over the accreditation process.	13.9	23.2	62.9
	5. The federal government should establish an independent commission to administer the accreditation process.	23.3	23.3	53.4
3	CALEA will not fail.	61.2	33.2	5.6
3	CALEA should be more responsive to the state coalitions.	66.3	17.9	15.8

Appendix A

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		Accreditation Survey			
Subject Group[1]	Question		Strongly Agree/ Agree[2]	Undecided	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree
5	The four founding agencies (PERF, NSA, NOBLE, IACP) should support CALEA more than they do in terms of finances and resources.		64.8	18.1	17.1
2	I have seen very little benefit come out of accreditation.		7.5	2.5	90.0
3	The law enforcement accreditation process under CALEA has a great deal of room for improvement.		54.8	10.5	34.7
1	Law enforcement accreditation is here to stay.		80.5	16.5	3.0
3	Many of the reporting requirement mandated by CALEA are unduly burdensome and not cost-productive.		52.3	11.0	36.7
1	Accreditation has not met my expectations.		11.5	8.0	80.5
4	There are changes that I could propose to the accreditation standards that would make mu job much easier and would not denigrate the process.		69.3	19.1	15.6
8	Reaccreditation is not worth the money.		7.0	18.5	74.5
4	The CALEA standards are too broad in scope because some mandatory standards do not apply to all agencies.		23.1	12.6	64.3
4	The mechanism for changing CALEA standards is adequate.		49.5	19.0	31.5
4	The manpower requirements necessary to maintain accredited status are an acceptable cost to my agency/community.		70.5	10.5	19.0
6	Assuming all costs were equal, I would prefer that an independent agency and not a governmental agency conduct the accreditation process.		85.9	9.6	4.5
2	My agency manual was adequate prior to beginning the accreditation process.		27.0	1.0	72.0
2	Since becoming accredited, the benefits received are as I expected.		76.5	10.5	13.0
4	If this agency drops accreditation I would be able to eliminate at least one position in next year's budget.		16.3	3.1	80.6
8	Accreditation audits should occur more frequently than the five-year reaccreditation on-site.		15.5	13.0	71.5
8	The fee for reaccreditation is an acceptable cost to my agency/community.		64.3	11.1	24.6
3	CALEA is the best hope for law enforcement accreditation.		65.7	28.3	6.0

Accreditation Survey				
Subject Group[1]	Question	Strongly Agree/ Agree[2]	Undecided	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree
8	My agency would become less competent if we failed to maintain our accredited status.	42.2	14.6	43.2
1	Law enforcement accreditation is as important as accreditation for schools and hospitals.	88.4	6.0	5.6
5	The government should fund accreditation at no cost to the individual agencies.	34.7	21.1	44.2
3	CALEA will eventually fail unless it becomes more responsive to the criticisms of the state coalitions.	25.4	34.0	40.6
5	I would rather make monthly membership payments to CALEA than yearly or every five years as this would ensure CALEA of a constant source of revenue and be easier to sell to my governing body.	25.8	27.8	46.4
7	The money saved from defending frivolous lawsuits has compensated this agency for some of the expense of accreditation.	27.2	37.9	34.9
4	The reporting requirements in the CALEA standards enhance the level of professionalism in my agency.	72.9	9.5	17.6
3	The CALEA process is primarily a "paper work" exercise and has resulted in no improvement in the delivery of services to the public.	9.0	9.5	81.5
3	"There have been many milestones along the road to increasing law enforcement professionalism, but none stands taller than (CALEA's) 'achievements'" (Dregelman, 1983).	66.3	20.1	13.6
3	If CALEA fails for any reason, the result will be a severe negative impact on law enforcement accreditation for many years to come.	71.2	12.1	16.7
4	The CALEA commission meetings are conducted in a manner that is beneficial to agencies, regardless of their status in the accreditation process.	60.3	17.6	22.1
3	I am committed to maintaining our accredited status through CALEA. (Disregard if withdrawn)	92.7	5.2	2.1
		YES	NO	
NA	I was the CEO when this agency was accredited.	64.5%	35.5%	
NA	The county jail in my jurisdiction is accredited.	31.5	68.5	
NA	My state correctional institution is accredited.	27.3	72.7	
3	I have seriously considered withdrawing from CALEA.	87.9	12.1	

Accreditation Survey				
Subject Group[1]	Question	Large/ Small Increase[2]	No Change	Large/ Small Decrease
2	Please indicate the degree of change your agency experienced with the following as a result of being accredited.			
	1. Insurance premiums.	3.3%	61.2%	35.5%
	2. Citizen's complaints.	15.8	52.0	32.2
	3. Morale of line troops.	60.4	27.9	11.7
	4. Alleged civil rights violations.	4.2	72.9	22.9
	5. Morale of support troops.	58.6	32.8	8.6
	6. Lawsuits.	4.2	70.3	25.5
	7. Morale of staff.	64.5	25.9	9.6
	8 Departmental vehicle crashes.	5.8	67.7	26.5

[1] SUBJECT GROUPS
    1 Law Enforcement Accreditation in general
    2 Benefits of Law Enforcement Accreditation
    3 Commission on Accreditation
      for Law Enforcement Agencies. Inc. (CALEA)
    4 CALEA's standards
    5 Funding
    6 Control of the Accreditation Process
    7 Accreditation claims
    8 Reaccreditation

[2] NOTE: Percentages are for persons responding and do not include missing values.

Unified Police Service in the State of Florida

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This study proposes that the total law enforcement effort within the state of Florida be combined into one large multifaceted agency having statewide powers, and under the direction of a supervisor at the cabinet level. The study is divided into theory for discussion purposes, and into statistical and numerical groupings for data support. It is important to explore the concept of a combined law enforcement effort in this state for several reasons. The increasing burden of law enforcement on taxpayers could be significantly altered by the application of this theory. Additionally, replication of work responsibilities could be eliminated; there would be a clearer and more concise viewpoint of management philosophy. Employees should enjoy this theory as it would allow them diversity of assignment; for many, it would mean a pay raise which might otherwise be unattainable.

It is three o'clock in the morning and an officer on patrol observes a vehicle speeding in the opposite direction to him, on a road which is a border with a neighboring jurisdiction. He is within his jurisdiction. The speeding car is not. It is an infraction. He must ignore it.

A sheriff's deputy follows a traffic violator into the neighboring county. The violator is stopped and found to be in possession of a controlled substance. He must summon a deputy from the county he is in, and take the arrestee before a magistrate in the county where the substances are found.

A municipal police officer procures an arrest warrant affidavit for a subject based upon a long and protracted criminal investigation. That warrant directs the sheriffs of the state of Florida to apprehend the subject. If the sheriff is cooperative or sympathetic, the municipal officer may go along and observe.

Taxpayers cry out for more police protection. More personnel must be provided for line operations. These same taxpayers want no tax increases as they are taxed to the limit, yet law enforcement personnel must be found.

Automobile manufacturers spend thousands of dollars each year using personnel and resources to effectively compete for contracts to sell vehicles to agencies in Florida at state, county, and local levels. These monies could be

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saved and the savings passed on to the taxpayer in the form of reduced unit costs by using a single statewide bid process.

Background

Historically, the law enforcement function has been divided into separate entities, usually based upon political subdivisions. During the latter part of the Anglo Saxon period in the ninth century, King Alfred established a "tithing system" in each county, or "shire." The chief judicial and law enforcement officer in each shire was the "shire-reeve," an appointee of the crown (Adams, 1973). Hence the title sheriff was created, and law enforcement became tied to political boundaries.

In the United States, early settlers were wary of a strong central government and cherished local autonomy. New England saw the establishment of villages with a municipal police officer, while the rural, agricultural South utilized the county form of government and the county sheriff (Adams, 1973).

In 1829, Sir Robert Peel, a member of Parliament, introduced a bill to found a centrally controlled system of law enforcement in the Greater London Metropolitan area. Law enforcement has long recognized the Peelian philosophy as the standard by which personnel allocations are made.

In the mid 1800's, administrative police boards were established. These boards were the epitome of political corruption and general incompetence. In response to this, state control of local agencies evolved. The prevailing theory was "that the new system would be free from local partisanship and that the citizens throughout the state would be assured of adequate and uniform law enforcement" (Adams, 1973, p. 64). Unfortunately, this failed because of lack of uniform enforcement, and control reverted to the local governments.

Under the current system of policing in the United States, enforcement agencies exist at the local, state, and federal levels. Some agencies at the state and federal levels have been created to serve special interests, to remedy a lack of efficiency on the part of local police, or to carry out certain details "beyond restrictive jurisdictional boundaries" (Adams, 1973, p. 70). Thus, centralization of power may very well increase efficiency by pooling the best talent available. In addition, the various agencies would be inclined to work toward common objectives and goals with consistent policies.

The concept of merger is not a new one. In 1979 the

Department of Justice, under the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, released a book entitled <u>Small Police Agency Consolidation: Suggested Approaches</u> (Koepsell & Girard, 1979). Although this research piece dealt primarily with small police agencies, many of the principles expressed are applicable at a larger scale. In fact, Van Meter and Conrad (1972) discussed the feasibility of consolidation of services in five Illinois counties in their treatise, <u>Pilot Study for Feasibility of Regionalization of Components of the Criminal Justice System in Gallatin, Hamilton, Hardin, Pope, and Salina Counties</u>.

Koepsell and Girard (1979) found that the two prime motivations for merger were demands for more and better quality law enforcement services, coupled with declining or increasingly limited local financial capability to meet this demand; and overlapping law enforcement jurisdiction, and/or associated disputes, jealousies, etc. Indirect influences, such as financial or manpower shortages, union pressures, and corruption, raised questions regarding the ability of the current system to meet future needs.

Conceptually, consolidation answers these questions by: 1) eliminating jurisdictional boundaries; 2) providing better training and supervision and therefore, higher quality personnel; and 3) offering more services for the same cost (Koepsell & Girard, 1979). In fact, consolidation generally does not result in a reduction in costs because any savings which might accrue are offset by service improvements or increases.

What prevents consolidation from occurring is the persistent view that local government can and must solve its own problems. Most localities continue to provide a broad spectrum of police services. Limited resources make them ineffective, and this is compounded by externalities which a single local government can not control (Eastman & Chapman, 1976).

Norrgard's (1969) work detailed the law enforcement mission:

> In a general sense, then, it may be said that local police agencies have responsibility for crime repression and prevention, traffic accident prevention and congestion relief, detection and apprehension of offenders, recovery and return of stolen property, enforcement of a variety of regulatory measures, and service to the public, often on an on-call basis. The proportionate amount of effort expended in each of these areas of responsibility arises locally on a basis of program emphasis policies promulgated by individual jurisdictions. Most of the work of a modern-day police officer is not related directly to criminal matters; instead, it has a preponderant service orientation...It should

be noted that the responsibilities identified above -- the components of the police mission -- are largely exercised in the field. Thus, the essential reason for being of a police agency has a field orientation. Although police agencies should maintain sophisticated staff and auxiliary services, it should be emphasized that such services are provided solely to be directly or indirectly supportive of the field effort. (p. 19-20)

This is a compilation of information which addresses the issue variously known as merger, consolidation, or regionalization in previously written documents. This writer found no documentation, or anyone with personal knowledge of an undertaking, addressing basic law enforcement needs reverted to a statewide level. Although the issues were explored, they seemed to have been explored on a localized level in agencies with common problems and goals indigenous to the region. Indeed, the largest identified initiative dealt with the merger of five rural counties. Next, the concept is explored on a statewide level.

Discussion

The size of Florida makes the concept of merger even more foreign. Recently, there has been talk in closed door political sessions of dividing this state, as well as states such as California and Texas, into two or more states so that there would be less diversity in the state government. Lawmakers have realized that in Florida, what is important to the residents of Dade County may very well be indigenous to Dade County, and therefore be deemed unimportant to a lawmaker from the Panhandle. The Panhandle may be viewed by the culturally diverse South Florida region as "backward." As long as this state remains the geographic unit that it is, there will be a necessity to work past these beliefs.

This writer does not support the notion that a unified police effort can be effectively administered from 500 or more miles away. Therefore, the first task is to break the state down into regions which are more easily administered. The Constitution of the state has divided it into 67 counties, each administered by a sheriff with the exception of Dade County, which has a director. He is the only sheriff's department head who is not elected. Placing the unified law enforcement effort in the hands of the sheriffs of the state would be an error as they are in a political office, subject to change every four years. This would undermine the stability of the unified agency no matter how skilled and qualified the sheriff may be.

For purposes of this study, regions, as designated by the

Florida Department of Law Enforcement (FDLE) as "districts," are utilized. [The Florida Department of Law Enforcement currently divides the state into 14 geographical regions for the purpose of field services.] Reasons for this choice include a lesser number of districts, and the division, according to field services, appears to be based upon counties with similar ethnocentric and geographic makeup, as well as common political concerns.

In researching this project, it became apparent there are a number of sworn personnel assigned to quasi-law enforcement duties. Some of these duties include line communications, computer programming, scheduling, and other functions which do not require the person performing them to carry a badge and gun. The study will include, as a goal, the increase of actual patrol and investigative staffing of the law enforcement effort in the state. In addition to reassigning those duties which do not require sworn personnel, the unification allows for the elimination of duplicate effort. The number of line and middle management personnel will decline, thus placing more emphasis on the basic police function. This will not be welcome news to those persons whose positions are in danger of elimination or reclassification. That hurdle will be addressed as part of the transition period.

An assumption that the general public and local governments will accept the unification proposal is essential to the presentation of this study. There must be a long and arduous procedure of convincing the public there is merit and benefit to this approach. Also, local politicians must be persuaded the need for their small, private "armies" no longer exists. These hurdles are addressed in detail by Koepsell and Girard (1979) and shall be considered as completed.

In 1990, the rate of full time law enforcement personnel was 2.5 officers per 1,000 inhabitants (Florida Department Law Enforcement, 1990). In sheriffs' agencies, this rate was 2.0, and in municipal agencies, it was 2.3. The larger number, 2.5, occurs because the total number of sworn personnel in the state includes agencies with sworn members but no service population: airport police, public school police, and university police, as well as state attorney's office investigators. Under unification, this ratio will not shift per se, as the numbers of personnel, as well as population, shall not be changed. However, the number of personnel performing the

Table 1
Key to Rank Codes

Rank	Description
1	Police Officer, Patrolman, Deputy Sheriff, Trooper, Agent, Law Enforcement Officer
2	Corporal, Special Agent, Detective, Master Patrolman, Patrolman First Class
3	Sergeant, Investigator, Special Investigator, Field Investigator, Detective Sergeant
4	Lieutenant
5	Captain, Patrol Director, Personnel Director, Records Director
6	Major, Inspector
7	Assistant Chief, Chief Deputy, Chief Inspector, Deputy Chief, Lieutenant Colonel
8	Police Chief, Sheriff, Public Safety Director, Commissioner, Chief Administrator, Colonel

Table 2
Personnel In Rank Code 3 or Higher
as a Percentage
of Total Sworn Personnel
by Region

Region	Percentage
I	18.8
II	17.1
III	21.0
IV	18.1
V	15.9
VI	19.4
VII	17.4
VIII	16.3
IX	16.0
X	17.1
XI	17.6
XII	24.6
XIII	19.5
XIV	21.5

previously mentioned line functions would shift, placing more sworn personnel "on the street." This would occur because to the elimination of assignments within the supervisory and administrative ranks. Table 1 reflects the rank codes which are used for this project, as furnished by the Florida Department of Law Enforcement, Division of Criminal Justice Standards and Training, on December 15, 1992. Table 2 reflects the number of personnel assigned to rank code 3 or higher as a percentage of the total number of sworn law enforcement personnel within the region. The state average for the personnel filling category 3 or higher is 18.6%. As expected, there is a wide variation between the regions with regard to the ratio of supervisory and administrative personnel, with the highest at 24.6%, and the lowest at 15.9%.

To compare the number of supervisory personnel in law enforcement in this state with private industry is a difficult task. One example, Ryder Corporation, Commercial Leasing Division, a successful multinational corporation employing approximately 11,000 people, has approximately 890 people (8.1%) in what they consider to be managerial/supervisory positions (G. Arseneau, personal communication, December 28, 1992).

This figure is significantly lower than the figures for law enforcement in this state, and even at the lowest number of 15.9%, there would still be a significant change in the number of supervisors currently reflected statewide.

As personnel is redistributed, some regions will have an increase in per capita personnel, while others will show a decrease. This writer postulates this redistribution will place more sworn personnel in line functions where the concentration of population is greatest.

As shown by the sworn personnel allocation table (Table 3), only two regions would experience significant changes in law enforcement personnel. Region III reflects the largest decrease at 21%. It should be noted Region III includes Tallahassee, the state capitol, where a significant number of key supervisory personnel are employed. While examining unification, it was interesting to note that consolidation would create a certain degree of decentralization, thus spreading personnel statewide. Although unification appears to be a move to place power in one central location, that power is, in effect, spread amongst the 14 regions with equality. Theoretically, the chief executive officer of the law enforcement effort is at cabinet

			Table 3			
			Sworn Personnel Allocation Under Unification Program			
Region	Pop	Sworn per capita	Current Sworn Total	Proposed Sworn	Difference (Proposed - Current)	% Difference
I	551,581	1.58	1,190	1,578	388	25%
II	242,520	1.44	690	694	4	1
III	287,797	2.00	994	823	-171	-21
IV	1,036,556	1.53	1,138	2,965	1,827	62
V	1,034,227	1.76	2,503	2,958	455	15
VI	446,094	1.65	1,103	1,276	173	14
VII	2,027,987	2.11	5,385	5,800	415	7
VIII	540,985	1.79	1,407	1,547	140	9
IX	2,201,224	1.92	5,233	6,296	1,063	17
X	897,568	2.30	2,323	2,567	244	10
XI	379,324	2.20	1,191	1,085	-106	-10
XII	893,305	2.58	2,574	2,555	-19	-1
XIII	1,269,807	2.55	3,557	3,632	75	2
XIV	1,984,862	2.83	5,728	5,677	-51	-1
XV	NA	NA	4,424	NA	NA	NA
Total	13,793,837		39,440	39,453	4,437	1.28%

level and would therefore civilianize many functions now performed in the Capital by sworn personnel.

Certain regions which are currently below the state's per capita number would see a drastic change in law enforcement personnel, especially in numbers. This is most evident in Region IV, which would experience an increase in personnel of 62%, growing from 1,138 sworn personnel to 2,965. Only one other region would lose a number which can be considered significant. Region XI would lose 10% of its personnel.

The question now arises whether the regions losing personnel could afford it, and whether sufficient activity exists in those regions increasing personnel. This could only be addressed by careful examination of public demands, sentiment, calls for service, and the Uniform Crime Reports. Analysis would occur as the unification began to take place. The significance of this question should not be excessively emphasized. This is a unified law enforcement effort which now gives the police community statewide powers. Personnel may now be shifted to fill in gaps in manpower or to more fully utilize resources. These could be temporary assignments such as task forcing or saturation details, or permanent assignments.

The word "resources" raises the inevitable question of cost. In 1990, expenditures for police protection in the state were $1,574,483,000 (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1992). Using 39,440 for the number of sworn personnel (Table 3), this reflects an expenditure of $39,911 per sworn member for police services. If this seems high, it should be noted that by using the total population in the same table, this translates into $114.40 for each full time resident. Comparable states

and their expenditures are shown in Table 4.

Many methods exist for determining the price of law enforcement in a consolidated agency. However, all data found examine costs based upon mergers of local and county agencies, or multiple municipal agencies. No data were located to suggest a method for statewide funding. Methods found included cost per capita and cost based upon such factors as population, roads (in miles), calls for service, and crime clearance (Koepsell & Girard, 1979). Koepsell and Girard concluded their section on financing a merger by stating:

> The first few years of a merged agency represent a highly capital intensive period. Because significant investments are needed to implement a merger and to improve previously substandard conditions, the effect frequently balloons total costs. Communities considering consolidation might well be prepared for this eventuality. Although future savings and economies may develop as the new system matures, initial investments to consolidate and to raise the level of law enforcement service to acceptable levels will not be inexpensive. (p. 36)

This writer proposes that, as this is a statewide effort by regions, and because each region is comprised of specific counties, the amount of money currently expended by each governmental entity within the region can be pooled into a single fund. These regional funds shall be the basis for, and source of, revenues deposited with the cabinet level member's budgetary organization, said cabinet member being the person who directs the Florida unified law enforcement effort. By pooling all of the revenue, the cost per person should remain basically the same. In actuality, if the project is successful in the elimination of many higher paid administrators through reclassification or elimination of their positions, as well as by attrition, more money could be collected than is actually necessary to fund the agency. This could lead to either a reduction in costs, translating into a reduction in taxation, or an increase in revenues available to create more positions and even further enhance the law enforcement effort. This factor would be determined as the consolidation progressed and needs became more easily discernible.

Of that amount which is expended on law enforcement police services, a certain, albeit unknown, portion is spent on facilities maintenance, proprietorship, and creation. This

Table 4
State Law Enforcement Expenditures

State	Amount(,000)	Per Capita
Illinois	$1,429,752	$123.11
New Jersey	$1,192,795	$154.49
Texas	$1,498,291	$ 88.97

Source: *State Justice Sourcebook of Statistics and Research,* Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1992.

amount would change as facilities were consolidated, land and buildings sold, and buildings were modernized. The exact amount is not calculable with existing data.

According to a survey conducted by the Florida Department of Law Enforcement (1990), the average entry level base salary for police officers in the state of Florida, is $20,843. In the survey of 411 police agencies, the entry level annual salary ranged from $5,200 per year to a high of $30,858. Salary standardization is a goal which may be largely unattainable because of the diverse costs of living which prevail across the state. It may be necessary to examine the cost of living in each region and establish a differential for certain areas of the state. However, one must also consider that the $20,843 figure above would represent an improvement for half the agencies in Florida.

Consideration must now be given to the disposition of the vast array of personnel merged into one agency. The most obvious problem which occurs is that of the numerous chief executive officers whose positions would no longer exist. Although this concept has never been tried on a statewide level, applications of the theory do exist. The Minnetonka (Minnesota) Public Safety Department example demonstrated the principles that may be utilized in this project:

> In a move to minimize competition between the former local agencies, a chief was selected from outside the area. The chiefs of the abolished agencies were retained at the rank of sergeant. This resulted in no loss in salary or benefits...In summary the problem of too many chiefs has not proven to be a common issue in small agency consolidations. In cases where the issue arises, the key to its resolution has been the assurance that the former executives would face no salary or benefits decreases. (Koepsell & Girard, 1979, p. 39)

As there would definitely be a large contingent of law enforcement executives statewide faced with the prospect of unemployment or rank reduction, it is postulated that any move at consolidation would be a phased operation involving a substantial period of time. This would allow for personnel in the respective agencies to retire, apply out of state, or establish themselves within the new agency. It would also allow line personnel to consider their options and govern themselves accordingly. Although some higher level positions would be, as previously discussed, abolished, a certain number of managerial/supervisory personnel would still be needed in the newly created agency. Depending upon such characteristics as experience, training, and desire, the vast majority of sworn personnel in this state

would retain a job in law enforcement at some level. Koepsell and Girard (1979) made the following suggestions regarding the consolidation process:

1. *Insure that common uniforms, badges, patches, identification, vehicles and other equipment are available to all personnel at the earliest possible time. Nothing mitigates against assimilation more than the presence of different uniforms at roll call, or different colored vehicles on patrol.*

2. *Assign personnel formerly from one community to patrol other portions of the consolidated agency's service area.*

3. *Forced mixing should also be encouraged wherever possible; i.e., in cases where two person patrol units are still used; on various patrol shifts; in locker assignments; in roll call seating (p. 40).*

Personnel in each region would depend on the numbers of line officers assigned to the area. The typical regional organization is displayed in Table 5, below. Only management is displayed, as organizational charts would vary depending upon size and strength of the region. Each of the regional commanders would report to a cabinet level entity, as previously stated, most typically titled Secretary of Law Enforcement or a comparable designation. That person would maintain only the sworn staff necessary to administer

Table 5
Proposed Regional Organization

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                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │ Regional Commander  │
                    └──────────┬──────────┘
                               │
                    ┌──────────┴──────────┐
                    │ Director of Operations │
                    └──────────┬──────────┘
                               │
        ┌──────────────────────┼──────────────────────┐
        │                      │                      │
┌───────────────┐    ┌───────────────────┐    ┌────────────────────┐
│ Deputy Director of │  │ Deputy Director of │  │ Deputy Director of │
│ Patrol Services   │  │ Administrative    │  │ Investigative      │
│                   │  │ Services          │  │ Services           │
└───────┬───────┘    └─────────┬─────────┘    └─────────┬──────────┘
        │                      │                        │
┌───────────────┐    ┌───────────────────┐    ┌────────────────────┐
│ Basic Law     │    │ Communications/911 │   │ General Investigations │
│ Enforcement   │    │ Clerical           │   │ Special Investigations │
│ School Resource│   │ Police/Fire        │   │ Crime Prevention       │
│ Officers      │    │ Coordination       │   │                        │
│ Traffic       │    │ Property & Records │   │                        │
│ Enforcement   │    │                    │   │                        │
│ Citizen       │    │                    │   │                        │
│ Services      │    │                    │   │                        │
└───────────────┘    └───────────────────┘    └────────────────────┘
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the agency. The majority of the chief executive's staff would be comprised of civilians skilled in personnel management, labor relations, budgeting, and purchasing. Routine personnel matters, crime trends, manpower needs, and other comparable requirements would be handled on the regional level, allowing the cabinet member the time and resources to deal directly with the overall statewide picture, i.e., state budget, legislation, liaison with other state agencies.

Summary

Implementation of the unification of police services in Florida would be a process necessitating long range planning and administering by executive level personnel not afraid of innovation. It would most assuredly be a process lasting as long as a decade, allowing for adjustments in personnel strengths and rank classifications through attrition, for no one wants to unduly place more people, and certainly not skilled professionals, on the unemployment roster.

Unification of police services in Florida is not offered as a cure for all that ails the criminal justice system or more specifically, for law enforcement. Rather, it is a proposal of an alternative to the current and traditional methods and approaches to law enforcement organization and management. By applying principles indigenous to corporate America, and by demonstrating a willingness to give the citizens whom they serve the most service for their tax dollar, the police of this state can reap the benefits now enjoyed by private sector: career enhancements, the best fringe benefits, a salary commensurate with the risks and professionalism of the job, and, perhaps most importantly, the safety and security of public respect.

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Discipline and the Expert System

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This paper recounts a research project dealing with the problem of administering discipline in the work place, and providing available technology to supervisors to assist them in their decision making processes. Most importantly, the Supervisor Assistance System (SAS) established in the Florida Department of Highway Safety and Motor Vehicles (DHSMV) is described. A review of existing literature regarding this subject, and the methodology used to collect the data are incorporated.

Introduction/Overview

The Department of Highway Safety and Motor Vehicles (DHSMV) is a state agency responsible for enforcement of highway safety laws, licensing of drivers, motor vehicle registration and titling, and related activities. To accomplish these activities, the department has 1,700 employees assigned to Tallahassee headquarters and another 3,400 employees in field locations ranging from Pensacola to Key West.

Maintenance of high conduct standards among employees is critical to the department in order to sustain the respect and cooperation of the public. A major problem DHSMV executive management has found in the department's disciplinary program is that actions taken by managers and supervisors frequently do not follow the appropriate course of action or include the important elements of "proof." An additional problem is that the recommended course of action varies among managers.

In the past, methods such as training, publication of written policies and procedures manuals, meetings, and studies have been used to communicate standards of conduct to department employees. These means have had limited effectiveness because of the time span between a supervisor's exposure to this information and its application. Also, the complexity of career service personnel rules, collective bargaining contracts, statutory provisions, and department policies and procedures have made many supervisors unsure how to proceed when dealing with

disciplinary matters. This situation led supervisors to resort to a "best guess" approach to handling many disciplinary problems. Frequently, this approach resulted in incomplete and inconsistent actions being taken, leaving the supervisor frustrated and the employee resentful, suspicious and less productive. One solution to this problem would be to place experienced advisors in all field offices to assist managers and supervisors in addressing disciplinary situations. Of course, the cost of this effort would be prohibitive.

As an alternative, expert system technology was investigated to determine if the knowledge of the "experts" could be placed in computers located in offices in Tallahassee and throughout the state to guide supervisors in the disciplinary process. Dr. Stephen Foster and other consultants from the Florida State University Center for Public Management who are experienced in knowledge-based systems were awarded a contract in August 1990 to design such a system for the department. A small task force, comprised of Department of Highway Safety and Motor Vehicles managers and supervisors, was selected to assist the consultants in the development of the expert system. The task force determined that several factors must be considered throughout the development of the system to make it "user friendly," i.e., it must be installed on the system accessible to the most users (managers and supervisors) throughout the department; it must be open to all users (not password protected); and it must be simple to operate and easy to update.

The department decided to develop the system to operate on Honeywell DPS-6 miniprocessors which drive the department's office automation system and driver license terminals. This would provide system entry to over 240 terminal sites throughout the state.

During the time this system was being developed, the department's rule on discipline was revised to provide more direction to employees by providing concise definitions of each of the 44 disciplinary offenses.

Problem Statement and Review of Literature
Based upon the department's role in law enforcement and its other regulatory responsibilities, a heavy emphasis has been placed on very rigid and sometimes unforgiving military disciplinary processes. Although this may have been effective through the seventies, changes in work ethics, loyalties and general awareness of employee rights, have made it necessary for managers and supervisors, especially in the public sector, more than ever, to be more knowledgeable in sound supervisory practices and statutory

and rule requirements. The need for prompt, consistent and proven guidance for managers and supervisors manifested itself in the disciplinary process many times during the eighties.

Consistency in the application of discipline has also been a focal point for some time. The failure to maintain a high degree of uniformity has resulted in reversals of disciplinary action and modification to proposed discipline by those bodies having appeal review, such as the Department of Management Services (formerly the Department of Administration) or the Public Employee Relations Commission (PERC).

An expert system was selected to solve the problems identified because these systems have been used for some time to assist the corporate community in achieving a higher quality of performance. Established companies such as DuPont, Nippon-Kokan Steel, Lend Lease, and others have captured this "artificial intelligence, for use by management, in day to day operations" (Fernbaum, McCorduck & Nii, 1988).

John Martin (1991) illustrated some of the ways that expert technology is being used in the law enforcement community. One application is in the area of solving residential burglaries through the collection of previous case information and sifting out common or similar circumstances. REBES (REsidential Burglary Expert System) can provide a profile on possible perpetrators. Martin (1991) also noted, "Expert systems aren't just for law enforcement. Managers in the Florida highway department are using one to help them deal evenhandedly with employee misconduct" (p. 25). However, the use of expert systems in the area of human resources is fairly limited at this point in time (Briggs & Downey, 1990). According to Dr. Foster (personal communication, August 12, 1992), "Separately, the issues of discipline and computer technology have received a good amount of literary comment -- however, collectively, they have not previously been dealt with."

This research study is intended to provide an understanding that certain decision making processes can be preestablished and used by managers at all levels for the benefit of all in an agency. Consistency and uniformity within the discipline application phase, along with thorough and accurate investigative reporting, are the emphasis in the establishment of such a program.

The Florida Highway Patrol's disciplinary process has been established for some time, and consequently tends to influence the department's overall philosophy concerning disciplinary issues. For that reason, this study focuses on the

Florida Highway Patrol's disciplinary practices and the expert system.

The Florida Highway Patrol Policy Manual is used by the agency to inform and direct sworn employees in the area of job performance and personal conduct. Failure of an employee to comply with the established standards often results in a recommendation for disciplinary action. A primary consideration during the subsequent disciplinary review process is to ensure that, even though each case may indeed be different, the disciplinary action proposed (or taken) is uniform and consistent with actions taken in the past for similar cases.

In reviewing past disciplinary issues, management's observation was that access to a readily accessible "on site" advisor would facilitate supervisors in reviewing employee behavior cases. There was no doubt that some managers would be skeptical of using a "machine" to find answers to issues that are quite subjective in nature. It was also conjectured that such a system might be an intrusion into their discretionary domain. However, the opportunity to develop a better equipped supervisor, reduce the instances of discipline, as well as create a better supervisor/subordinate working relationship, was certainly worth pursuing.

Study Methodology

Prior to completing development of the system, a demonstration to first line supervisors provided a preview of how the system would function. The supervisors completed a written survey document on problems typically encountered by supervisors in disciplinary situations. Survey results were used by the development team to assist in the design of the system.

Six months following implementation of the system, a comprehensive study was conducted of supervision and management personnel regarding the system. The purpose of this study was twofold: 1) to evaluate the effectiveness of the system which had been in place for eight months; and 2) to review the foundation of the system for possible expansion to other personnel processes. This study was done in cooperation with the Florida Center for Public Management at Florida State University. It involved two components: (1) a written questionnaire which was sent to all supervisors in the department; and (2) in-depth telephone interviews with selected supervisors.

The written questionnaire of 59 fixed-choice items was developed jointly by the Center for Public Management and the Department of Highway Safety and Motor Vehicles. The

questionnaire was not pretested for reliability or validity, although it was reviewed by research methodologists at the Center, as well as by senior management personnel in the department, before being finalized. The survey was divided into four parts: (a) demographic information; including job classification, length of tenure with the department, level of education, gender, race, etc.; (b) respondent attitudes regarding information technology, in general;
(c) respondent attitudes regarding the Supervisor Assistance System; (d) respondent attitudes and experience in handling disciplinary matters.

The questionnaire was sent through interdepartmental mail to approximately 800 supervisors in the department. As stated earlier, this study focused on the Florida Highway Patrol; we concentrated on sworn and nonsworn Florida Highway Patrol supervisors. The supervisors were asked to record their responses on computerized scan sheets. No names or any other identifying information was kept in order to insure confidentiality. After a period of 10 business days, the scan sheets were collected in each work unit and returned to the Office of Employee Relations in Tallahassee. From there, the scan sheets were turned over to the Center for processing and tabulation. A total of 636 responses were received, or roughly 80% of all supervisors in the Department of Highway Safety and Motor Vehicles. This included 204 responses from the Florida Highway Patrol.

Telephone interviews were conducted by the Florida Center for Public Management. A list of names of supervisors was provided by the department's Office of Employee Relations. These names were drawn at random from a list of supervisors who had initiated at least one disciplinary action between March 1 and September 15, 1992. A total of 15 telephone interviews were completed over a two-day period, September 22-23, 1992. The purpose of these interviews was to gather anecdotal data regarding individual supervisor's experience with the SAS. This information was used to determine how well the SAS performed in actual instances involving disciplinary action, as reported by the supervisor who initiated the action. The interview format was essentially unstructured, although several questions were asked of each respondent:

(1) Did you use the SAS prior to initiating disciplinary action?

(2) What course of action did the SAS recommend?

(3) Did you agree to follow the recommendations provided by the SAS or did you overrule it and why?

(4) What do you see are the primary benefits to using the SAS?

(5) Did you experience any difficulty when using the SAS?

(6) Do you have any suggestions for improving the SAS?

These interviews averaged approximately ten minutes in length. Notes of each interview were made on note pad, then transcribed to the computer as soon as possible, in most cases immediately following the interview.

The SAS helps me insure that I don't overlook some important factor when handling a disciplinary matter.	68%
The SAS helps me determine when disciplinary action is appropriate.	62%
The SAS helps insure consistency in handling disciplinary matters.	59%
The SAS helps me determine when it is more appropriate to counsel an employee than to take disciplinary action.	59%
I generally agree with the recommendations provided by the SAS.	58%

Attitudes toward the SAS

The survey results demonstrated that supervisors in the Florida Highway Patrol view the SAS very favorably. Approximately 76% of respondents agreed that the SAS is a useful tool. Almost 36% said they strongly agreed; only 4% disagreed. Several reasons were cited for their enthusiasm for the system. At left is a list of statements from the questionnaire, along with the percent of respondents in the Florida Highway Patrol indicating they agreed or strongly agreed.

The results of the telephone interviews corroborated the information gleaned from the written questionnaires. Out of 15 interviews completed, 13 respondents reported having taken disciplinary action within the past six months. All 13 said they used the SAS system prior to making their recommendation to management, and all 13 reported they followed the recommendation provided by the SAS. Two respondents said they have deviated from the SAS results from time to time, but indicated these were exceptions rather than the rule.

The overall reaction of the telephone respondents was very positive, as reflected in their comments. Most expressed the view that the SAS helps clarify their thinking prior to making a decision involving disciplinary action. One respondent reported, as a result of the SAS, she took a different course of action than she had initially planned. None reported having any mechanical difficulty using the system, and all said the questions posed by the SAS are clear and unambiguous. Most of the complaints seemed to be directed more at the disciplinary process and issue of policy than toward the SAS. The complaints about the

system seemed to vary. One respondent expressed a need to print the results; another said the system is not updated frequently enough.

Criteria for effectiveness

Although the responses indicated favorable opinions regarding the SAS, the actual use of the SAS is rather negligible. The respondents were asked if they used the SAS when faced with a disciplinary problem. Approximately 33% reported "every time"; 15% said "most of the time"; 16% said "some of the time"; and 20% said "hardly ever." Sixteen percent did not know the SAS was available. The respondents were also asked whether their recommendations for disciplinary matters were more likely to be upheld by management if they used the SAS. Whereas only 13% disagreed, a large percentage (41%) indicated they were neutral. A series of statistical correlations were performed to determine those factors that might influence an individual supervisor to use the system and to find it effective. Four factors emerged.

First, the access and use of computers for other job-related purposes were found to be positively correlated with the use of the system. If the supervisor has ready access to a computer or terminal and routinely uses it in the course of his or her duties, that individual is more likely to use the SAS. Although this result should come as no surprise, it does not appear to account for a large portion of the results because 44% of Florida Highway Patrol supervisors said they regularly use a computer or terminal in their daily work. About 56% said they have a computer or terminal at their desk or work station. Still, for those supervisors who do not have ready access to a computer or terminal, they are less likely to use the SAS system.

Second, there was a correlation between use of the system and the respondent's feeling of being adequately trained. If the supervisor indicated he or she had been adequately trained on how to use the SAS, it was more likely the SAS was actually used when faced with a disciplinary matter. Once again the matter of training appeared to have some, but not significant impact, on overall use. About 55% of all respondents agreed they had been adequately trained on how to use the SAS. This is somewhat higher than their level of satisfaction with computer training in general However, training has been shown to be a criteria for successful implementation of computer systems many times before, and this study once again confirmed it as a factor.

Third, the use of the SAS was correlated positively with

the perceived ease of use. Overall, 72% of the respondents agreed that the SAS is easy to use. The few who disagreed were more likely to report they do not use it on a regular basis.

Finally, the perceived encouragement and support on the part of management positively correlated with use of the SAS. When asked if their supervisor considers it important that they consult with the SAS before initiating disciplinary action, 54% agreed and 33% were neutral. When asked if their recommendations for disciplinary matters were more likely to be upheld by management if they used the SAS, 46% agreed, 41% were neutral, and 13% actually disagreed. These high numbers of neutral responses throughout the survey may have indicated several things. They may mean respondents were ambivalent about the SAS, or they do not consider the SAS or disciplinary matters to be particularly important. Additionally, they may be uncertain about the level of support and commitment to the SAS on the part of management.

Although the survey did not provide sufficient data to determine conclusively what prompted a high number of individuals to be so neutral on these matters, it is assumed that the perceived encouragement and support on the part of management is an important factor. Results also indicated that using the system tends to encourage further use. These findings suggest that supervisors need to be strongly encouraged to use the system. Clearly expressed management incentives may prompt more individuals to use the system for the first time. Once these individuals gain some experience and confidence with the system, the survey results suggest that they will continue to use the system, even after management incentives have been reduced.

Future Plans for the SAS
The results of this study tended to validate the knowledge base of the SAS. There was no evidence to suggest that the system produces bizarre or unpredictable recommendations. On the contrary, most respondents indicated they generally agree with the recommendations provided by the system. A few minor modifications are needed to update the system and keep it current with written policies and procedures. These modifications are part of an ongoing maintenance effort which is normally expected with an expert system. In addition, several enhancements are planned which will further improve the ease of use and functionality of the SAS. For example, a module will be added to help determine whether a

particular employee problem is a disciplinary matter or a job performance problem. Further experience with the SAS will help to identify additional features needed to ensure its effectiveness.

A recommendation has been forwarded to Fred Dickinson, Executive Director, Department of Highway Safety and Motor Vehicles, to further develop guidance to supervisors in order to help them deal with disciplinary situations and to broaden the use of the system to address such areas as substandard performance of job duties, job abandonment and other related issues.

As new supervisors are hired or promoted, they will be trained on the use of SAS. In addition, periodic updates to the system will be made as refinements are developed on changes internal or external to the department. The Department of Highway Safety and Motor Vehicles' management anticipate the administration of discipline will be fair, consistent and uniform, which will promote a more harmonious and productive work environment for employees.

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A Computer Application for Supervisors

The Supervisor Assistance System is a computer-based "advisor" on supervisory matters. The system contains current departmental policies and procedures for handling instances of behavioral problems and employee misconduct.

How the System Works

The system allows supervisors in the Department of engage in a "consultation" with the system about how to handle a specific situation involving a subordinate. The system asks questions about the incident and other factors, such as the employee's past history and work record and past practices in the work unit. Then, based upon the responses to the questions, the system makes a recommendation on how to proceed. The system may recommend that disciplinary action be taken or may recommend some other type of corrective action such as counseling, Employee Assistance Program referral or better management practices. If appropriate, the system provides a recommended penalty.

Who should Use the System?

All supervisors with direct-reporting subordinates should be using the system. Often, handling subordinate conflict can be complex. The experienced manager is flexible in accommodating individual needs, yet firm and decisive when an employee's behavior becomes unacceptable. The Supervisor Assistance System can improve the supervisor's performance in several ways:

• Guides the supervisor through complex situations;

• Helps insure that important questions haven't been overlooked during the data-gathering stage;

• Insures that supervisory action is in compliance with departmental policies and procedures; and

• Provides a "second opinion" on the supervisor's judgment.

Who Makes the Decision?

The system does not make decisions - only people make decisions. The system is to be used as a guide in decision making, just as written policies and procedures serve as a guide. While the system provides guidance, the supervisor is held accountable for his or her actions and therefore, must exercise good professional judgment.

Supervisors are not required to use the system, but are strongly urged to do so whenever appropriate, since it reflects the department's disciplinary policies.

When to Use the System

You should consult with the system whenever you believe an instance of employee misconduct may have occurred or when you simply want to learn more about the department's disciplinary policies and procedures. The system can help during the investigation stage, as well as during decision making. Supervisors will continue to make recommendations to management on disciplinary matters, as before. The only difference is that supervisors now have a computerized "advisor" to help provide information whenever it is wanted.

How to Log On to the System

The Supervisor Assistance System is available through the office Automation System. At the log on banner, type L SIS and the program will start automatically. You will see an opening screen welcoming you to the system and asking whether you want to engage in a consultation (seek advice on a given employee situation) or simply look up information. Make a selection by entering The appropriate number and pressing the RETURN key.

If you select the information section, you will see a list of various policies and procedures you can read. Make a selection from the menu and follow the on-screen instruction. At the end of the information item, the system will return you to the opening screen again. From there, you may make another selection or exit the system.

How to Engage in a Consultation

Step 1. Select "1. Consultation" by entering the number and pressing the RETURN key. The system displays some general information about the system, followed by the department's policy on discipline.

Step 2. Follow the instructions on the screen, pressing the RETURN key when requested. You will be asked to furnish the name and sex of the employee who may have committed a disciplinary offense. (The employee's sex is needed to determine if such things as pregnancy leave apply. It also makes the system friendlier to use.)

Step 3. The system will then provide a list if disciplinary offenses. Select the offense that seems appropriate, based upon what you know about the situation. Enter the appropriate number and the press the RETURN key. If you do not see the appropriate disciplinary offense on the first screen, select "15" to see more offenses. There are three screens of disciplinary offenses. For each screen, you may press "14" and the RETURN key to go back to the opening screen.

Step 4. Simply answer the questions as they are posed; the system will guide you through the consultation. For YES-NO questions, you may simply type "y" or "n." If you don't know the answer you may type in "unknown" at any time. For entering any response, you may use either upper or lower case letters.

Once you have begun a consultation, follow it to the end. Each consultation ends with a recommendation screen. The message will state whether disciplinary action seems appropriate at this time, based upon your responses. If disciplinary action is called for, a suggested penalty will be recommended. An explanation will also be provided explaining how the system arrived at its conclusion and other helpful advice on how to proceed. The name and telephone number of additional contact persons are also provided where needed.

You may run the consultation as many times as you wish.

What to do with the Results

After engaging in a consultation, make whatever notes you wish from the recommendation screen and incorporate these in your file. Your consultation with the system is private, just as it would be with a human advisor. Only YOU see the results of the consultation. The data you entered is not kept anywhere by the system and no reports are printed.

In making your recommendations to management, you should indicate that you have consulted with the Supervisor Assistance System and report the results. If you disagree with the system's recommendation, indicate clearly in your written recommendation should you feel a different action is appropriate in this case. Then, make you recommendation to management according to standard procedures.

If asked, you my explain to your subordinates that the system has been provided to all supervisors as a tool to be used in decision making. The purpose of the system is to insure fairness and consistency in carrying out the department's disciplinary policies. Be sure to explain that the results are not stored anywhere in the system and that management makes the final decision regarding any personnel action. Feel free to share the system with department employees; in fact, you may even engage i a consultation with the subordinate present, if appropriate.

What if I need Help?

If, during a consultation, you find a question that is unclear or if you have any comments or suggestions regarding the content of the system, contact the Office of Employee Relations at (904)488-4146, Suncom 278-4146.

If the system malfunctions or you have trouble with the computer, contact the Office of Automation, (904)487-4211, Suncom 277-4211.

The Supervisor

Assistance

System

For further information contact:

Office of Employee Relations
Neil Kirkman Building
Tallahassee, Florida 32399-0525
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Professional Standards and Criteria to Hold the Office of Sheriff in the State of Florida

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The purpose of this study is to examine Florida's need to adopt professional standards and criteria for the office of sheriff, either through legislation or a constitutional amendment. In the last several years, the Florida Legislature has attempted to set forth qualifications for the office of sheriff on several occasions; the most recent attempt was coordinated by a committee of the Florida Sheriffs Association, known as the Sheriff's Qualifications Committee. This committee met, studied the problem, and recommended an amendment to the Constitution in 1989, 1990, and again in 1991.

As the Sheriff's Star points out, the state of Florida is currently very fortunate. The vast majority of Florida sheriffs are well qualified to hold the office, but this research project shows there is no guarantee it will remain so. Therefore, it is incumbent for our lawmakers to enact qualifications to protect our citizens from any future unqualified person holding the office of sheriff in Florida.

History

The office of sheriff is one of the oldest recognized offices of authority in our society. The evolution of this esteemed office can be traced back to the very beginnings of people learning to function in organized communities. As history has advised us, only a few thousand years ago, most of the people in what is known as Europe were referred to as "wandering Germanic tribes" or nomads. These very basic, simple tribes originally had one leader who in many cultures would have been referred to as their chief.

Once these groups evolved from primitive hunting and gathering and became involved in more agricultural pursuits, society, as we know it today, first began to organize. This eliminated the need for them to be constantly migrating across vast ranges of territory and enabled them to establish designated communities where they could pursue their agrarian endeavors.

The obvious next step was the beginning of territorial boundaries. In Europe, these boundaries were the original basis of the "feudal system." Territories were ruled by one person who eventually established various positions to assist him in overseeing his small kingdom. Feudalism progressed

as a political and economic system from the 9th to approximately the 15th century, and was based on the relationship between the lord of the feudal kingdom and the vassal or (serf) who was held on a condition of homage and service to the ruler of the feudal kingdom.

With the establishment of more and larger fiefdoms, came the need for subdividing the various and different duties required to run a society. Feudal lords began to appoint a chief executive of their primitive court system or a sheriff of the shire (or county).

In those early times when the office of sheriff was created, the person appointed to be the sheriff of the fiefdom obviously had to be someone who could represent the ruler of that area and be extremely loyal to the feudal lord in power at the time.

The early sheriffs' duties encompassed many of the same areas of concern that modern day sheriffs are still responsible for. The early sheriffs were responsible for the maintenance of law and order, the collection of taxes from the serfs, and the maintenance of a jail, or in some cases a dungeon. Most sheriffs in modern times are constitutionally elected officials; therefore, they are directly responsible to all the citizens in the county.

We have, of course, evolved from a sheriff responsible to a total autocratic form of government to the democratic form of government that we cherish in the United States.

In modern times, the sheriff is the chief executive of the courts of superior jurisdiction in a U.S. county, and is responsible for the maintenance of law and order. In most states, the sheriff is the elected official responsible for maintaining the county correctional facility.

Our modern sheriffs are, as earlier stated, elected by the citizens of the county in which they reside. In most states they are a constitutionally elected officer and their duties are prescribed by the constitution and the statutes of the state in which they serve. Unlike the sheriffs of old who were selected purely on their loyalty and their ability to enforce by sheer physical strength, the modern sheriff is responsible to the constituents in the jurisdiction.

Qualifications for Office
The Florida Constitution states, "There shall be elected by the electors of each county, for terms of four years, a sheriff." The only other reference to specific qualifications for the office of sheriff are in Article VI, Section 4 of the Constitution, which states, "No person convicted of a felony, or adjudicated in this or other state to be mentally incompetent, shall be qualified to vote or hold office until

restoration of civil rights or removal of disability."

In contrast to this obvious lack of qualifications for the office of sheriff, specific qualifications are set forth for most of the other offices established by the Florida Constitution. The governor, lieutenant governor, and members of the cabinet are required to be electors of the state, not less than 30 years old, and must have resided in the state for the preceding seven (7) years. The attorney general must be a member of the Florida Bar for five years preceding election, as is outlined in Article IV, Section 5, (b), Florida Constitution.

The justices of the Florida Supreme Court and the judges of other courts must be electors of the state and reside within the territorial jurisdiction of the court they are presiding over. Justices of the Supreme Court and judges of the District Courts of Appeal must be members of the Florida Bar for ten (10) years preceding election. Circuit Court judges must be members of the Florida Bar for five (5) years preceding election. Unless otherwise provided by general law, county court judges must be members of the Florida Bar for five (5) years prior to election; in counties where the population is less than 40,000, County Court judges must be members of the Florida Bar, unless otherwise provided by law -- Article V, Section 8, Florida Constitution, (1968 as amended 1984).

Our Florida Constitution also outlines that members of the legislature must be at least 21 years of age, an elector, and resident of the district from which elected, and shall have resided in the state for a period of two (2) years prior to their election. (Article III, Section 15 (c), Florida Constitution, 1968). The constitutionallly elected office of county commissioner is also described in the Constitution, stating that commissioners must reside in the district and shall be elected as provided by law, Article IX, Section 5 (e), Florida Constitution (1968 as amended 1984).

In contrast, there are no specific qualifications for district superintendents of schools. When provided by resolution of the district school board, or by special law, and approved by the vote of the electors the district school superintendent may be employed by the school board as provided by general law, rather than elected, which is covered in the Constitution, Article IX, Section 5, Florida Constitution (1968).

Our state legislature has, on numerous occasions, attempted to specify additional qualifications for election to office beyond those prescribed in the Constitution. However, the Florida courts have rejected these legislative initiatives in the past. Some of these examples are *Thomas v. State ex rel. Cobb, Wilson v. Newell, Owens v. Richardson,* and *Maloney*

v. Kirk. In all of these Florida Supreme Court cases, the court declared invalid a statute requiring the different recommendations that had been made to upgrade minimum requirements for everything from the superintendent of schools to the county commission, including the collection of campaign contributions by elected officials.

No county in Florida should risk allowing a person to register and run for the office of sheriff without requiring minimum qualifications as part of the process. In many counties in Florida, the sheriff not only is responsible for maintaining law and order and running the correctional institute for the county, but also, in the mid-size counties, responsible for a $40 to 60M budget, that he/she has been entrusted to disburse by the taxpayers of the county per Chapter 30, F.S.

Qualifying for Sheriff in Other States

Six states have, in the last decade, passed legislation providing for professional standards and criteria for an individual seeking the office of sheriff -- Georgia, South Carolina, Ohio, California, Oregon, and Minnesota. It is this writer's opinion that the state of Florida should enact qualifications drawing from the experience of six other states; perhaps the qualifications in counties with a population of 40,000 people or less should be less stringent. However, in the larger metropolitan and more populated counties, more stringent qualifications would be required for anyone seeking the office of sheriff.

The purpose for this is stated very simply in the intent of the qualifications and training requirements of Article I in the General Provisions of the Georgia state law:

> _That it is to be in the best interest of the citizens of this state that qualifications and standards for the office of sheriff be determined and set so as to improve both the capabilities and training of those persons who hold the office of sheriff. With the increase of crime continuing as a major social problem in this state, and with the understanding that the sheriff is the basic law enforcement officer of counties of this state, it is declared to be the intent of the General Assembly that proper qualifications and standards be required of the person holding the office of sheriff so as to increase the effectiveness and capabilities of the several sheriffs of this state as law enforcement officers to combat crime._

Georgia probably has the best comprehensive plan and the best set of qualifications for the office of sheriff. These start with very basic and simple qualifications, such as a person has to be a citizen of the United States, and a

resident of the county in which he/she seeks office for at least two years preceding the date of the election. The candidate must be a registered voter and be at least 25 years old prior to the date of qualifying for election to office. The state of Georgia requires a high school diploma or its recognized equivalent in educational training. The state of Georgia further states that a person can not hold office it he/she has been convicted of a felony offense or any offense involving moral turpitude. Candidates must be fingerprinted, with a search made of local, state, and national fingerprint files for any criminal record, and the candidate for the office must give a complete history of places of residences for a period of six years immediately preceding qualification for running for the office. Georgia also requires a complete employment history for the six years immediately preceding qualification date. In subsection C of the Georgia code, no person shall be eligible to hold the office of sheriff unless:

1. *Be a certified peace officer as defined in Chapter 8 of Title 35 within six months of taking office.*
2. *Possesses a two year degree or its equivalent from a college or university.*
3. *Have two years of college or two years experience in the law enforcement field, or*
4. *Have two years of educational training in the law enforcement field.*

Immediately following election every newly elected sheriff is required to complete a training session of no less than six weeks to be conducted by any academy certified by the Georgia Peace Officer Standards and Training Council.

California requires at least a master's degree and/or seven years experience in law enforcement. California and other states, including Ohio, reduce the amount of education required if the applicant has a substantial law enforcement background prior to seeking election. If an individual has five years experience in law enforcement, he/she is required to have an associate's of arts or science degree, not a master's degree, before being qualified to seek office.

An unusual incident occurred in the election of a sheriff in San Mateo County, California. Prior to this time, the state of California, like most states, had not amended its Constitution. The system had for many years operated under the status quo concerning the office of sheriff and other elected officials.

In 1986, incumbent Sheriff Brandan Maguire was running

for re-election after serving almost a quarter of a century as the Sheriff of San Mateo County. An unfortunate circumstance that drew national attention to this election was that on April 2nd, just prior to the June 3rd election, Sheriff Maguire died of a heart attack. The only other candidate in the race, James White, then requested that the legislature enact a new law setting forth some procedure to handle elections when the incumbent dies just prior to an election. As it turned out, the election was held on June 3rd as scheduled and the California Court of Appeals ruled it unconstitutional to delay the election just because of the incumbent's death. Mr. White responded with a suit urging that the election be postponed until the next March, giving him time to campaign on the issues and allowing other candidates an opportunity to enter the race if they so desired.

The result of this unusual race was that Sheriff Maguire received 81,679 votes to Mr. White's 20,839. As an article in the County Almanac, San Mateo County, June 25, 1986 states, "The odd race which had more plot twists than an Agatha Christie novel" drew national media coverage.

The chain of events caused by this race eventually led the California legislature to deal with setting guidelines for the death of an incumbent in an election. It also drew attention to the fact that there were no stringent guidelines or rules of any kind determining the qualifications needed for a person to run for the office of sheriff.

Fortunately the state of Florida has rectified this problem by virtue of §100.111 4(a) and (b), F.S. In the event there is a death prior to an election of a qualified incumbent, the statute provides for a special primary or other means for nominating a replacement candidate. But, as stated earlier, there are no specific guidelines outlining necessary qualifications for any individual wishing to run for the office of sheriff in this state.

How Qualified are Florida's Sheriffs?

In the state of Florida the population base and the political landscape are continually changing as we progress through the last eight years of the 20th Century. We must now act to rectify this tremendous problem by outlining specific qualifications for the office of sheriff in the state's 67 counties. While demographic characteristics in many counties have virtually remained unchanged over the last 25 years, many other counties, especially in central and south Florida, have drastically changed in terms of where residents are originally from, their financial status, and their educational level. In many of our counties, sheriff's offices

are no longer able to function under the "good old boy" system that has survived for the past 100 years. We now have citizens from many different areas of the country and the world, and they are rapidly becoming more and more involved in the global business community.

Just as the citizens in our state have changed, the applicants for sheriff's deputies have also changed drastically over the last decade. Many of the applicants for the position of deputy sheriff or employees of sheriff's offices are better educated than they were a decade ago, and in a great number of counties we're seeing applicants that were not born and raised in the county of application. Especially in central and south Florida, many of the employees of our agencies are not originally from the state, and in many cases are from and have previous law enforcement experience in other states.

We, of course, still find that many of the northern counties, where demographics have remained virtually unchanged, continue to have many employees in their agencies that are third and fourth generation residents of the county.

An excellent example of these changes in our state was outlined in the July/August 1992 edition of the Sheriff's Star. Berlinger's article (1992) drew the parallel of Joe Higgins who was used in an advertising campaign during the 60's, representing the country sheriff to the nation. The article refers to the stereotyping of sheriffs as the "Boss Hog" type of individual in the television series "Dukes of Hazzard," Sheriff Andy Taylor of the "Andy Griffith" show, and the memorable role played by Jackie Gleason as the blustering, bumbling Sheriff Buford T. Justice in the movie "Smokey and the Bandit."

As the article points out, the modern sheriff in the state of Florida bears no resemblance to these characters that have unfortunately stereotyped sheriffs in the South for many years. Information supplied by J.M. (Buddy) Phillips, the Executive Director for the Florida Sheriffs Association, shows that sheriffs in Florida today are extremely professional and dedicated to serving the citizens in their counties and the state of Florida.

All but one of Florida's 67 counties elect their sheriffs. In Dade County, an appointed Director of the Metro-Dade Police Department serves as "Sheriff." The Florida Sheriffs Association study shows that the average sheriff in the state of Florida today has 24 years of law enforcement experience, including time served as sheriff. The career totals range from seven years to 43 years with two sheriffs in the top bracket.

Further information from this article revealed that 31 sheriffs have graduated from the F.B.I. National Academy in Quantico, Virginia, the Southern Police Institute in Louisville, Kentucky, or the Florida Department of Law Enforcement's Chief Executive Seminar. Thirty-six sheriffs (53.7%), have earned one or more college degrees and the academic levels they have achieved are as follows:

8	(22.2%)	Associate Degree (2 year)
15	(41.7%)	Bachelor Degree (4 year)
11	(30.5%)	Master's Degree
2	(5.5%)	Ph.D. or Law Degree

Eleven of the sheriffs in Florida (16.4%), had formerly served as city police chiefs. The typical Florida sheriff is in his mid 40's, which is slightly younger than their predecessors a decade ago. Again, as stated in this article, Florida's dynamic march of progress has made it mandatory for sheriffs to possess a high degree of training, education, and professionalism. It appears that Florida sheriffs have answered the challenge.

As proposed in the beginning of this project, a survey was sent out to the 67 sheriffs in the state of Florida to gather pertinent information about their level of education, training, and many other categories of data. The survey was entitled "The Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute Survey of Florida Sheriffs," dated April 1992. However, the response rate was lower than expected. Twenty-two responses were received from sheriffs for a 32% return rate.

The survey covered many areas: total number of sworn law enforcement officers; total number of full-time correctional officers; number of full-time civilian employees; total annual operating budget; year round population served; and estimated daily population served. There was further inquiry in the survey as to the three sheriffs that served prior to the current sheriff, their tenure, and their reasons for leaving office (election lost, retirement, resignation, unknown, and other).

Current sheriffs were then queried about the number of years served as sheriff of their county, the number of years employed in the sheriff's office, and the number of years in law enforcement.

Inquiries in this survey also probed into past work experience, breaking it down into different agencies from city to federal law enforcement experience.

The survey further inquired into the different categories of functional areas, the sheriffs may have had experience in, and asked them to indicate the time and years for each

category, such as years in planning/budgeting, general administration, investigations, and others. The survey asked each sheriff to rate his work experience as "not relevant", "good preparation," or "excellent preparation" for the office of sheriff.

In concluding this personal evaluation, respondents were asked what type of work experience they did not have but would have been beneficial to them before becoming sheriff. Five sheriffs out of the 22, almost 23%, responded that they would have liked to have had training and/or experience in fiscal or budgetary areas prior to taking the office of sheriff. Unfortunately, the majority of the 22 responding sheriffs did not enter any information in response to this question.

Further information was gathered about the educational level of each sheriff, and also what level of education a person should have to hold the office of sheriff. It was determined that 12 sheriffs (55%) indicated that the exact level of education they each possessed was the level that should be required.

Five sheriffs responded by indicating an educational level lower than what they actually had. Several had master's degrees, but indicated that a sheriff should have at least a minimum education of a bachelor's degree. This represented 23% of the responding sheriffs. Four of the responding sheriffs indicated a level of education higher than what they actually had. This represented 18% of the 22 responding sheriffs.

One sheriff (4%) indicated that he did not know what the minimum educational level should be for the office of sheriff.

The fact that only 22 out of 67 sheriffs responded makes this survey limited in its statistical significance. It would have been much more valuable if a higher percentage of sheriffs responded and answered the questions as honestly and objectively as possible.

In the future, it would probably be received much better by sheriffs in the state of Florida if questionnaires were sent via the Florida Sheriffs Association. This survey was forwarded through the Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute, which also shows that it is affiliated with the Florida Department of Law Enforcement. Most likely, many sheriffs felt that since the Florida Department of Law Enforcement was involved, it would also be in charge of this study and the information gathered.

Conclusions

While it is obvious in viewing the qualifications of the 67 sheriffs currently serving in the state of Florida, the majority of our sheriffs are imminently qualified to hold office. However, there is a certain credence to the proposal that the office of sheriff should have a constitutional amendment and the necessary Florida State Statutes to establish qualifications for anyone desiring to run for this office. Currently, in the state of Florida, to be employed in the position of deputy sheriff, there are minimum qualifications set forth by the Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission. It seems ironic that the state of Florida subjects deputies to more stringent employment requirements than its sheriffs.

It is in the best interest of the citizens of the state of Florida, that qualifications for the office of sheriff be determined and set to improve both the capabilities and training of those persons who hold the office.

It is obvious that any legislative proposal in the future for a constitutional amendment or an enactment of state statutes covering qualifications in this area, would meet some resistance from many of the legislators around the state, and possibly from some sheriffs in the state of Florida.

It is my view that we should not characterize this attempt as a Hamiltonian (rule by the elite) theory of government, as it would probably be perceived by many smaller counties. Nor is it a Jacksonian approach, (to the victor goes the spoils) which unfortunately is still used in many counties when there is a newly elected sheriff.

There has been a committee formulated in the past several years, working closely with the Florida Sheriffs Association and numerous sheriffs, to draft a proposal outlining the qualifications for office. This writer intends to do further research in this area.

One of the research methods will be to gather data necessary for establishing the criteria and qualifications for the office of sheriff. A new survey will be conducted throughout the state. This survey will be an attempt to retrieve as much information from the individual sheriffs. This data might reveal the experience, educational level or other training, and the size of their respective departments.

There is no doubt that professional standards and qualifications need to be set forth in law for persons wishing to seek this office. In the interest of preserving the integrity of the office of sheriff, and in the public trust for the office of sheriff, it is in our best interest that the legislature and the Florida Sheriffs Association work diligently together to ensure these qualifications and standards are put into law in the form of legislative acts or a constitutional amendment.

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The Social and Economic Feasibility of Sustaining the War on Drugs

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This presentation goes against the current conservative political norms by proposing that the war against illegal drugs is "unwinnable." Future economic conditions will mandate that money now spent on enforcement activity be redirected toward more pressing social and economic needs. Historical facts are explored, especially the American prohibition and marijuana enforcement experience. There is exceptional evidence presented that the law enforcement "war" has actually increased the amount of drug abuse, violent crime, and organized criminal gangs.

A very unique, controlled experiment using conservative police personnel is detailed, showing that given the right arguments, there will be a change in future public attitudes that could lead to, and end the "unwinnable" war on illegal drugs.

Introduction

When the solutions to our vices become as unacceptable to us as the vices themselves, then society will fall.

This paraphrased quote from Livy's <u>The History of Early Rome</u>, written sometime between 59 B.C. and 17 A.D., is as applicable today as it was over 2,000 years ago. Just like Prohibition in the early part of this century, created by the 18th amendment to the Constitution and subsequently repealed by the 21st amendment, we as a people must address the solution to our war on drugs. Like the Korean War and the Vietnam War, the war on drugs is an unwinnable conflict between a large segment of society and the law, and the economic ability to sustain such a war for an extended period of time.

Through the use of historical research, current survey polling, and economic statistics, this research brings together the various components of this war on drugs and attempts to display "the big picture." This big picture will compare very closely with the Prohibition experience early in this century. It is hypothesized that history repeating itself - government and society making the same mistakes over a moral issue, has resulted in unnecessary carnage, violence, and crime to the

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detriment of our overall welfare. Laws do not always provide the best solutions to our problems; sometimes the law is the problem. Szasz summarized:

> It is time -- if it is indeed not too late -- that we look more closely not only at what harmful drugs and profit hungry pushers do to us, but also at what harmful laws and power hungry politicians do to us. In the history of mankind, many more people have been injured and killed by laws than by drugs, by politicians than by pushers. We ignore this lesson at our own peril. (Rublowsky, 1974, p. 11)

The History of Alcohol in America

During the Colonial period, alcohol played a central role in the economic development of our nation. Rum and whiskey were the principal items of trade with the Indians, and as such, were central to the lucrative fur trade.

Farmers in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia depended on distilling as the most practical and profitable method of transporting a rye crop to market. Many small farmers depended on cash from whiskey sales to purchase the necessities of life. The Whiskey Rebellion that occurred soon after the American Revolution revealed the importance these farmers attached to this commodity.

By the late 18th century, widespread drunkenness was cause for concern. In the decades prior to the Civil War, the temperance movement emerged in the form of organizations such as the American Temperance Society, the Sons of Temperance, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, and the Anti-Saloon League. Temperance leaders sought to persuade people to abstain from alcohol voluntarily. The victories and defeats of the movement took on the symbolic meaning of victory or defeat for the values of the middle-class: American-born Protestants vs. the European, Roman Catholic, Irish, German, Mediterranean, and Slavic immigrants of the late 19th century.

In 1906, only three states had prohibition. By 1912, there were ten. In December 1917, the U.S. Congress passed the 18th Amendment to the Constitution, outlawing manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors into or out of the United States of America.

By the time the 18th Amendment had been ratified in January of 1919, 19 more states had passed prohibition legislation. More than 50% of the American population lived in dry areas of the country.

In January 1920, Prohibition became law. The Volstead Act, the enforcing arm of the 18th Amendment, was passed by Congress, overriding a veto by President Woodrow

Wilson. The law remained in effect for almost 14 years until it was repealed on December 5, 1933, when Congress ratified the 21st Amendment.

Unlike the drug legislation of today, The Volstead Act did not criminalize the consumption or purchase of alcohol. It prohibited the sale, manufacture, and transportation of alcohol. The 18th Amendment directly caused the creation of a major industry: bootlegging and smuggling. Prohibition was the single most important element in the development of organized crime in America.

Bootlegging and smuggling required venture capital to get started and to maintain a cash flow to pay expenses. It also required business organization skills to meet the supply and demand of this thriving industry. Political protection, as well as protection from hijacking, were essential. In such a market, political corruption is necessary to operate and curtail competition. Competition is as unwelcome in illegal activities as it is in legal activities. Considering the violence that erupted during this time in our history, it is ironic, but true, that a number of bootleggers died - in essence, defending the tenets of free enterprise.

The Volstead Act failed because people did not stop drinking under Prohibition. Drinking simply became a crime by virtue of an act of law. This resulted in a whole new criminal class in America, a class that numbered in the tens of millions. This posed an unwieldy legal situation. It became almost impossible to prosecute, much less jail, the estimated one-third of the population that openly ignored the law.

The cost of enforcing this prohibition legislation was astronomical. State and local law enforcement expenditures, before and after prohibition, increased 257% (see Table 1).

From 1932 to 1934 there was a decrease in law enforcement expenditures of 31%. The only significant variable between these two years was the repeal of Prohibition.

Federal law enforcement expenditures, before and after prohibition, increased a whopping 933%! As Table 2 clearly shows, Federal law enforcement costs dropped by over 50% between 1932 and 1934 when Prohibition was repealed.

What this experiment demonstrated was that our national drug of choice was not something to be trifled with, even by the most well-meaning people of the day.

Table 1
State and Local
Law Enforcement Expenditures
Before and After Prohibition

Year	Expenditure
1913	$ 89M
1922	$190M
1927	$270M
1932	$318M
1934	$219M

Source: *Historical statistics of the United States*, Bicentennial Edition. U.S. Department of Commerce, 1976.

Table 2
Federal
Law Enforcement Expenditures
Before and After Prohibition

Year	Expenditure
1913	$ 3M
1922	$14M
1927	$20M
1932	$31M
1934	$15M

Source: *Historical statistics of the United States*, Bicentennial edition. U.S. Department of Commerce, 1976.

Tobacco as a Drug

When Columbus returned from the New World he brought with him a new substance from the Indians he encountered: tobacco. The habit of smoking and chewing tobacco spread rapidly throughout the world. At this time, the rapid dissemination of tobacco appeared to be a bewildering phenomenon. Many saw it as the hand of the devil!

So rapid was the spread of the tobacco habit, and so compelling was the need for the leaf, that authorities in practically every country sought to ban the habit. In 1642, Pope Urban VIII declared a formal condemnation on tobacco, and sanctioned it as a new sin. The Russian Czar, Michael Fedorovich Romanov, punished smokers by cutting off their noses or beating the soles of their feet until they were bloody.

In 1633, the Sultan Murad from Turkey proclaimed a royal decree against smoking. His sanctions included such acts as hanging, beheading, and quartering the condemned subject between four horses. The Japanese confiscated the smoker's property. Those without property were jailed.

The English, a more mercantile people, recognized the financial possibilities of tobacco. Here was a substance whose use was almost impossible to stop once a user became accustomed to its effects. Instead of prohibiting the use of tobacco, the English taxed it. Almost immediately the treasury grew and tobacco became a significant new source of revenue. The new tax was paid by the tobacco users with a minimum of complaint.

In the Colonies, tobacco was a cash crop for the South and contributed, along with alcohol, to the economic supremacy of the United States of America. We can safely say that without the economic impetus provided by these two drugs, American history would have been vastly different.

People did not stop smoking, even though the dangers were known to them. Surveys revealed that smokers were aware of the dangers, but refused to abandon their drug of choice. Even after the Surgeon General's Report on smoking and mortality in 1964, society did not respond and cigarette sales soared (Table 3).

Although this trend is in sharp decline today, the demand for cigarettes will not subside. Ottawa, Canada reports 95% of all cigarettes exported from Canada are smuggled back into the country for distribution on the black market.

Table 3
Cigarette Sales
(in billions smoked)

1963	523.9
1964	511.2
1965	528.7
1966	541.2
1967	549.2

A Brief History of Drugs in America

It is often contended that the desire to alter one's state of consciousness is inborn. The Indians of North and South America discovered and developed the most extensive list of hallucinogenic drugs in the world. These included mescaline, peyote, psilocybin, jimsonweed, and various other mushrooms and plants; these were used by nearly all the tribes in the New World long before Columbus set sail in 1492, with little or no disruption of the social fabric. These organic substances still play a central role in the religious life of the American Indian today.

Pilgrims brought spirits to the new world in the form of rum, laudanum, and tincture of opium. In the 1850's, America even had a hashish club for writers and artists. The Civil War brought morphine addiction, also known as the soldier's disease. Sigmund Freud prescribed cocaine to his patients and is responsible for popularizing its use. Harvard psychologist William James discovered the effects of nitrous oxide (laughing gas), and Timothy Leary introduced LSD as a hallucinogenic.

When alcohol prohibition was repealed, there was no longer an official menace or crime. In 1930, the Federal Narcotics Bureau was instituted as part of the Treasury Department. Its first director was Harry J. Anslinger. Repeal of prohibition left a huge gap that had to be filled. The establishment of the Narcotics Bureau created an organization that had to find justification for its existence. This need could be filled by directing the public's attention to the use of cannabis (marijuana). There was one problem: very few people in America had heard about cannabis. Use of the drug was restricted to a tiny portion of the population, and it was difficult to get people excited about marijuana when they knew so little about it. Therefore, Director Anslinger took steps to remedy the situation:

> As the marijuana situation grew worse, I knew action had to be taken to get proper legislation passed...Much of the irrational juvenile violence and killing that has written a new chapter of shame and tragedy is traceable directly to hemp intoxication...On radio and at major forums...I told the story of this evil weed of the fields and rivers and roadsides. I wrote articles for magazines; our agents gave hundreds of lectures to parents, educators, social and civic leaders. In network broadcasts I reported on the growing list of crimes including murder and rape. I described the nature of marijuana...I continued to hammer at the facts...I believe we did a thorough job, for the public was alerted and the laws to protect them were passed, both nationally and at the state level. (Rublowsky, 1974, p. 106)

By the spring of 1937, when the Marijuana Tax Bill was enacted by Congress, most people in America had heard about the drug. Anslinger was right - the Narcotics Bureau had done a thorough job. The nation was alerted. However, Congress, Anslinger, and the public ignored previous studies and research on the subject. The British East India Hemp Commission Report, prepared in 1893-1894, consisted of seven volumes and more than 3,000 pages.

The English Commission studied all phases of cannabis use in a country where the drug had been in common use for centuries. It was reported that cannabis was not an addictive drug and no significant physical effects or evidence of mental deterioration were found in moderate users. Also, no connection with crime, of any kind, was revealed. The Commission recommended that the colonial government not interfere with the traffic of the drug in India.

A 1925 U.S. Army study on the growing use of cannabis among soldiers stationed in Panama revealed similar findings:

> *After an investigation...the committee found no evidence that marijuana as grown here is a habit-forming drug...or that it has any appreciable deleterious influence upon the individual using it. (Rublowsky, 1974, p. 104)*

The Narcotics Bureau published an annual report in 1932 for the preceding year that stated in part:

> *A great deal of public interest has been aroused by the newspaper articles appearing from time to time on the evils of the abuse of marijuana. This publicity tends to magnify the extent of the evil and .... infers that there is an alarming spread of the improper use of the drug, whereas the actual increase in such use may not have been inordinately large. (Rublowsky, 1974, p. 112)*

Five years later, in a hearing before the Ways and Means Committee of Congress, that was considering passage of anti-marijuana legislation, Anslinger's testimony had changed dramatically. He presented marijuana as a menace of crisis proportion that was spreading like a cancer throughout the nation.

This testimony resulted in a law being passed once again that arbitrarily made criminals out of the users of a drug that Colonel J.M. Phalen, editor of <u>Military Surgeon</u>, described after an official inquiry as "no more harmful than the smoking of tobacco or mullein or sumac leaves...The legislation was ill-advised...it branded as a menace and a crime a matter of trivial importance."

After World War II, people believed in the power of

technology and the huge productivity of U.S. corporations. The war also created a pervasive analogy for the postwar era itself. Having triumphed, Americans were tempted to see all societal problems as small wars. Problems could be surmounted with the proper strategy and tactics. The analogy was sometimes explicit (as with the "war on poverty" in the 1960's or the 1980's "war on drugs"). As problems arose, we would solve them, privately if possible, publicly, if necessary.

The War on Drugs

President Bush made a campaign promise and stated, "This scourge will end." But the cost of fighting this war is astronomical. According to the National Drug Control Strategy (Budget Summary), published by the White House in January 1992, the projected drug control budget for 1993 will be $12,728.7 billion (see Table 4).

In the 1991 edition of the U.S. Statistical Abstract, the United States Department of Commerce reported that total law enforcement expenditures for local, state and federal governments exceeded $22 billion in 1985. The Office of National Drug Control Policy estimates the amount spent by Americans for illegal drugs in 1990 was $40.4 billion ("Justice by the," 1992). This figure contrasts with $46 billion in state, local, and federal law enforcement expenditures to fight the war on drugs in that year.

Prison bed space has more than doubled, from 31,272 in 1982 to 69,152 in 1991; and drug use continues. Also, prison budgets increased 93% between 1988 and 1992 ($1,069 billion to $2.06 billion).

Brian Bruh heads a new arm of the U.S. Treasury Department created to sniff out international drug lords. Bruh told Parade's Washington bureau that as much as $85 billion in American and European drug proceeds are being laundered each year. Bruh stated that, "As many ways as there are to move narcotics, there are many more ways to move money. That's why it's so hard to stop" (America's top sleuth, 1991).

The most poignant statistic of all comes from the Pentagon. A direct military role in drug interdiction had been debated for years in Washington. Congress appropriated $300 million in late 1988 to pay for increased military surveillance of drug smugglers in the Caribbean, but military resources were still limited and the armed forces could not make arrests. The Pentagon resisted an increased role. However, Congress passed bills in the summer of 1988 calling for the armed forces to seal U.S. borders to drug trafficking.

Table 4
National Drug Control Budget,
1982 - 1993
(in billions of dollars)

Year	Budget
1982	$1,651.9
1983	1,934.7
1984	2,298.0
1985	2,679.6
1986	2,826.1
1987	4,786.7
1988	4,702.4
1989	6,592.3
1990	9,693.1
1991	10,841.4
1992	11,953.1
1993	12,728.7

The Pentagon said it couldn't be done. Simply attempting it, the Defense Department said, would cost $22 billion and require: 110 AWACS, 96 infantry battalions, 53 helicopter companies, 165 cruisers and destroyers and 17 fighter squadrons (Gugliotta & Leen, 1989).

Patrick Murphy, chairman of the Police Policy Board for the U.S. Conference of Mayors states, "Hiring more police officers is no answer...drug treatment, social programs, and education are the solution."

The war on drugs is taking its toll at the local level as well as at the national level. The Lake Worth Police Department 1992/1993 budget had to be cut by over $600,000 to $6,634,050, to balance the total city budget. With approximately 85% of the budget being personnel costs, the projected result was 11 officer layoffs. Lake Worth has a total budgetary complement of 98 sworn personnel, thus 11 officer layoffs reduces the force by 11% at a time when violent crime is on the increase and drugs are in abundance.

Over the past 5 years, Lake Worth has shown significant increases in the budgetary expenditures to fight the War on Drugs. The figures in Table 5 only reflect the cost to respond to the numerous citizen calls for service by uniform zone officers. These figures are based on an average hourly salary for patrol officers and an average time spent on each call. However, the Lake Worth Police Department has 18 of its 98 sworn personnel assigned to drug investigations and drug task forces. This includes the vice unit and the tactical patrol unit. These 18 people make up 18% of the total sworn complement at Lake Worth, and in 1991 accounted for approximately $524,137 in salaries alone. This figure does not include overtime or equipment costs. Therefore, Lake Worth's costs to fight the war on drugs would more than cover the 1992/1993 budget deficit.

If the layoffs occur, the war on drugs would tie up 21% of the sworn personnel specifically, with the remaining sworn personnel handling routine drug calls for service 3-5% of their time.

Changing Social Attitudes About Drugs

Federal Judge James C. Paine stated, "The criminal caseload has expanded rapidly in the past decade, and...the most significant fact apparent from a review of the data on the federal courts' criminal docket is a meteoric increase in drug cases in the 1980's" ("Repeal today," 1991, p. 1). This increase in drug cases will likely

Table 5 Lake Worth Police Department Drug-related Calls for Service (CFS) vs. Budget, 1987-1991			
Year	CFS	Total Budget	Drug CFS Costs
1987	1,195	$4,064,582	$89,664
1988	977	4,863,740	91,703
1989	1,124	5,774,808	116,650
1990	1,111	6,221,439	121,618
1991	1,080	6,585,394	128,589

continue as a result of the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988.

Between 1980 and 1991, the number of federal drug cases increased 292%. Before the Anti-Drug Abuse Act (1980-1988), drug cases only increased from 11% to 24% of case loads. Based on Judge Paine's experience over the past 20 years, he concluded that the government has lost the war on drugs.

Judge Paine has joined that group of people who believe that the use and sale of controlled substances should be legalized. Judge Paine believes that alcohol did not cause the high crime rates of the 20's and 30's, Prohibition did. And drugs do not cause today's alarming crime rates, but drug prohibition does.

Prohibition of alcohol by the Volstead Act was supposed to be an economic and moral bonanza. Prisons were to be emptied, taxes cut, and social problems eliminated. Productivity was to skyrocket and absenteeism disappear. But these things did not happen, and they have not happened since the advent of the drug war. Instead, the major beneficiaries have been smugglers and the forces of big government.

For a paper presented to the 1982 Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Association in San Francisco, a telephone questionnaire survey was conducted with a random sample of 250 persons in the San Diego area. Over 98% of the respondents believed that the seven FBI "index" crimes -- murder, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, larceny and motor vehicle theft -- were legitimate crimes. However, only 50% thought that victimless and marginal crimes such as vagrancy, public drunkenness, gambling, and smoking marijuana, should be considered crimes.

In an open letter to Drug Czar Bill Bennett, Nobel Prize winning economist Milton Friedman (1989) of the Hoover Institution at Stanford University, wrote:

> In Oliver Cromwell's eloquent words, 'I beseech you in the bowels of Christ,' think it possible you may be mistaken about the course you and President Bush urge us to adopt to fight drugs. The path you propose of more police, more jails, use of the military in foreign countries, harsh penalties for drug abusers and a whole...of repressive measures can only make a bad situation worse. The drug war can not be won by those tactics without undermining the human liberty and individual freedom that you and I cherish. (p. 1)

Friedman goes on to make his case by informing Bennett:

> *...that the very measures you favor are a major source of the evils you deplore. The problem is demand, but not only demand but demand that must operate through repressed and illegal channels. Illegality creates obscene profits that finance the murderous tactics of the drug lords. Illegality leads to the corruption of law enforcement officials and monopolizes the efforts of honest law forces so that they are starved for resources to fight the simpler crimes of robbery, theft, and assault. (p. 1)*

If drugs had been decriminalized 17 years ago, "crack" might have never been invented. It was invented because the high cost of illegal drugs made it profitable. Legalization would have saved the lives of thousands of innocent victims; the ghettos of our major cities would not be drug and crime infested no-man's lands.

In her book, Desperados, Elaine Shannon (1989) asked, "Is there a solution?" Can a law that is violated regularly by 23 million Americans be enforced? The Soviet Union was a police state and could not contain its growing heroin abuse problem that was imported by Soviet soldiers stationed in Afghanistan. But if the solution is tougher law enforcement, what does that really mean? Execution of drug dealers? Wholesale arrests of drug users? Who will make the arrests? Most big-city police departments have their hands full rounding up dealers. If users could be arrested, where would they be kept? The jails are overloaded with violent felons. And what if the answer is more involvement of the military?

How can any military force secure the 88,000 mile perimeter of the United States? If the U.S. military and the American intelligence agencies could not interdict the Ho Chi Minh trail, the supply line to the Viet Cong during the Vietnam War, why does anyone think a military solution can be devised to smash trafficking rings that operate in the jungles and mountains of several dozen nations?

Lake Worth Police Department Survey Poll

The opinions of individuals such as Judge Paine, economist Milton Friedman, and Baltimore Mayor Kurt Schmoke who advocate the legalization of drugs, prompted this author to administer a survey in the Lake Worth Police Department. Based on the premise that people in law enforcement are basically conservative, it was hypothesized that if this group sanctioned legalization of drugs, society is also ready for a new approach.

A questionnaire was constructed with only one question:

Table 6
Lake Worth Police Department
Drug Legalization Survey

Response	Before	After
1 No	29	15
2 Not Sure	2	3
3 Maybe	1	9
4 Some Drugs	12	15
5 Yes	3	5
TOTAL	47	47

Should all drugs that are currently illegal be legalized and controlled like alcohol and tobacco?

Each participant was chosen at random regardless of sex, race, age or work assignment. They were asked to read the questionnaire and answer the question. There were five answers to the question:

1   NO
2   NOT SURE
3   MAYBE
4   CERTAIN DRUGS, BUT NOT ALL
5   YES

After answering the question, each participant read two articles from the Palm Beach Post; both articles advocated legalizing drugs. The first was a December 9, 1991 article, "High Crime: It's The Drugs," by George McEnvoy, a columnist for the Post. McEnvoy was heavily influenced by the second author, Federal Judge James C. Paine. Judge Paine's article, "Repeal Today's Prohibition: Legalize Drugs," appeared in the Post on December 8, 1991. There was also a November 15, 1991, USA Today graphic from the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration that showed drunk driving deaths had declined over the last ten years.

Once the participants had read the material, they were asked to answer the same question again. The results of this survey/poll are contained in Table 6.

There are 141 full time employees at the Lake Worth Police Department. Table 6 shows there were 47 participants in the study. This constitutes 33% of the Department. There were 11 females in the study (23% of the 47 participants) and 33 males (70%). Three people (7%) chose not to indicate their sex.

The survey results indicated that education and information can have an impact on how people view the issue of legalization of drugs. The reading material had some impact on the views held by these people in a conservative profession. The median response prior to the reference material being presented was "NO" legalization. After reading the informational material the median response was a "MAYBE."

Of the 11 females who responded, the median response to the before question was "MAYBE." After the reading material was administered to the females, the median score increased to a 4, or "CERTAIN DRUGS, BUT NOT ALL" should be legalized. Of the 33 males who responded,

the median score for the before question was "NO." After the reading material was administered, the median score rose to a 3, or "MAYBE."

Taken at face value, it would appear that females are more receptive to legalization of drugs than males, and they would respond more positively to an informational campaign to proceed with such legislation. However, because of the small female sample in this survey, this claim can not be substantiated.

On January 13, 1993, this same survey was given to 17 participants and 3 staff members of the Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute's Senior Leadership Program. Almost all respondents were high ranking, male criminal justice administrators with ten or more years of experience. Thirteen of the surveys were returned following a one hour lecture on drug legalization. The median response to the question, both before and after the lecture, was a 4 -- higher than the Lake Worth poll.

Conclusion: What Would Legalization Accomplish?

The first result of a prohibition is crime. This is a simple matter of economics. Drug laws reduce the number of suppliers and thereby the supply of drugs, driving up the price. The higher price means that users often commit crimes to pay for a habit that would be easily affordable if drugs were legal. At least half the crimes in major U.S. cities are committed as a result of drug prohibition.

The second effect of prohibition is corruption. Prohibition raises prices and that leads to extraordinary profits, which are an irresistible temptation to officials at all levels of government. We should not be shocked that some police officials are "on the take" during this war on drugs; we should be shocked that so many more are not.

The third result is that buyers are brought into contact with the criminal element. The very illegality of the drug business attracts people who are already criminals. The decent people, who could sell drugs as they might sell alcohol and tobacco, are squeezed out of an increasingly lucrative business enterprise. The corruption and violence that results should not be surprising.

The fourth result is the creation of stronger drugs. If a dealer can smuggle only one suitcase full of drugs into the U.S., that same dealer can get more money by smuggling a more potent drug. This occurred during Prohibition when the production of beer declined, while spirits accounted for a larger part of total alcohol consumption.

Massive savings in law enforcement expenditures, along

with increased revenue from taxes, would produce the necessary funds to educate our youth against drugs and treat the current population affected by drugs.

There are numerous forces propelling us into the future and an infinite number of possible futures waiting for us. This paper suggests one of those possible futures and the forces behind it.

"When the solutions to our vices become as unacceptable to us as the vices themselves, then society will fall"; this is as true today as it was in the time of Rome. Morality laws have failed throughout history; they will continue to fail in the future. Soaring budget deficits, increasing health care demands, and growing violence need a higher priority than attempting to police 23 million Americans who are obviously very committed to certain recreational activities. The aging baby boomers are about to explode the system as we near the year 2000, and resources will be necessary to accommodate them. Most will be on pensions and/or social security, thereby reducing the tax base, and creating an even greater financial disaster looming in our future. These children of the 60's and 70's are not as susceptible to the scare tactics associated with drugs as their parents were. They will not be willing to support the increasing expenditures necessary to continue the war on drugs. Our society has had significant experience with legal dangerous drugs, particularly alcohol and tobacco, and we can draw on that experience when we legalize our other recreational drugs.

As a sign of the times, Hallmark greeting cards has a new series of "Just for Today" cards for those people who are going through drug recovery. Hallmark conducted a survey and 78% of the respondents said they are, have been, or know someone in a recovery program. Hallmark estimates that 15 million people attend support groups for alcohol, drug, and other dependencies and an additional 100 million family members and friends encourage their efforts. These numbers would seem to indicate that help and treatment, rather than prison, is more acceptable to a vast majority of the population.

Another sign of the times is the 1992 presidential campaign, in that both democratic candidates, Bill Clinton and Al Gore, publicly acknowledged using marijuana in their youth. A similar admission a few years earlier by a Supreme Court nominee contributed to his defeat.

This research in no way advocates, condones, or is meant to persuade people to use drugs. However, it is meant to present an alternative perspective on a national and international problem that has, and will continue to

have, a significant impact on social and economic issues well into the 21st Century.

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Police Brutality: A Lifelong Learning Process

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The issue of police brutality continues to be a major concern for both the public and the law enforcement profession. This research explores the possible, multiple causal factors involved in the lifelong learning process that might contribute to police brutality. A survey, based on various causal factors, was administered to municipal, county, and state law enforcement officers in Orange and Osceola Counties. Although findings did not substantiate the hypothesis that brutality is the result of a lifelong learning process, expanded research is needed in this area. Recommendations that might help resolve the issue of police brutality are presented.

Introduction

Violence in the form of police brutality, unwarranted use of force, and other forms of mistreatment of citizens is not uncommon in American history. Commentaries documenting the growth and development of this country testify to an unwarranted use of force throughout the ranks of policing. Law enforcement records dating back to the movement across the Mississippi to the West provide numerous examples of the "shoot first, ask questions later" or "do what ever is necessary" attitude of officers.

Later, during the early 1900's, the brutal and sadistic use of the nightstick was prevalent. The New York City Police Department was the history maker in this area. Even the magistrates commented on the number of citizens being brought through the courts with broken hands and bruised bodies as a result of the so called "need for force" in order to make the arrest. Many of these arrests were unnecessary and when the citizen complained, the charges were usually dropped. These comments, which were widespread, received little, if any, attention during this time. This problem has continued throughout the better part of the twentieth century.

Two occurrences eventually caused the issue of police brutality to surface. The first was the "criminal law revolution" started by the United States Supreme Court under the leadership of Chief Justice Earl Warren. The other was the findings of the Kerner Commission (1967), which was formerly

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known as the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders.

As a result of the Supreme Court and the Kerner Commission, a greater national focus was turned toward the issue of police violence and the use of force. Since that time, there have been numerous studies conducted concerning this issue. These studies were done predominantly by asking the officers in many major departments why they thought an officer had the right to "rough up" a person. The results were that almost half of the assaults occurred when citizens openly defied police authority (Westlty, 1949). Another third were said to be the result of encounters with drunks, homosexuals, and drug users. National attention has been focused more recently on allegations of police brutality in numerous large metropolitan cities across the country. The most often cited cities were New York, Houston, San Antonio and Los Angeles (Inciardi, 1990).

In the past, police brutality was considered to be a practice limited to only a few "bad apples" within the agencies. However, more recent occurrences seem to suggest that it is the result of norms shared throughout departments and that, unfortunately, it is a consequence of the police officer's role. Police officers are given the unrestricted right to use force in situations where their evaluation of the circumstances demand its use. Yet this ability has never been precisely defined or limited.

There are many factors which have been said to contribute to the existence of police brutality. One factor is the police "working personality." Its characteristics are: the feeling of constant pressure to perform, the authority over others, suspicion, hostility, insecurity, and cynicism (Inciardi, 1990).

Another factor is what is referred to as "The Watchman" (Wilson, 1975). Here, the officers feel that all they do is act as maintainers of order, ignoring minor problems such as misdemeanors, traffic infractions, the poor, and domestic disputes. When confronted with problems, they feel that they must act tough and follow the path of least resistance and render their form of curbside justice. Many officers are said to be poorly trained and some departments barely meet minimum standards for planning, research and community relations. The consequences of the watchman style tends to allow corruption, bad arrests and unnecessary police violence.

Police authority is essential to the officer's role of enforcing the law and keeping the peace. Persons who question or resist authority represent a challenge to the

officer and the organization. These challenges are not taken lightly and the officer responds accordingly. If verbalizing doesn't work then he/she will resort to other means of force to gain compliance.

Some officers' views of social-value have an effect on the use of force. They feel that persons such as drunks, gang members, homosexuals, sex offenders, drug dealers and hardened criminals have no value to society and thus deserve no protection. As a result, these people are treated differently than normal citizens. As a matter of fact, certain officers have even singled out these people as targets for abuse.

Another factor which is said to contribute to the use of force by police is that of decision making. The role of a police officer requires that quick decisions be made. Many of these decisions are based on fragmented information. As a result, the officers and departments tend to defend the use of force as a quick resolution to the problem.

There has been a lot of time and research devoted in an attempt to determine a cause for police brutality or the use of unnecessary force. Reasons and recommendations have been offered which may answer some of these questions and may help to decrease the use of force or brutality. Yet, there are still an increasing number of occurrences almost daily across this country.

One aspect which has not been researched is whether the process of an officer's lifelong learning has any influence on the use of unnecessary force or brutality. Can brutality be the result of an officer's past learning experiences? This research project was conducted in order to determine if, in fact, there is a correlation between what has been learned by an officer and what that officer does when confronted with a situation which requires the use of force.

Research Methodology
This project began with a literature review of various factors that might contribute to the learning process conducive for the development of police brutality. Broad areas of human and personality development were explored along with societal violence in television, movies, toys, and games. Additionally, the influence of academics and sports were examined. Police training and recruitment policies and approaches were reviewed along with the effects of job-related stress and fear. Media influences and public perception were also scrutinized for contribution to the lifelong learning process of police brutality.

The final process taken in the study was to apply the aforementioned concepts to a descriptive research method.

Descriptive studies are a means of discovering new meanings, describing what exists, determining the frequency with which something occurs and/or categorizing information. In descriptive research, the researcher uses structured observations or questionnaires, or both, to describe the particular aspect being studied. This study utilized a questionnaire for these purposes.

The Instrument. A method to evaluate the feelings of sworn officers on the issues of the unnecessary use of force was needed. The questionnaire was developed by this writer after research had been done concerning the various subjects covered in this project (See Appendix A). The questionnaire consisted of 19 questions dealing with various topics related to the lifelong process of police brutality. Only one survey instrument was used in this research due basically to the time restraints.

The questions were formulated so as to allow those being surveyed to give their opinions and feelings without fear of being identified. The questionnaire was distributed to the officers at random. The instructions were to complete the questionnaire by choosing his/her particular choice to each question. The manner of returning the completed questionnaire was that of the officer.

The responses to the questions were evaluated based on opinions and some factual information provided. The basic idea was to allow the officers to express their concepts or opinions on several issues related to violence, the news media, the court system, the use of force, recruitment, and in-service training.

The questions were structured to gain knowledge concerning the levels of experience of those responding. Categories were established to determine those various levels of experience. The idea was to see if the opinions would differ with experience levels.

The survey also dealt with attitudes about the criminal justice system.

The Sample. The questionnaire was given to 90 municipal, county, and state law enforcement officers in Orange and Osceola counties. Seventy-one responded to the survey for a 79% return rate. Due to time restraints, the scope was limited to these areas. If more time was available, the questionnaire would have been distributed over a wider area.

The ages of those officers varied from 19 to 50 years of age. Experience levels were also tabulated and it was found that 10 respondents had from 0-2 years experience, 15 had 3-5 years experience, 13 had from 6-8 years experience, 8 had 8-11 years and 25 had more than 12 years experience.

Conclusion

The hypothesis which was explored during this research was whether police brutality could be or was a function of a lifelong learning process. The learning process was to have begun at conception and continued throughout childhood, adolescence, young adulthood and until a profession of law enforcement was chosen. From that point the research focused on the process of choosing qualified applicants and the training which the new recruit officer received. Then, the focus turned to the various pressures which an officer faces and the reaction which occurs.

It could not be proven that brutality was a lifelong learning process. It did, however, give indications that various things which are learned can cause various reactions to occur within any individual, including a police officer. These reactions are a result of a learning process which begins at conception and continues throughout a person's life. These reactions are both learned and instinctive based on the perceptions at the time of occurrence. Thus, there could be the possibility that brutality is the result of these learned reactions to the various pressures put upon a person as well as police officers. Police officers are human beings just the same as every other person on this earth.

There were areas discussed which would or could be researched further which could possibly make a determination on the causes of brutality by police officers. The one which this writer feels would be appropriate would require a great deal of time and resources. The research would involve a thorough investigation into the life of every officer accused and proven to have brutalized a person. Only through this type of research and cooperation by those involved could a truer case be made.

Perhaps the great philosopher Aristotle summed the real focus of this research when he said:

> It is a matter of real importance whether our early education confirms in us one set of habits or another. It would be nearer the truth to say that it makes a very great difference in deed, in fact all the difference in the world. (The Ethics of Aristotle, 1958)

As a result of the research, some recommendations have been found that might be utilized in maybe making a difference in solving the issue of police brutality.

Recommendations

Throughout this research, another focus of this writer has been to identify some recommendations that could possibly

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have some intervening effect on the potential for police brutality. The following recommendations are based on that assumption.

1. Violence on television was a major concern. The perception which has been presented to its viewers is that since it is the "good guys" who use violence to save the day, then acts of aggression or violence are quite justified if one's cause is just. To that end, the following recommendations are made:

A. Television producers need to think of ways to present things realistically. Conflict and excitement should be shown in nonviolent ways yet not be boring.

B. Parents should control, as much as possible, what their children watch and explain and discuss what they do watch. Some ways of doing this would be:

   1. Suggest that childhood books are read and understood by the children.
   2. Set reasonable limits to the time that a child is allowed to watch television.
   3. Suggest that family-oriented programs are watched and that they are done so by the entire family.
   4. Suggest that parents participate in hobbies and games with their children instead of watching television.

C. Educators can also assist with the viewing of television by:

   1. Using curricula developed in the past on how to use television effectively (Singer & Singer, 1984).
   2. Schools taking a lead in teaching that the violence portrayed on television is distorted, not as common as shown and that the consequences of crime are not shown.
   3. That there are other ways of solving problems without using violence.

2. Public perception was a concern over issues related to brutality. Effective law enforcement requires community support. This support is fashioned by the departments through their interaction with the community. This being true, then the following are ways in which a law enforcement agency can become a "partner" with its community.

A. Develop civilian police academies. Show the public what

and how the officers are trained and the related laws. Let them become involved in the training and ride with the officers to see the situation from both sides.

B. Develop public relations units. These units are constantly involved in various organizations and events promoting the department and getting it involved with the community.

C. Implement the School Resource Officer program. This allows for the children and community to see the officer as a human being, teacher and police officer.

D. Work toward a community oriented policing concept. Get the officer out of the car and talking to the community. Let the citizens know the officer and the officer to know them. Programs such as Neighborhood Watch and Radio Watch are excellent.

E. Implement programs which keep the public informed as to what is occurring within their community and department. The more informed they are, the more they are generally supportive.

F. Establish a Civilian Complaint Review Board. Allow selected citizens in the community to be able to review complaints and to recommend actions that they feel would be appropriate. This way, they feel like they are part of the department and are involved "with" their department and not "against" the department.

3. Police training was also discussed as to its impact on violence. Departments should do the following to help alleviate the "war" and "battle" concept:

A. Change the image that instructors are portraying to the recruits that they are going into battle and fighting a war, that it will be "us against them."

B. Emphasize that the techniques being taught are strictly defensive in characteristic and not offensive.

4. The recruitment process has improved over the past several years, but can be further improved.

A. The background investigation is done with much detail but this is only true to some extent. Smaller departments do not have the resources necessary to complete detailed background investigations. The following recommendations

are submitted:

1. Complete and detailed background investigations including good psychological exams and polygraph examinations should be done on a regional basis by training centers. A qualified pool of applicants could be developed and departments needing applicants could apply to the pool.
2. Guidelines should be developed by the Standards and Training Commission to govern this pool and the thoroughness of the backgrounds.
3. Applicants would have to submit their desires to those training centers and to the departments which they prefer as part of the process. The funding for the background investigations could come from an assessment fee paid for by the applicant.
4. Once an applicant was chosen by a department, then any additional testing would be done by that department. If the department does not hire the pool applicant then a reason would be returned to the training center and it would be up to the training center as to whether or not to retain the applicant in the pool.
5. If the training centers do not require the background investigation, then Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission should establish mandated guidelines for the processing of applicants. Those currently in existence are very liberal and thus allow for unfit applicants to become police officers. This causes a lack of confidence in the profession by the public as a result of a few "bad eggs."

5. Fear and stress were other major concerns discussed in this research. As was found, the results of stress and fear can be disastrous problems for the officer as well as the department. Steps should be taken to identify and resolve these before they become problems. The following recommendations are made:

A. A true and honest discussion of fear and stress should be done. This allows those who are suffering to know that the department and their peers are concerned.

B. The recruitment process, as discussed previously, needs to be improved in order to identify existing and potential problems in these areas.

C. Training in identifying and addressing fear should be

taught at the basic recruit level. Various scenarios should be developed which will cause fear to develop. As a result, the ability of the trainee to deal with stress and fear could be shown and addressed. If they cannot handle the stress and fear then they should be dismissed from the training.

D. Training should be given to the officers, supervisors and other departmental personnel of the effects of stress and fear and how to identify those effects. Ways to help alleviate or lessen their impact should be given.

E. The Field Training Officer (FTO) program should be aware of the potentials for fear and stress. The FTO should be able to identify and resolve these problems along with the assistance of the supervisors. These concerns or problems can be addressed on a "one-on-one" basis without hurting the officer's future. Should it continue then the officer should be dismissed.

F. Training should be given and reinforced throughout the officer's career on race and cultural awareness. Since the officer is dealing on a daily basis with various races and cultures, an understanding of these are necessary. The officers must understand and be able to deal effectively with all those which he will encounter.

6. Another area of concern was that of the news media. As has been shown, the news media has been a problem and will continue to be a problem for law enforcement. There are no well defined methods which can be used to lessen the impact that the news media has on law enforcement. The following are suggestions:

A. When dealing with the news media you must maintain control. Do not let the reporters intimidate you into saying something that is not true or off color. They like to make a story out of what they find rather than what they are given.

B. Sensationalism is prevalent with the media. The Rodney King incident is a prime example. Once it is done there is nothing that you can to downplay the printing. You will have to live with what was printed.

C. If you have negative press and that press is true, don't try to change what has occurred. The more you try to "downplay" the incident, the more the media will dig to uncover something else. Show regret for what occurred and try to show how you have tried to negate any further

incidents or what your
policies and procedures are regarding the incident.

D. When replying to questions by the media, try to keep your responses short and simple. The more you say the more information you are giving for them to question.

E. Allow the media access to the people and officers behind the story. It is best for them to hear it from the actual participants and to get a feeling of human beings instead of your story.

The purpose of this research was to determine if there is a connection between what an officer had learned over his lifetime and what effect that had on police brutality or the use of unnecessary force. This could not be proven. However, this writer believes that there is possibly a connection since we are what we have seen, been taught or heard. If the background has been one of violence, then the possibility of violence exists.

Research should be continued into this area. Perhaps the best method would be to review and interview all officers involved in police brutality incidents to determine their background and see if there is any correlation between the two. This would include not only those terminated and prosecuted for incidents, but also those who have been cleared and are still in law enforcement.

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Questionnaire and Results

1. How many years of experience do you have in law enforcement?

0-2	14.1%
3-5	21.1%
6-8	18.3%
9-11	11.3%
12 and over	35.2%

2. Are you satisfied with the way the criminal justice system deals with person you have arrested?

Yes	12.7%
No	78.9%
No Opinion	8.5%
No Response	1.4%

3. Have you ever felt that arresting a person was useless and that he or she would "get off" on some technicality?

Yes	63.4%
No	31.0%
No Opinion	5.6%

4. Do those persons who you have arrested and are found guilty receive the appropriate punishment for the crime which they committed?

Always	1.4%
Sometimes	87.3%
Never	11.3%

5. Have you ever been frustrated at having to arrest the same person over and over again for the same crime?

Yes	78.9%
No	19.7%
No Opinion	1.4%

6. Are you satisfied with the sentencing guidelines as established by the State of Florida?

Yes	11.3%
No	81.7%
No Opinion	7.0%

7. Have you ever felt that the only way that a criminal would receive any punishment was for you to provide that punishment?

Always	2.8%
Sometimes	49.3%
Never	47.9%

8. Have you ever used more force than was necessary because the person being arrested was mouthing off, cursing, or degrading you as a law enforcement officer?

Sometimes	8.5%
Occasionally	21.1%
Never	70.4%

9. Have you ever been so frustrated with a person that you felt like taking action personally against that person?

Yes   53.5%
No   29.6%
Never   16.9%

10. Should a law enforcement officer be given the ability, within reason, to use more force than necessary to arrest a person who is resisting, cursing or degrading the officer?

Yes   25.4%
No   57.7%
Never   16.9%

11. Do you feel that your training in law enforcement is preparing you to do battle as in a war?

Yes   9.9%
No   78.9%
No Opinion   11.3%

12. Do you believe that all the violence being shown on the television, movies, etc. is causing others to become aggressive toward law enforcement?

Yes   74.6%
No   15.5%
No Opinion   9.9%

13. Have you ever felt more aggressive after watching a program or move containing violence?

Yes   29.6%
No   64.8%
Never   5.6%

14. Do you know of another officer who has acted out his aggressiveness and made some statement like "this is the way they did it in the cop show?"

Yes   19.7%
No   80.3%

15. Have you ever seen another law enforcement officer be overly rough with a person being arrested?

Yes   64.8%
No   31.0%
Never   2.8%

16. Do you believe that when an officer is under stress or fearful of a particular situation that he or she might use more force than was necessary when making an arrest?

Yes   73.2%
No   14.1%
No Opinion   11.3%
No Response   1.4%

17. Do you believe that the reports in the news media have caused the public to mistrust law enforcement?

Yes   93.0%
No   7.0%

18. Do you agree with the way in which law enforcement is being betrayed in the various television programs?

Yes	8.5%
No	80.3%
No Opinion	9.9%

19. Do you believe that aggression can be the result of what a person has seen, been told or taught over that person's life time?

Yes	83.1%
No	2.8%
No Opinion	12.7%
No Response	1.4%

The Development of a Community Oriented Policing Program for a University Environment

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This article identifies the steps that a university law enforcement agency should take to implement a community oriented policing program. The implementation of a community oriented policing program at the University of South Florida (USF) is described. The project encompassed establishing a departmental commitment to community policing (mission statement), surveying the public to determine its needs and expectations, and surveying the officers within the agency to determine their knowledge and commitment to community oriented policing. Additionally, the training, administrative support, and reinforcement strategies for a successful program are detailed.

Florida's State University System (SUS)

The nine universities in Florida's State University System have a total enrollment of 170,548 students and a total employment of 11,621 faculty and 20,742 staff. The three largest universities in the system are the University of Florida in Gainesville (31,569), the University of South Florida in Tampa (30,691), and Florida State University in Tallahassee (28,054). Each university provides services and facilities that parallel those found in any city or municipality.

Each of the nine universities maintains a law enforcement agency of sworn, state certified officers who meet all standards established by the Florida Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission. SUS realizes that university police departments respond to the same needs and demands as any city or county law enforcement agency.

The chief of the university police department answers to a vice president. The command structure of each department differs based on size and the chief's philosophy. The number of sworn officers employed varies from 70 officers at the largest campus to 18 officers at the smallest.

Community Oriented Policing in Concept

Community oriented policing is a proactive, decentralized approach designed to reduce crime and disorder, and fear of crime. Development of a successful community oriented policing philosophy requires that the police and the community work closely together to identify and work toward the accomplishment of goals. This is accomplished by intensely involving the same officer in the same community on a long-term basis, so that residents develop trust and cooperate with police by providing information and assistance (Trojanowicz & Carter, 1988).

The police are one of few government services available 24 hours a day. This gives the police the opportunity to respond to a wide range of community problems and act as visible deterrents to crime, a role which inspires community confidence and a sense of security. The officer's presence can deter open drug sales, loitering, and acts of vandalism. The community policing officer also acts as the community's link to other public agencies, the community's ombudsman/liaison (Trojanowicz & Moore, 1988). The officer can initiate contact with other public agencies to have street repairs completed or abandoned cars removed from an area in an effort to create an atmosphere of concern by the citizens.

Developing and Implementing a Community Oriented Policing Program

The development and implementation of a community oriented policing program requires distinct organizational approaches that are often counter to traditional procedures. The following are the primary areas of consideration.

Mission Statement

According to Moore, the best structure for an organization "depends on the purposes of the organization, the environment in which the organization operates, and the particular ways in which the organization might best be used to deal with particular problems" (1991, p.27). This is done by defining the mission of the organization.

To set the ground work for implementing a community oriented policing philosophy, an agency must establish a clear statement of its mission and philosophy. The mission statement must reflect the intent both to continue traditional police responsibilities and to create a philosophy of community responsiveness and cooperative problem solving (Nila, 1990).

Administrative Strategies

The implementation of a community oriented policing philosophy requires a change in the fundamental way in which an agency is managed. It requires a chief who is committed to making community policing a success. The chief must understand what community policing means for the agency and be willing to commit time, energy, and money to achieve a total involvement by the department. It also requires that administrators not manage through command and control. Managerial approaches utilizing informal leadership and peer influences are prerequisite (Kelling, 1988). This can be accomplished by addressing three basic areas of management: participative management, identifying the values (mission) of the agency, and accountability to the community (Kelling, Wasserman & Williams, 1988).

Empowerment. Community policing requires a shift from the traditional bureaucratic structure to decentralization of authority and a participative style of management. Collaboration between the ranks, task forces, and temporary organizations are essential (Barnett, 1990). Managers empower officers to use their knowledge, skills, and values to identify problems and work toward solutions. By empowering officers with the authority to make decisions as they see fit, managers are expressing the trust they have in the officers (Brown, 1989).

It also involves the officers within the agency participating in decision making that affects the agency. This not only makes certain that they feel consulted but it also helps to "get the cards out on the table" for a more open forum of competing viewpoints (Kouzes, 1990).

Hiring. A community oriented agency can only be successful through the success of the officers in the agency. The hiring process is a starting point for identifying officers who would be successful in community policing. C. B. Fraser (personal communication, June, 1992) has identified several characteristics of a community oriented police officer which can be used to identify individuals who would make a successful officer. These characteristics include:

1. Interest in the problems of crime and the broader role of the police in maintaining public order and in providing a wide range of services.

2. Job satisfaction from seeing the benefits of labor and positive feedback from the job.

3. Ability to adapt to a community/neighborhood

perspective of law enforcement.

4.   Self-confidence and willingness to challenge conventional wisdom.

5.   Creativity and resourcefulness; organized and able think constructively.

6.   Objective decision making skills based on data.

7.   Broad perspective based on prior work experience, education, and an understanding of diverse cultures.

Taking these characteristics into consideration, questions can be developed for the staff to use in interviews that will gauge a candidate's attitude towards issues which impact community policing and communication within the community.

Evaluations. An agency implementing community oriented policing should involve the concept and the characteristics in every aspect of the job. Characteristics should be identified in the job description, the hiring process, and evaluations. Rather than counting numbers and relying on quantity of work done, the agency should monitor performance quality based on the ability to solve problems and involve the community in the department's crime-fighting efforts (Brown, 1989). This can be accomplished by writing performance standards with statements about the quality of work. Such standards might encompass such attributes as the encouragement of problem solving, demonstration of an understanding and appreciation of community needs, and positive contact with the public.

Staffing

Patrol. A small percentage (10%), of a patrol officer's on-duty time is spent on crime related activity. The remainder of the time is spent handling service calls, traffic enforcement and control, information gathering, and uncommitted patrol time (Trojanowicz & Carter, 1988).

The distribution of manpower based on need is important to consider when developing community policing. The distribution of crime related and noncrime related activity in an area will determine the size and location of an agency's zones or beats. A review of incidents, total time on calls, and calls for service can be used to establish those zones.

In staffing the community oriented policing program, an

appropriate fit between individuals and positions in the program must be made. Some officers possess special talents or weaknesses that allow them to function better in some assignments than in others. A survey of officers can help to identify those suitable for the program.

Support Services. The support services section consists of communications, records, and crime prevention. Each section plays an important part in the success of the patrol section in community oriented policing. The crime prevention section and its programs will play an increasingly important part in the community policing concept. Community policing and crime prevention are both striving to reduce crime and improve the quality of life in the community. To accomplish these goals, it will be necessary to make each officer knowledgeable about crime prevention programs available and also involve officers in crime prevention presentations for the public.

Investigations. The investigative division also plays an important role in community policing. Its direct involvement with patrol is important in keeping the community aware of what is happening in their area. Periodic briefings of patrol by investigators make the officers aware of any activity in their assigned areas that would be important in reducing crime.

One aspect of community policing is that police and the community work together to reduce crime. This premise makes it necessary to decentralize the investigative function (Brown, 1989). This places an investigator in a position of addressing crimes in a specific locality by assigning investigators to permanent zones or shift assignments. It also means assigning investigators to handle all crimes in their zones or shifts, and to be generalist investigators, not crime specific investigators.

Training. Formalized training is a major part of any law enforcement career. This training emphasizes laws, rules and procedures, and officer discipline. Under community policing all aspects of officer training will change. Training on the complexities and dynamics of communities and the importance of the police in the community will start at the recruit level (Brown, 1989). This will help develop skills in leadership, community organizations, and problem-solving procedures. Another major emphasis should be in cultural diversity.

Problem-solving skills should also be taught. Problem-solving is a tool that supports community policing by encouraging analyzing problems within the community as its fundamental strategy (Burgreen & McPherson, 1990). Training in this area should emphasize the essential aspects of

problem solving to include addressing the underlying problems that cause incidents, relying on the knowledge and creativity of line officers to develop solutions to problems, and involvement of the public in developing the solutions.

Rewarding the right conduct. Rewards are a powerful motivator of employees (Kelling, 1988). In some organizations the administration has the flexibility to use many forms of reward including increased pay, job perks, promotions, special assignments, and recognition. There are several means of rewarding officer conduct in agencies which have limited resources. These include performance evaluations, meritorious awards, officer of the year or month awards, commendations, and opportunities to attend special training courses.

Measuring the model. There are several ways in which an agency can conduct nontraditional qualitative measurements. One way this can be accomplished is by periodically conducting a public survey. This will give the agency an opportunity to determine if the community's opinion of it has changed as the community policing philosophy has developed.

The public survey should be used for setting agency priorities and developing organizational goals. Surveys can be interpreted to determine public expectation of the department and opinions for or against new, continued or controversial programs.

Another way the survey can be used is to not only provide information on perceived strengths but also to identify the factors which help in determining a citizen's perception of the agency. Citizens are more concerned about behavior that makes them feel secure than they are about the official's technical skills and crime solving abilities (Field, 1990).

Conducting the public survey every three or four years will insure that the agency will be kept up-to-date on these changes in opinion.

Just as an agency must consider public input to help satisfy public demands for more and better services (Trojanowicz, 1986), it also must determine levels of motivation of its officers. This and the extent of knowledge of the community and community oriented policing can best be accomplished by an anonymous survey of the officers. Periodic internal surveys of employees will show if motivational levels or levels of job satisfaction have changed with time. Re-surveying can be accomplished every one or two years.

Community Oriented Policing at the University of South Florida

Although the University of South Florida Police Department formally began implementing community policing early in 1992, most of the aspects of the philosophy have been a part of the agency's philosophy for several years. In moving toward the development of the philosophy, the University of South Florida Police Department formed a committee to write a mission statement for the agency. The committee consisted of five members, both sworn and non-sworn, representing different ranks within the department.

After completion of the mission statement, the command staff recommended minor changes and resubmitted the document to the group for consideration. Once a final statement had been approved, value statements were developed and submitted to and approved by the agency command staff (see box at left).

Public survey

The questionnaire developed by the University of South Florida Police Department initially consisted of questions used in three surveys: a National Crime Survey attitude questionnaire from 1975; a neighborhood survey developed for the Ocala Police Department; and a survey developed by the National Neighborhood Foot Patrol Center for the Michigan State University Police. The questions chosen for the USF questionnaire were then rewritten to address the University community's needs and the USF Police Department's capabilities.

The resulting survey was reviewed by the staff of the USF Police Department and additional changes were made in the questionnaire. A one-page evaluation form was developed that could be used by third parties to check for survey question clarity, bias, and conciseness. A pilot group comprised of two clinical psychologists, two representatives of Resource Analysis and Planning (RAP), one Administrative Affairs staff member, one Student Affairs staff member, and two students (non-criminology majors) completed the survey and made recommendations for improvement. Additional revisions were made based on their recommendations.

The public survey was conducted by the University of South Florida Police Department over a three-month period

in the fall of 1992. The questionnaires were collected from a variety of student, staff and faculty groups from various locations on the Tampa campus.

Of the total sample of surveys, 50% were female (n=479), 45.3% were male (n=434) and 4.6% were missing identifiers. The majority of the sample were white (61.1%); 12% were African American, and 9.8% were Hispanic. The remainder were divided among others, no answers, and Native American.

The majority of the sample were students (73.2%) and the staff represented 15.4% of the survey sample. The faculty comprised 5.5% of the sample with the remaining sample categorized as missing or other. Over half of the sample (55.3%) were not campus residents and nearly two-fifths (39.8%) were categorized as residents.

When asked about the importance of the services provided by the USF Police Department, the majority of the respondents indicated that almost all of the Department's activities were either "very important" or "somewhat important." The services that were indicated as the most important by the majority of the respondents were investigating all accidents (95.9%), assisting stranded motorist (91.2%), assisting motorist locked out of their cars (89.1%), teaching crime prevention (88.9%), and checking on the welfare of residents (87.4%). Little importance was placed on conducting vehicle safety inspections (53.7%).

Respondents were asked to rank the services provided by the university police. The highest proportion of first place responses in this category were for motor vehicle patrol (20.6%) and drug enforcement (14.4%).

The respondents then assigned a priority to those types of criminal activity that should be discouraged by directed patrol: robberies (98.8%), sexual assaults (95%), auto theft (89.1%), and burglaries (88.6%). When asked to rank the types of criminal activity for concentrated investigative effort, crimes against persons had the highest rankings. Sexual assault ranked first with 50.7% of the respondents. Assault and battery ranked second with 11.4%.

The respondents' feelings about their personal responsibility in relation to dealing with crime showed that a majority felt they were responsible for assisting the university police. An overwhelming number (93.7%) felt they were responsible for reporting crime on campus. Respondents (87.9%) also felt responsible for reporting suspicious activity and nearly the same proportion (87.7%) felt responsible for assisting victims who need help. Smaller proportions felt they were responsible for assisting police officers who need help (74.9%) or responsible for participating in crime prevention

programs (63.5%).

The respondents were asked a series of questions to determine victimization, if they reported the crime, and the helpfulness and courtesy of the officer responding. Only 9% of the respondents reported being victims of crime. A breakdown of the victims showed that more than half (55.2%) reported the crime to the police. Of the victims, 96% reported that the officer's behavior was "very" to "somewhat helpful." The officer's courtesy was rated as "very" or "somewhat courteous" by 90% of the crime victims.

When helpfulness of the officer was compared based on race of the victims, 62.5% of the African American victims, 57.1% of the white victims, and 66.7% of the Hispanic victims felt that the officers were "very helpful." Concerning the courtesy of the officer, 50% of the African American victims, 62.9% of the white victims, and 66.8% of the Hispanic victims felt that the officer responding was "very courteous."

Nearly one-fourth (23.4%) of the respondents reported having participated in a university police crime prevention program. Of those respondents who did participate, nearly all (98.5%) would recommend it to others.

Respondents generally rated the performance of the USF Police, compared to other agencies, as better or the same as other agencies. Very few (2.4%) rated the university police as worse than other agencies. In subgroups by race, whites and Hispanics were more likely than African Americans to view the police department as better than other agencies.

Over one-half of the respondents reported they did not know a USF police officer personally; although one-fourth (23%) indicated that they were acquainted with an officer. More staff members tended to personally know police officers than faculty or students. Additionally, a higher percentage of African Americans felt they were acquainted with an officer than any of the other races.

There was support for the view that officers are accessible. This was true for males/females, different races, and residents/nonresidents. However, a large proportion of the staff rated the officers as very accessible (30.3%) compared to students (15.3%) and faculty (17%).

Surveying the Officers

As previously indicated, community oriented policing is a philosophy that incorporates certain concepts, strategies, and programs and must include all divisions within a police agency. Not only should all divisions be included, they must also buy into the concept. The expectation is that motivated police officers will improve upon police and community

relations and the quality of the services they provide to citizens (Greene, 1988).

In order to determine the level of knowledge and motivation of officers within the University of South Florida Police Department, a survey was developed from material used by the Ocala, Florida, and the Aurora, Colorado Police Departments to survey the officers within their respective agencies. The questions chosen from these surveys were rewritten to reflect the university environment.

The resulting survey was reviewed by the staff of the police department and additional changes were made in the questionnaire. The questionnaire was reviewed by a representative of University Resource and Planning (RAP) and additional revisions were made based on his recommendations.

The officers in the USF Police Department were surveyed in November 1992. The survey was conducted anonymously and a total of 37 surveys, out of a possible 41, were returned.

The majority of the sample were police officers (n=16) with investigators, sergeants, and corporals comprising the next largest group (n=12). Most of the subjects surveyed had been employed by the department for one to five years (n=19). The greatest number of respondents surveyed had been in policing for five to ten years (n=14).

The age group of 26-30 years had the largest representation (n=10). A large proportion of the officers surveyed had a bachelor's degree (n=17).

A majority of the officers surveyed (75.7%) felt that resident students underestimate the dangers that exist in the residential area. Seventy-three percent indicated that they "almost always" encourage citizens to formally report all possible crimes to the police. However, there was only moderate support that officers should be involved in noncriminal matters.

The respondents were asked to identify the university organizations that the police should work more closely with. A majority of the officers felt the agency should work more closely with the Housing Department (n=24), student organizations (n=22), and the Department of Student Affairs (n=21).

Those surveyed were asked to identify the importance they placed on 10 of the service activities performed by the department. The officers ranked crime prevention as most important (n=25). Accident investigations and delivery of emergency messages followed with 24 and 21 responses, respectively.

When asked about the level of priority that should be

given to specific crimes, high priority was given to burglaries (n=36), auto theft (n=34), robberies (n=34), sexual assault (n=34), and drug enforcement (n=32). Moderate priority was given to loud parties (n=23) followed by traffic violations (n=16) and auto parts theft (n=15).

The officers were asked to prioritize nine types of criminal activity to identify where the university police should concentrate their investigative efforts. The respondents ranked sexual assault first, assault and battery second, and drug violations third. The officers indicated that not a lot of effort should be put into investigating alcohol violations and credit card fraud.

A comparison of the rankings in the public survey with those in the officer survey indicated that both groups placed similar emphasis on sexual assault, assault and battery, and drug law violations. The greatest amount of disagreement between the two surveys came with the ranking of theft. The public ranked the crime as the third most important crime to concentrate investigative efforts. The officers surveyed ranked its importance as seventh.

In ranking nine services provided by the university police, the officers ranked motor vehicle patrol (n=16) as most important and foot patrol (n=6) was ranked as the next highest priority. Crime prevention programs (n=5) was ranked third and drug enforcement (n=4) was ranked fourth. The officers did not place much importance on alcohol enforcement and assisting the public, ranking them as eighth and ninth, respectively.

A comparison of the ranking in the public surveys with those in the officer survey showed that the most obvious disparity was in the ranking of the category about assisting the public. In the public survey, the respondents ranked assisting the public as fifth but the officer's survey ranked the category as ninth.

The officers were asked to rate their feelings about their jobs by responding to certain statements about job tasks. The majority had positive feelings towards their work with only a few indications of negative feelings. Most of the respondents reported feeling there was support from the university police administration.

However, 11 officers reported that they felt deterred and prevented from performing their duties. In addition, 11 officers reported that to a "very great extent" they were performing duties that others should be doing.

Concerning interpersonal relationships, the largest number of "strongly agree" responses (n=32) came in response to a question asking if they should "recognize the needs of the victim." Teaching the university community

about suspicious behavior was second with 27 "strongly agree" responses, and being accountable to other police officers had 25 "strongly agree" responses. The officers responded with the highest number of "strongly disagree" (n=20) responses when asked if they should keep a distance between themselves and the university community.

When asked about the importance of interpersonal relationships with fellow officers, the respondents indicated that assisting fellow officers in some fashion was important to them. All of the officers (n=37) felt that it was "very important" to help fellow officers in emergencies. Helping fellow officers with follow up investigations and talking over problems were also viewed as significant.

Respondents were scrutinized about their preferences as to permanent zone assignments and the length of rotating shifts. The officers indicated overwhelmingly that they did not want permanent zone assignments. A large number of the officers (n=15) indicated they would prefer 17 week shift rotations which coincide with the length of a semester.

The officers were asked to specify how much time they spent in doing certain activities. These daily activity responses showed that the majority (n=27) spent a "great deal of time" in providing information/assistance to citizens. Patrolling/observing (n=18) had the second largest number of officers that reported spending a "great deal of time" on this activity, and officer initiated contact with citizens was reported a "great deal of time" by 14 of the respondents. Court appearances (n=13) and traffic enforcement (n=8) were reported most commonly as "almost no time" spent on these activities.

The respondents were asked to identify the activity they would prefer to engage in more often. The activities that were identified most often were solving community problems (n=25), investigating crime (n=21), field interviews and investigations (n=20), and patrolling/observing (n=20). Conversely, the activities the respondents least preferred were appearing in court and writing reports.

When identifying the importance that different kinds of training had in preparing each officer for daily work activity, personal experience in police work was chosen as most important. Field training and specialized training were ranked as important; academy training was also viewed as vital. College education was viewed as the least important of training experiences.

The respondents were also asked to rate the effectiveness of training provided by the university police. Human relations skills training was rated as highly effective,

general police skills were also appraised as effective. However, legal updates and liability issues were not rated as highly effective.

Assignment of Officers

The University of South Florida Police began its program by assigning three officers who had a history of demonstrated service orientation to the community to a squad assigned to foot patrol in the residential areas on campus. These officers had shown, through their actions, that they used their ability and knowledge to work with the community to improve the environment.

This "4th Squad", as it was designated, focused on developing a close relationship with residential managers (resident assistants and resident instructors) for each of the dormitories. They attended dormitory meetings and residential manager meetings in order to answer questions and brief them on any crime that was occurring in their areas of responsibility. The "4th Squad" also acted as a mediator for solving problems in the residential areas, problems such as needed lighting or repairs.

One aspect of the community oriented policing philosophy that will be incorporated into the University of South Florida Police Department program is the idea that the same officer works in the same community on a long-term basis, so that residents will develop the trust necessary to cooperate with the police by providing information and assistance. In order to achieve this, the USF Police Department will assign officers to certain zones on a permanent basis. While assigned to the zone the officers will be encouraged to be involved in every aspect of the activity in that zone. They will attend all crime prevention programs in the zone and will be responsible for identifying problems and developing solutions. The agency plans to develop a hot sheet which is zone specific to keep the officer assigned to that zone aware of the activity and crime in that area. This will not only better inform the officer but give that officer information to be passed to the public in that zone.

Since the University of South Florida Police Department survey showed that a majority of the officers were not in favor of permanent zone assignments, the implementation of this program will be prefaced by a training program which focuses on problem solving. This training program will also emphasize assignment to the same zone over a short period of time.

As previously mentioned, this agency developed and distributed both the public and officer surveys as a means of

identifying the needs and concerns of the university community and departmental personnel. This process is on-going at this time and will be instrumental in identifying the focus of the USF Police in the future.

This agency has developed a Quality Management Committee whose membership consists of officers and employees from the different divisions in the agency. They are responsible for identifying issues and concerns of the officer and developing recommendations for addressing the issues. The Committee works directly with the Chief, who attends the Committee meetings.

The USF Police Department is putting a lot of emphasis on training for community policing. Each officer with the agency has completed a 16 hour training program on cultural diversity and its relationship to community policing. This type of training will help the officers develop a better understanding of what the members of this community are concerned about. Additional training is planned in problem solving which should improve communications skills and enhance their understanding of the concept of empowerment.

The University of South Florida Police Department has established a three to five year time frame for fully implementing the philosophy. The development of programs and the improvement of existing programs will be a continuous operation for the agency.

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Alternatives to Standard Methods of Incarceration

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The lack of adequate prison space to house criminal offenders is resulting in a failure of the system to provide appropriate punishment and/or deterrence for the criminal element in today's society. Florida's inmate population has exploded, from 20,000 in 1978 to more than 46,500 today. During fiscal year 1990-1991, the Department of Corrections admitted 37,631 new offenders. They are housed in 47 major institutions, 36 community correctional centers, 6 road prisons, and 21 work camps (Florida Sheriffs Association, 1992).

This situation has created a need for alternative methods of incarceration that meet the requirements for judicial sentencing of nonviolent and first-time offenders. With prisons continuing to be overcrowded, alternatives are not an option, they are a necessity. The demand for alternatives is the result of public dissatisfaction with the criminal justice system. Citizens are becoming more and more disillusioned as unmerited gain time is indiscriminately handed out to those who certainly don't deserve it. The revolving door policy for repeat offenders is ineffective as a deterrent and totally unsatisfactory to the taxpaying citizen. The questions we must answer are, what alternatives to the current system exist?, and which ones are the best? -- in terms of both cost and programmatic effectiveness.

Florida statutes provide the authority for probation, parole, and community control supervision. Probation is a court ordered term of community supervision under specified conditions for a specific period of time that can not exceed the maximum sentence for the offense. All conditions ordered by the court must be met and, if violated, may result in revocation by the court and imposition of any sentence it might have imposed, prior to placing the offender on probation. Probation may be modified at any time by the court through a hearing, and the offender must be present or represented by counsel. Those individuals placed on probation are monitored by correctional probation officers. This is accomplished through surveillance of offenders in the community, and by enforcing the Florida statutes and special conditions of the circuit courts and Parole Commission. Security and protection are provided to the community through investigation, control, and supervision of offenders (Florida Department of Corrections, 1987).

There are several other programs in place in addition to

standard probation. Under the Florida Department of Corrections' Parole and Probation Services, the Pretrial Intervention Program (PTI) diverts selected first-time offenders (third degree felons and Circuit Court misdemeanants) from further penetration into the criminal justice system. This program allows offenders to avoid the social stigma that follows a conviction, and provides them a second chance to live their lives as responsible citizens. It also provides monetary restitution for victims, as well as an opportunity for the accused to learn behavioral change through symbolic restitution or community service, while reducing the workload in the court system. "Eligibility shall be established by each Circuit through guidelines provided by the State Attorney's Office in accordance with §944.025, F.S. The guidelines shall be distributed within the Circuit and a copy sent to the Probation and Parole Services Program Office" (Florida Department of Corrections, 1987).

Under the current correctional philosophy, one of the main purposes of community control is to make the offender accountable and responsible for his criminal behavior.

> Community Control is not intensive probation, but a distinctive type of program that is punishment oriented and allows offenders to serve their sentences confined to their homes under "house arrest" instead of prison. It provides a safe means of punishing criminal offenders which helps address the problem of prison overcrowding without jeopardizing the safety of the community. Community controlees are: (1) confined under "house arrest" to their residences except during regular employment, public service work, or participation in self-improvement programs approved by the community control officer; (2) required to do public service work for nonprofit and governmental agencies to make reparation to society; (3) required to pay monthly fees to the State to offset costs; (4) required to complete daily logs to account for their activities and time; (5) required to maintain employment to support themselves and their families; (6) ordered to submit to urinalysis and/or breathalyzer tests at any time; (7) must participate in self-improvement courses to improve their chances of rehabilitation. (Florida Department of Corrections, 1987)

Intensive probation, another alternative, is comprised of constant checks, including frequent and random drug tests, of those probationers who tend to be crime-prone. The arrest rate, while in this program, has proven to be much less than under traditional probation. The costs are substantially less for intensive watch, rather than confinement, so taxpayers save (U.S. News, 1990).

Electronic monitoring is now being widely used in a number of differing methods. Essentially, it adds a high-tech

surveillance component to traditional house arrest, probation or parole programs. In one type of system, the offender is fitted with a continuously signaling anklet or wristlet which broadcasts to a second unit attached to the offender's home telephone line. If the offender leaves the house and takes the transmitter out of broadcasting range, a telephone based receiver automatically calls the program's central monitoring location. There, a computer detects if the absence is authorized according to that offender's daily schedule, or if a violation has occurred. These monitoring systems can not eavesdrop on conversations or activities, nor can they track an offender if he/she leaves home.

Electronic monitoring has grown rapidly beyond its initial stages of applied science fiction to become a well developed correctional alternative. In fact, electronic monitoring is currently in use, or has been used at one time or another, in all 50 states. In 1990, in the U.S., perhaps 10,000-12,000 or more offenders were contained in this manner, and more than 30 states had employed such means to a limited extent. The most likely candidates for electronic monitoring continue to be short sentence, low risk offenders (Electronic Monitoring, 1992).

Monitoring technology has begun to move beyond its primary aim of verifying the offender's presence in the home. Several units now include the capability to test an offender's blood alcohol level and relay that information by phone to the central monitoring station. Future technology is unlimited in its capabilities, and may even result in geographical locator systems, that at some point may be satellite linkable (Electronic Monitoring, 1992).

Work programs are being used effectively in some states. This has always been a popular concept with the general public, whether offenders were actually incarcerated or not. Development of innovative programs could solve several problems, and hopefully, more will be implemented in the future. Any state or county jurisdiction would be able to use these programs to their advantage. Cost of prison housing would be eliminated and public works projects that might not otherwise be completed would be undertaken without requiring public funding for labor. If properly applied, these programs can work to the advantage of everyone.

A successful program of this type has been used in Minnesota. Titled "Sentencing to Service," it is a joint program of the Minnesota Department of Corrections and Minnesota Department of Natural Resources. Only nondangerous offenders are sentenced to the project,

which is overseen by employees trained in managing crews. The work projects are legitimate work not likely to be completed because of lack of funds. Tools and equipment, as well as transportation to the work site, are provided. Hours are worked in lieu of a jail sentence or fine, or used in combination with both.

This concept has caught on well in Minnesota and is having an impact on the crowded jails in that state. The labor from the program has been well received by both state and county government, as well as the public. Politically, sheriffs and county commissioners report the public is very supportive of putting offenders to work and responds very favorably to the work projects completed by offender crews (McLagan, 1992).

Separate work release facilities have also been used successfully as an alternative to standard incarceration. Allegheny County, Pennsylvania, has a special program for female offenders. A special facility was built by the county to meet the specific needs of this program. It was so successful that they decided to institute a similar program for men. In this case, an old Post Office building was remodeled for the work release facility. In both instances, a variety of services, including job training and placement, were offered to offenders. The women's facility even provides child care while the offenders are at work (Arnold, 1992).

In addition to standard probation, there is a trend toward a combination of prison time and work release/community service supervision. Termed "smart punishment," these penalties embrace a mixture of prison time and outside time under supervision (Gest, 1990). Today's mix and match sentences might include 90 days in a military style boot camp, plus other sanctions, such as restitution to victims and manual labor for community service programs. In Phoenix, judges seeking nonprison sentences can choose from 22 options. Those with the worst records are the most closely watched. The fewer infractions committed, the less supervision they receive. Any mistakes may mean a return to prison.

Unfortunately, only a small fraction of criminals receive these new forms of punishment. Prison remains the prime destination of many offenders. According to the National Conference of State Legislatures, state spending on corrections jumped 218% over the last 25 years, far exceeding increases in every category except welfare (Gest, 1990). As costs for additional prison space continue to increase, politicians and taxpayers alike are looking for viable alternatives to alleviate the problem. Some of the

programs mentioned in this research, or the ramifications thereof, may become the answers to our future needs.

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Managing Use of Force Investigations

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The use of force clearly impairs an agency's credibility in enforcing the law. Police agencies commonly work to build their image as law enforcers and encourage respect for the law. A single incident of force by an individual officer can undermine that entire effort and erode community confidence in a police organization.

This study is designed to prepare the law enforcement executive to protect the agency; also, it is designed to assist an executive from suffering any damages for an unauthorized act committed by a subordinate.

Introduction

During the 1960's and the 1970's, law enforcement agencies in this country were subjected to much scrutiny and discussion. A good deal of this focused on concerns about police response to social problems. Through much of those two decades, the United States witnessed numerous civil rights marches, urban rioting, antiwar demonstrations, and large scale movements for social change.

Now, in the last decade of the 20th century, an unanticipated proliferation of social problems -- increasing rates of drug and alcohol addiction; juvenile and adult crime and its accompanying high recidivism rates; and a seemingly greater propensity for violence -- challenge the police profession. The police have been given a major responsibility for providing solutions.

Although law enforcement chief executive officers, particularly in urban areas, recognize the impact of these social problems and experience the pressure they exert, it is the individual line officer who is particularly impacted (Goldstein, 1977). An officer's inappropriate response may pose an additional set of problems for the law enforcement executive when it results in an unauthorized use of force.

There are over 16,000 police agencies that enforce the law in the United States. Each of these agencies, at one time or another, has had to deal with the issue of force. Until the Rodney King incident in Los Angeles, charges of police brutality were viewed rather ambivalently by the general populace. As a result of what occurred in Los Angeles, all law enforcement agencies are "under the microscope." It is

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also safe to say that over 16,000 law enforcement executives have not found easy answers. Nevertheless, these agencies must address the issues surrounding the use of force, not only because of increased media scrutiny, liability concerns, and pressure from external sources, but also because of our efforts at achieving the goal of professionalism. Perhaps, more importantly, absolute police integrity requires it.

776.05 Law enforcement officers; use of force in making an arrest.- A law enforcement officer or any other person whom he has summoned or directed to assist him, need not retreat or desist from efforts to make a lawful arrest because of resistance or threatened resistance to the arrest. He is justified in the use of any force:

(1) Which he reasonably believes to be necessary to defend himself or another from bodily harm while making the arrest;

(2) When necessarily committed in retaking felons who have escaped; or

(3) When necessarily committed in arresting felons fleeing from justice. However, this subsection shall not constitute a defense in any civil action for damages brought for the wrongful use of deadly force unless the use of deadly force was necessary to prevent the arrest from being defeated by such flight and, when feasible, some warning had been given, and:

(a) The officer reasonably believes that the fleeing felon poses a threat of death or serious physical harm to the officer or others; or

(b) The officer reasonably believes that the fleeing felon has committed a crime involving the infliction or threatened infliction of serious physical harm to another person.

776.051 Use of force in resisting or making an arrest; prohibition.-

(1) A person is not justified in the use of force to resist an arrest by a law enforcement officer who is known, or reasonably appears, to be a law enforcement officer.

(2) A law enforcement officer, or any person whom he has summoned or directed to assist him, is not justified in the use of force if the arrest is unlawful and known by him to be unlawful. ·

Statutory Authority

The rule enunciated by Florida statute, shown at left, is essentially a statement of the English common law. Florida statute does not directly authorize the use of deadly force in making an arrest. Instead, this is supplied by case law, most of which comes from as far back as the turn of the century.

Two questions are key: *when is deadly force necessary?* and, *who decides whether that necessity is apparent enough to make it justified?*

It has been held that a police officer making an arrest has the right to use that degree of force which appears necessary, and that there is a right to kill the person being sought if the offense involved is a felony and deadly force is apparently necessary (Klotter & Kanovitz, 1991).

Although common law allowed a law enforcement officer to use deadly force as a last resort to apprehend a fleeing felon, that rule has been restricted by the courts and through statute. Some states, such as Illinois, began to classify felonies and restrict the use of deadly force to enumerated offenses. In 1985, the U.S. Supreme Court decided *Tennessee v. Garner*, 105 S.Ct. 1694. A Memphis police officer shot Garner, who was a nighttime prowler. Although the officer had no reason to believe the youth was armed, he fired to apprehend the suspect. Ten dollars and a purse taken from a woman's home were found alongside the body.

The *Garner* case holds that deadly force may only be used "where the officer has probable cause to believe that the suspect poses a threat of serious physical harm, either to the officer, or to others." A violation of this standard constitutes an "unreasonable seizure" under the Fourth Amendment. Shooting regulations that violate the *Garner* standard, i.e., a shooting in

violation of *Garner* is allowed under policies or rules of the department, expose the municipality or county to civil rights suits.

Stress Factors Affecting the Likelihood of Force

The nature of police work and the people who perform it have changed radically in the past decades. Communities expect much more police involvement in social exchanges. With this has come greatly increased exposure to stressful or risky situations. Police now often respond to domestic or neighborhood disturbances, medical or personal emergencies, or other circumstances that might place citizens in jeopardy.

Officers are expected to deal with essentially any circumstance and then move to the next, without time to recoil, process information, or discuss the matters with others. The policing community has overlooked the need to discuss issues of stress openly and to identify reasons why officers use inappropriate levels of force, including deadly force. Contributing factors include:

- unreasonable fear
- racial/cultural fear
  - lack of exposure to the community's culture
  - community mannerisms that threaten the officer's value system
  - snobbish or resentful feelings toward the community and the way the residents interact with each other and with the officer
  - frequency of crime
  - a way of life that differs strikingly from the pattern of life to which the officer is accustomed
- peer pressure and the need for approval
- new officers
- supervision and discipline
- resistance to change
- personal life

Helping personnel manage stress

Law enforcement executives should not dismiss the escalating forces of stress on their personnel. Thus, they may need to make special efforts, such as implementing some form of support program or stress management training, to overcome the potentially adverse effects of stress. It is imperative, however, for the agency's leaders to firmly commit to helping their personnel. Ideally, this commitment should involve writing and reinforcing a general policy statement and forming a credible employee assistance

program. Such a commitment should also include ensuring confidentiality.

Law enforcement executives, with the aid of a competent, professional provider of psychological services, can plan effective stress management interventions to maximize the chances of success. It simply boils down to understanding the needs of their personnel and responding appropriately.

Sudden Death Syndrome

Sudden death syndrome describes an increasingly common phenomenon. Every year, a very small percentage of subjects that fight with the police while in custody die unexpectedly. These types of in-custody deaths are noted to occur from 30 minutes to a few hours after the violent confrontation with authorities or jail staff. In many of these cases, the specific cause of death can not be determined, but will be related to the type of control used to subdue the criminal as opposed to relating it to the actions of the criminal.

A cocaine addict who demonstrates very bizarre behavior and is highly combative must be restrained by force of numbers; three or more police officers control the violent subject by applying mass weight in an attempt to minimize injury. Death can occur in minutes or even hours. When no other cause of death, such as a crushed esophagus or broken neck and/or spinal cord injury is apparent, the autopsy will often list probable cause of death as "acute exhaustive mania due to police neck hold," or words to that effect. It would be just as accurate to state the probable cause of death as acute exhaustive mania "due to the subject's self-induced cocaine overdose," or "due to the subject's illegal and violent resistance to a lawful arrest or custody."

The truth is that the neck restraint or carotid or sleeper hold is the only method that can be applied to a violent subject that will not cause injury the majority of the time it is used. It is probably the single-most humane method of controlling a violent subject. In some cases, injuries to the trachea area have occurred, causing death. These cases are very rare. Literally tens of thousands of violent, combative subjects have been subdued by the neck restraint with only a few, probably much less than one percent, suffering serious injury or death. Compare this figure with the number of deaths that can occur with the use of a baton, taser, firearm, tear gas, and other forms of restraint.

When death is unexpected and occurs suddenly, it is usually the result of the loss of either the cardiac or

respiratory function. Deaths that indicate questionable trauma are divided into three categories:

1. Death due to heart disease: emotional stress and/or physical exertion. Coronary insufficiency is present and a sudden situation causing stress precipitates death.

2. Death caused by a blow: induced vagal inhibition. Blows against the carotid sinus or solar plexus might cause death, though no reliable research is available to demonstrate this as a fact (e.g., Little League player is struck in the chest with a pitched baseball, his heart stops and he dies.)

3. Death possibly due to trauma: insignificant bruises and abrasions may be the only external signs of force. The autopsy then looks for "internal" injuries in an attempt to assess causation between trauma and death.

The exact cause of death can be difficult to substantiate in each of the above categories.

> The cause of death may lie to some degree in emotional factors, which either slowly create in one's heart a predisposition for death or in crises, abruptly cause it. The heart malfunction can be triggered by some unknown chemical, probably an enzyme or neuropeptide. This chemical interferes with the brain's ability to determine if a flight-or-fight response is appropriate. During extreme stress, the adrenal glands and sympathetic nervous system release chemicals called catechloamines. The chemicals may rupture the cardiac muscle fibers and constrict minute coronary vessels. Traumatic emotional reactions such as anger and rage may weaken the heart over a period of time (Major City Chief Administrators, 1991).

Certain people may possess characteristics that would make them more susceptible to Sudden Death Syndrome. Emotional causes have been cited as creating a predisposition in some people. Psychological theories cite overwhelming stress, hopelessness, preoccupation with death and life changes that are perceived as extremely negative. Physiological theories cite hypertension, cardiac rhythm, myocardial neurosis, arteriosclerosis and more. Sudden death in recreational cocaine users is an example. These characteristics have been studied and confirmed, and yet not much is known about Sudden Death Syndrome. What is known is that it happens, and if the investigation is not complete, the police can be blamed for a death when they have done nothing improper.

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The Investigation of Deadly Force

An officer-involved shooting is not "just another homicide," and it is a mistake to handle it as one. Officer-involved shootings are almost always controversial and can initiate a crisis, the outcome of which can make a significant difference for better or worse.

The first step in managing a controversial incident is to have a process in place; the most important part of that step is the administrative investigation structure that has been developed, tested, and staffed.

The next step is to gather all of the facts and analyze them thoroughly to develop a complete picture of what happened. Since civil ligation is likely, it is necessary to ask and answer every conceivable question and to address ever conceivable issue from a "devil's advocate" perspective. If there are differences in witness and officer statements, these discrepancies must be identified and explained.

A controversy over a police shooting doesn't have to be based upon fact or truth. The most trivial piece of information can generate a controversy about the incident that can totally overwhelm attention to substantive issues of fact. A misstatement, a poorly written phrase, rumors, a quote out of context, transposed numbers, two slightly different versions of the same story, or a simple misunderstanding are all fuel for a controversy.

There have been several cases when multiple witnesses have recounted their observations of an officer shooting a suspect without cause, and the facts proved otherwise. These same witnesses **believed** they were accurate in their statements. They were programmed to see a bad shooting and they did. Several professional investigators of deadly force incidents have personally witnessed this phenomenon. Absent physical evidence to the contrary, two or three persons wrongly describing a shooting could send an innocent officer to jail. This reemphasizes the need for a complete, unbiased, professional search for the truth, with physical evidence at the core of the findings.

Officers themselves may inaccurately describe a deadly force incident. They can not recall the number of shots they fired, the lighting, or the distance. Psychiatrists inform us that these audio and perceptual distortions are to be expected in a highly stressful situation; therefore, one should not conclude that the officer attempted to lie unless, of course, it is supported by evidence.

Once all of the facts are gathered, the time, place, method and person selected to announce the agency's official position on the controversy is almost as important as

what is said. What is said should be determined by all of those parties that have reason and authority to make that decision. This may vary from agency to agency and in some cases, incident to incident. A suggested grouping would be the chief of police, the primary investigator, the department person most closely associated with the segment of the community involved, and if possible, the officer. If criminal misconduct is involved, however, the officer does not participate.

The role of the officer involved in the investigation of the use of deadly force needs to be addressed not only in the interest of fairness, but because the field officer is the key to this difficult issue. The officer's assistance and cooperation in putting together the facts of a deadly force incident are of paramount importance. The officer and the agency he serves need each other's support in order to determine the facts, inform the public, and provide professional police services to all of the citizens in the community (Mahoney, 1985).

One myth is that it is in the best interest of the agency to refuse to make any comment about the incident: "because upon the advice of the attorney (city or county attorney), and because of civil litigation arising from the incident, we can not make any comment at this time." Such a statement could and will be interpreted as a cover-up. If the attorney for the agency is concerned about what is said, a written statement of the facts can be drafted and read, with no further comments made or questions answered. Saying nothing affords the public no chance to hear the police explanation, thereby lending support to the critics of a lawful, necessary use of deadly force. A statement should be made because the public needs to know why the police are shooting people. If the police are not willing to properly inform the public, who else will?

A community's trust in a police agency can only be structured on the knowledge that the agency is doing the right thing. Saying "no comment" does not accomplish this. Presenting the facts five days later does not usually accomplish the desired effect. Concealing or delaying facts is absolutely wrong. When no police misconduct is found to be involved in an incident, it ceases to be news. It then becomes a minor story, to be buried on the fourth page of the second section of the same paper that previously had printed the same incident for several days on the front page with banner headlines (Thibault, 1990).

The Community Relations Service (1987) suggests that the police make every effort to work within the community on a regular basis to develop meaningful associations to

help establish trust. They are on target in one of the most important areas that relate to police use of deadly force and how that force is perceived by the community. If the community does not trust the police, every single incident will be viewed as controversial. If the community does trust the police, every incident will be viewed as proper. If the incident is viewed as proper, but in fact is not, the agency must say that and explain why. That is how trust will be maintained and an agency will be believed.

External Influences

Personalities and politics may cause the press to attack the police, and police use of deadly force is the vehicle for that attack. The position of police chief is a highly visible one, and the chief may suddenly be interviewed and quoted by the press.

The chief may be depicted as incapable of managing a police department. This can be done by publicly implying that the police are guilty of excessive force or improper use of deadly force, and that the chief's poor leadership is responsible. Some politicians may readily respond to unfounded and repeated accusations by irresponsible persons or special interest groups by criticizing the police to ensure votes, but they will rarely, if ever, admit they were wrong when the police are later vindicated (Leonard, 1964).

The popular myths regarding deadly force issues are numerous and must be dispelled. A law enforcement agency can be its own worst enemy. A five-day assault of media coverage describing "alleged" police misconduct becomes "believed" police misconduct by much of the community when the agency doesn't help itself.

There are presently too many "experts" in the area of use of force who are providing research without sufficient explanation or documentation; this can result in misunderstanding, misinterpretation, or misuse. Many of these researchers are ill-prepared, lacking in experience and/or training to evaluate this complex issue properly. Some apparently want to be published and receive press recognition, but they are not providing enough data to fairly evaluate what they are researching. For example, a researcher cites statistics that show that blacks are shot and killed by the police in numbers disproportionate to their numbers in the general population. This is an accurate figure, but if it is the only data studied or available, people are likely to assume that, because police officers shoot blacks more often than hispanics or whites, they are biased against blacks. Respected researchers, however, have gathered additional data that, nationally, would indicate

that blacks, hispanics, and whites are shot in proportion to their involvement in violent crime. Although this also is a true statement, it is rarely quoted in concert with the first statistic.

Conclusion

The investigation of any use of force by the police is necessary. Hard questions have to be asked and their answers found. Law enforcement leaders have an obligation to work aggressively toward controlling unauthorized force, no matter how frustrating or costly the task may be.

The skilled law enforcement executive must view the problem not as unmentionable, but rather as a natural and expected challenge to administrative ability. An essential first step is to explore the problem thoroughly, both independently and with fellow police administrators.

The police community greatly needs a more open exchange of views, experiences, and ideas. Law enforcement executives have to resolve and negotiate the often conflicting signals of supervisors, officers, community, politicians, media, and outside organizations. Such decisions are never clear-cut and require great thought and skilled diplomacy. They must recognize the position and perspective of people inside the organization to effectively control cultural values that adopt minimal use of force as paramount to the police mission. The realities of police work in modern society will always create uncontrollable incidents and problems. Successful law enforcement executives must respond to each incident with skill and reliance on relationships established through months and years of careful, adept leadership.

In the final analysis, law enforcement executives are always accountable, regardless of personal responsibility for the incident itself. Their acceptance of accountability will control the events surrounding any controversial use of force.

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Ethics and its Impact on Law Enforcement by the Year 2000

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This paper reviews the impact of ethical issues and day-to-day dilemmas faced by criminal justice professionals. More specifically, it focuses on law enforcement officers and the ethical considerations they face related to their jobs. Training, both formal and in-service, are evaluated to determine the role they play in making ethical decisions. Because of these past scenarios about ethics, a projected view of the future can be ascertained.

Introduction

We often ask ourselves what will be the decision process for any given subject within the next year. We, in government, are required to prepare a balanced annual budget. We normally prepare a five-year capital plan to illustrate where we are headed. We have failed to determine what impact ethical considerations/dilemmas will have on law enforcement personnel by the year 2000, and how ethics can be better defined to help the law enforcement practitioner.

Top management, in every criminal justice organization, is forced to make daily decisions which impact the organization. However, many times the full impact is not really known. This undoubtedly has an impact on the ethical side of those issues being addressed. The short and long term effects can either be positive to both the agency and its personnel, or very negative. The down side can cost the agency a lack of credibility and termination for some personnel.

This trend has seen a rise in the significance of ethical issues in the work environment. In 1957, the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) recognized the need for a code of ethics in order to professionalize law enforcement. The Association updated its Code of Ethics in 1991 to better reflect the current and future trends in law enforcement.

Ethical considerations certainly go beyond the criminal justice system. The Ethics Resource Center in Washington, D.C. revealed that 74% of the Fortune 500 companies have a code of ethics (Scandals prompt few changes, 1988).

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Even President Clinton has established what have become the toughest ethical guidelines in history for political appointees and those individuals working on his transition team. It prohibits those individuals from gaining employment where their experience and knowledge could be used for profit against the government (New ethics standards toughest, 1992).

This document is intended to view various ethical considerations and their impact on law enforcement over the last decade. One of the most difficult tasks for this writer was to narrow the monumental issues that surfaced during research. There were certainly many more issues to be acknowledged then one can here. However, historical dilemmas, current issues and practices, and future considerations are addressed.

Historical Perspective

The last two decades have seen the issue of ethics come to the forefront of our society. It has not only impacted law enforcement and the criminal justice community, but judges, doctors, teachers, religious institutions, sports figures, entertainment figures, financial institutions and politics. To help American society in general, the media has played a big role in bringing this issue of ethics to us through prime time television, radio, and print. All too often, the only thing that is heard is how bad someone is or what questions have not been answered.

A recent example is the beating incident in Los Angeles, the Rodney King case, which only infuriated the nation, for one year until the trial. Only after the trial began, was the portion of the tape shown just prior to the attack by the police officers where Mr. King charged at the police officer forcing him to use nonlethal force. This does not excuse the fact that the police officers may have gone beyond the point at which they should have stopped, but it did paint a more accurate picture of what had taken place.

Although this incident was not one which occurred in the state of Florida, we have certainly had our share of negative ethical experiences throughout the state. Many of these are now being more actively investigated and reviewed by the Florida Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission. This entity is responsible for certifying and decertifying law enforcement officers. Its role is an important one since it helps to enforce the moral standards set forth in Florida Statute. It also provides checks and balances in the final process for the 400 plus agencies in the state.

Two central issues previously addressed by various

authors are ethics as they apply to the training process and ethics as they apply to a code of conduct. Although these issues have relevance to the issue of ethics, a minimal amount of work appears to have been written regarding where ethics has been addressed to fully handle our day-to-day dilemmas and issues. We need to be preparing now for the long term effect we hope to achieve over the next decade. The maturity level and life experiences of many new personnel entering the criminal justice system as police or corrections officers have not exposed them to many ethical dilemmas which they are about to face. Compounded by the fact that over the past decade or so, the increase of broken families has widened the gap of family morals from which to build.

An excellent illustration of this is from a Chicago Sun Times article, "It's OK, Son, Everybody Does It" (shown at left). This article captures the ethical/moral issues of a child as he grows up. He is constantly given assurance from both family and teachers that unethical behavior is acceptable because everybody does it. This comes to an end at age 19 when he is caught in a comprising situation and everyone wonders how it could ever have happened.

Although there is a difference between ethics and morals, they do intertwine when individuals make decisions. Ethics are defined as standards of conduct that govern behavior, whereas morals are private codes of value (Sirene, 1988). The issue that must be focused upon when decisions are made is *what is ethically proper?*

Ethical Considerations/Dilemmas

Ethics are viewed by many "line level" individuals as "don't do that" issues. Others view it as the standard by which to work. To those individuals, it is a part of their integrity.

In stating that ethics is viewed as a "don't do that "

issue, it seems that the ethics portion of an agency's rules and regulations manual are viewed in a more negative way rather than a positive one. The majority of rules and regulations manuals reviewed tend to state what you can not do rather than what is acceptable or permitted.

This is one of the dilemmas that has greatly surfaced over the past decade due to the fact law enforcement has been viewed as a paramilitary organization. However, the training and formal education, at all levels, has been geared to a much more business atmosphere in which to work. When the paramilitary environment prevails, the negatives appear to be the predominant theme. When the agency takes a more aggressive, proactive management philosophy, there is a more positive "what you can do" attitude.

Although it is recognized that this can not always be the mode because of the numerous internal and external forces exerted upon us in conjunction with the nature of what the profession of law enforcement is. We should, however, certainly strive to be more positive rather than negative, which will hopefully allow our personnel to use their intelligence to make ethically sound decisions.

Another consideration to be viewed much more in depth is when a person first becomes indoctrinated into the law enforcement profession. It was mentioned previously that the maturity level or life experiences that one has had may be minimal. Since the first formal exposure to law enforcement is normally through the local criminal justice academy, it is imperative that the individuals selected to instruct and be involved at this level demonstrate and constantly emphasize a high level of integrity and ethical conduct. The reinforcement of ethics throughout the students' matriculation in the academy is paramount. It is here that their future foundation can be made or broken. It is also important to ensure that a consistent message is provided by each instructor. Training will be further discussed, as it is intrinsically related to the future.

The ethical dilemmas which are faced by most individuals would be something that hopefully could be answered by using good common sense. Is the taking of a particular item right or wrong? Although this is only an example, and maybe even an easy one. What is it that clouds the issue?

Day-to-Day Dilemmas. In asking the question, "Is the taking of a particular item right or wrong?," one should answer "wrong all of the time." When we start to second guess what we should do, is when we enter into the day-to-day dilemmas.

The common example of the free cup of coffee is a good illustration. The coffee may be considered either a courtesy, a custom, a gratuity, or a way to receive extra police protection, depending upon who views it. Even today, that same cup of coffee has still left many to ask if it is an acceptable practice. This dilemma has been compounded by strong department policies which forbid the practice, yet it goes unenforced and the practice continues.

This simple issue illustrates a common problem that still exists within law enforcement and at all levels within the organization. In order to address this issue, training and role models play an important part. Historically, police officers have been associated with free cups of coffee at the donut shops. After all, that's where all of the police hang out. Even though the latter may not be true, police were normally offered a free or courtesy cup of coffee. To store owners, the reason for offering the free cup of coffee varies. This is certainly a factor in the scenario.

One reason to offer the free cup may simply be to offer a "thank you" to police officers in appreciation for the work they do in society. Many recognize that law enforcement is often a thankless, yet dangerous job.

A second reason may be for free security. The business owner may realize that for the price of a cup of coffee, the security of a police officer being in and around the business can be had at a minimal cost. This saves the cost of a security firm and also lessens the possibility of a robbery.

The third reason may be to entice the officer into a sense of security and eventually get him/her involved in other corrupt issues. This may seem a big step from a cup of coffee to corruption, but it can happen.

The fourth reason may simply be because of culture or ethnic background. This may be very similar to the first reason described. Many cultures vary in how they regard and show their respect for law enforcement. Although other reasons might apply, the police officer must be cognizant that denial of a free cup of coffee might constitute a cultural insult. Certainly, this practice of not accepting gratuities would need to be carefully explained.

The free cup of coffee continues to be an issue, but why? When you consider the number of police officers in this country alone that have risen through the ranks of their agencies and have not had the impact necessary to stop this practice, we must ask ourselves *where have we failed?*

A view that should be explored is whether or not there is anything wrong with the free cup of coffee. It has become apparent that no matter what we may think of individuals,

when it comes to ethics, the public has become disenchanted with public officials as a whole. This includes police officers. For this reason, the concerns which are brought forth in the public light, citing unethical behavior, will not be tolerated any longer. The question is, *what will we do as a profession to help ourselves?* or *what will be thrust upon us by public/police watch groups?*

Other day-to-day dilemmas certainly exist, some more than others. You often hear about a bribe being offered in exchange for not receiving a traffic citation. This could range from a monetary consideration, tangible item, or even sexual favors. Even though this does not occur with the frequency of the free cup of coffee scenario, it still does occur. Now you must ask yourself the question, is this right or wrong?

Certainly the two options at the officer's disposal are to not write the citation or to exercise discretion and give the person a warning, either verbal or written. It is important to stress the use of discretionary powers. Discretion allows the police officer to decide which laws shall be enforced, and when, where, and how.

This freedom to make decisions that affect the lives of others is one that other citizens are not empowered to make (Delattre, 1989). The options presented in the bribery list should be answered, without question, that they are wrong. The follow up to the bribe may be a matter of whether the person is charged, should they meet the elements of the crime.

Another day-to-day dilemma which many individuals face, but are not the direct recipient of the favor, is witnessing unethical behaviors by peers and not doing anything about it. Individuals take the attitude that I have my own integrity, ethical and moral standards. However, who am I to judge others that I work with as long as I follow my own standards? This type of day-to-day dilemma in many ways is just as damaging and wrong. It continues the wrong message being set forth. The cycle must be broken.

Unfortunately, depending upon the possible proceedings which must take place to provide for a fair hearing on the part of the accused party, many get the feeling that the system does not work and the accused get away with their unacceptable behavior. Those who maintain the ethical standard feel betrayed, to some degree, by the system.

An important note to consider is that day-to-day ethical dilemmas are living issues. We may someday believe that we have firmly obtained a handle on the free cup of coffee scenario, but rest assured that something else that we have

not even thought of yet will take its place.

The importance of day-to-day dilemmas is that the emphasis must begin now and continue to build in order to have the standard met by the year 2000, or sooner. The standard in this case would be the IACP Code of Conduct (IACP, 1991).

Policies, Rules and Regulations

In any organization, the use of written guidelines on various topics can be found bound in policy, rules, and regulations manuals. In these manuals, a section is normally dedicated to the acceptable ethical behavior and conduct for personnel. The wording generically states that the acceptance of any gift or gratuity is unacceptable. It is usually not reviewed by the personnel unless a significant event occurs.

Ethical behaviors also encompass much more than the illegal behavior in our profession. Areas that must not be forgotten in these policy manuals are dishonesty, discrimination, giving false or colored statements, violating laws or the rights of others, and deliberate inefficiency (Robbins, 1992). These areas are not always defined thoroughly, thus allowing unethical behavior to go unchallenged. It is extremely important that each agency address each area of ethical behavior as thoroughly as possible, yet not have an overwhelming effect on personnel.

On the part of the organization, it should, at minimum, annually review and modify as necessary its policies, rules, and regulations. These are living, working documents and must constantly be reviewed to be kept current and plan for the future. Failure to do so may have the same effect as not even having a written policy on the topic.

The problem with policies, rules, and regulations is that often when a problem occurs, it is the first place we turn to in hopes of correcting an unethical behavior. Although there may be some merit to turning in that direction, we must first fully analyze the situation. One of the first considerations must be, have we communicated our expectations as an agency to our personnel? There are three primary steps which must be taken, generally concurrently.

First, performance expectations must be effectively communicated. Secondly, the necessary training must be given to provide the tools to meet the expectations. Third and arguably the most difficult is that an environment must be created in which the training can be successfully applied (Hyans, 1991).

The first step is to make sure expectations are being effectively communicated. This can be accomplished in

both written and verbal modes. One must provide a logical written policy that must be followed. This can provide the step by step detail to explain what you wish to convey. This document also will address the various ethical issues which may arise and provide a central location for them to be found. The Palm Bay Police Department Directives, Policies and Regulations Manual, provides such direction under the heading of Professional Conduct. This document, in conjunction with department and shift training, is provided to employees and explains what is expected of them.

The second step is that the necessary training must be given to provide the tools to meet the expectations. This basically means that you can not expect and demand a level of performance if you do not provide the training necessary to carry out those tasks. This will be covered in more detail under the training section.

The third step is that an environment must be created in which the training can be successfully applied. This is the most difficult of the three steps and can vary depending upon the size of the organization. In a small to medium size agency, the challenge can be multiplied. If the personnel have an attitude that certain unethical behavior is acceptable, yet other behaviors are not, it will take time to find out why the particular unethical behavior is acceptable.

This will include fact finding, re-education/training on the part of the agency, and finally the administration of positive and negative discipline. The discipline is to be used as a last resort to change the unethical behavior. One must bear in mind that the type of behavior may be of such severity that only negative discipline is appropriate.

It must be recognized by those individuals in the organization that well written and maintained policy manuals are a "pay me now or pay me later" proposition. Since human resources are the number one cost for any organization, if the proper written documents are not in place, the problems experienced with unethical practices on the part of just one employee can be devastating. This is compounded by the time and money it takes to research and write an effective policy manual. It is very cost effective to ensure that each and every member of the organization is issued a personal copy.

Training

The Florida Department of Law Enforcement, Division of Criminal Justice Standards and Training, sets the standard for the minimal level of training required to initially become a police officer in the state. The current standard is 520 hours of classroom and field work. Out of that minimum standard

however, only one hour is dedicated to ethics under that specific heading. In contrast, the Brevard Community College, Criminal Justice Center currently runs its basic police academy at 800 hours. Out of that, only one hour is still dedicated to ethics under that heading, but approximately 80 hours through the various course topics such as law, patrol procedures, and so forth cover ethical behavior.

It should still be a goal to increase the block of instruction to appropriately cover the topic of ethics. More emphasis needs to be placed here along with the legal, patrol, and other blocks of instruction. Ideally, it should be split into three phases of instruction throughout the entire academy: the introduction, midway, and at the conclusion. This would allow for follow up discussions along with instruction.

The goal at the first phase of the student's training is to constantly reinforce ethical behavior. Given the fact that integrity of the individual plays a big role in ethical behavior, this is the time to test the students in a much more controlled atmosphere. That one student would report unethical conduct of another, points to the fact that this phase of training is having a positive effect.

It would be remiss not to point out that the Division of Criminal Justice Standards and Training plays an even more important role prior to a student entering the police/corrections academy. It has overall responsibility to ensure that applicants meet a minimum standard to be considered for a law enforcement career. Florida standards require that an officer must be at least 19 years of age; be a citizen of the United States; be a high school graduate or its equivalent; not have been convicted of a felony or a misdemeanor which involves perjury or a false statement; after July 1, 1981, not have pled guilty or nolo contendere to a felony or a misdemeanor involving perjury or a false statement whether or not adjudication was withheld or sentence suspended (Florida Department of Law Enforcement, 1992).

The guidelines continue with an emphasis on having a "good moral character." This plays a very important part in allowing agencies to "police" their own personnel. With the standard set and recognized by the state of Florida, it helps ensure that an officer with unethical behavior who leaves one agency is not rehired by another agency. Although this system is not perfect, it has had a deterrence on this occurring.

Field Training. Field training is the third phase that a recruit police officer enters after successfully completing the

police academy. A Florida survey indicated that police executives consider field training one of the most important factors in establishing and maintaining ethical behavior (Braunstein & Tyre, 1992). The issue of ethics and acceptable ethical behavior is extremely critical in the field training phase. Over the next 14 weeks, the recruit experiences as much as possible while riding with an experienced officer. It is imperative that the individuals, selected as field training officers, provide the best ethical behavior possible. Since they act as role models, nothing less can be expected of them.

My Observations

In December, 1991, at the conclusion of a basic recruit class at the Brevard Criminal Justice Academy, I had the opportunity to speak with the 32 students in the class. The purpose for my discussion was not to instruct, as much as it was to solicit feedback from the class regarding ethics. The discussion was very interesting since there was approximately an even split on what was considered acceptable ethical behavior.

The question was asked of the class, *is it acceptable to take half-priced or free meals?* The class was split on this practice. Several comments that followed explained that as students they have had the opportunity to ride with officers who would accept meals. The police officer, sometimes even a supervisor, would tell the students where they could go to receive the free or discounted meals. One student pointed out to the class that he previously worked in a restaurant whose policy was to give half-priced meals to all public safety personnel. The problem the employees had was they did not get the same benefit and would be left gratuities for the half price amount. This aggravated the issue even further.

Other questions which arose were that police executives would lecture to the class that a particular ethical standard was in place within their organization. In fact, that was not what was observed by the students. The issue was clouded further when personnel from that same agency instructed at the academy and gave a totally different perception of what the agency considered ethical/unethical behavior than that of the chief executive.

To further stimulate thought on the part of the students, an ethics questionnaire was designed to allow for short answer responses. Although this questionnaire had not been validated, it did provide some interesting feedback. Many of the students did provide enough detail for one to assimilate that the messages provided in class, along with personal life

experiences, left many with the belief that certain unethical behaviors are acceptable.

My observations about ethics over my career, life, and especially over the past 18 months where I have focused in on particular issues, have left a big impact on me. It appears that the topic of ethics has come to the forefront of all professions and the public. The standard which has been applied, even though it is written in most professions, tends to reflect back on the area of the country where one was raised. This is coupled with the diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds which have become a larger factor in all professions and the public. Whereas the standards were previously written by white males, the large influx of women and other races and cultures will play a much larger role on how ethics are judged by the year 2000.

It was noted in my small sampling of students that there still exists a fairly even split in what is considered ethical/unethical behavior. If this sampling minimally reflects the actual criminal justice organizations in this state, there is a lot of unethical behavior being condoned by a lack of action to stop it on the part of management and line supervisors.

Ethical behavior is, and will continue to be, a part of day-to-day life. It is reported about daily in the media. Not a day passes when some ethical dilemma has not come to the forefront of a profession. This supports the fact that the public wants to be involved and aware of ethical/unethical behavior.

Administrators must focus on this fact and constantly reinforce ethical behavior in day-to-day activities. Failure to do so will allow the cycle of certain activities, which are considered unethical, to continue in practice. As with anything, there is no absolute and we will always be faced with unethical behaviors. The issue will be how that behavior is dealt with and in what time frame.

All employees, sworn and nonsworn, should be indoctrinated upon their orientation into your organization that only ethically and morally sound behavior will be acceptable. If this occurs and is constantly reinforced, the impact by the year 2000 should be great. It should be greatly realized in less negative terms (internal investigations, litigation, human resource costs) and positive ones (improved morale, better public perception, better applicant pool).

These issues carry a big price tag. Concentrating on the positive ones will only help the agency succeed.

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Organizing for Decision Making at the Lowest Level

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The primary theme of management experts in the 1990's appears to be that decision making should be made at the lowest possible organizational level. The question is, how do you accomplish this dramatic feat in the framework of traditional law enforcement agencies? This paper explores: 1) what structural changes will be needed in criminal justice organizations to insure that decisions are made at the lowest level; 2) what cost savings are obtained by eliminating management positions; and 3) whether top and middle criminal justice managers are ready for the changes which must take place to facilitate decision making at the lowest level.

Traditional Organizational Structure

Criminal justice agencies traditionally have been organized by line and staff functions. This type of organizational structure is not unique to criminal justice; almost all companies used this type of structure at one time. Hine (1912) described the line and staff model as the preferred structure for all modern managers. Hine believed this model was necessary because the line manager, who has many activities to oversee, doesn't have time to think; staff positions focus on special functions that the line manager doesn't have time to think about.

Most traditional line and staff organizations developed a set of three principles to go along with the hierarchical structure (Wallace, et al., 1975). Unity of command is considered critical in these organizations. A person can only report to one superior, no matter what the situation. This principle restricts communication to an individual and his/her immediate supervisor.

The second basic principle of traditional organizations is the concept of small span of control. Supervisors should only supervise five to eight individuals in order to insure total control of the work place. Although tight control of the work place may have had some meaning during the industrial era in this country, it has lost its value in a modern work force dispersed over wide areas and not confined to a factory shop.

The third basic principle of traditional organizational structures is the concept of the scalar principle. Every task

should involve a superior-subordinate relationship. In other words, employees shouldn't be allowed to make decisions, only supervisors should do that. Any review of the typical future worker will reveal that this type of superior-subordinate relationship will not work.

Organization in Government

During the first two years of the 1990's, almost every state in the union was faced with severe budget constraints due primarily to a slow economy and the resulting loss of tax revenue. Many governors proclaimed they were going to downsize state agencies and trim bureaucracy. In reality, fewer than 12,000 positions were lost nationwide in state agencies (Sloane, 1992).

Why is it so hard to change a government organization even though it appears so many people think that it is the right thing to do? All organizations are, by design, enemies of change, and governments are the worst of all. Almost every government agency has a constituency that created and nurtured it, and that would be offended if the agency changed. Wilson (1989) concludes that in reality, most government agencies are the way they are because that is what politicians want.

Chapter 20, Florida Statutes, clearly spells out the required structure for all Florida agencies. The basic structure sets up a hierarchy with many layers of management. If each layer generally has a head and an assistant head, then there are at least ten layers of management in each agency:

■ The department is the principal administrative unit of the executive branch.

■ The principal unit of the department is the division. Each shall be headed by a "director."

■ The principal unit of the division is the bureau. Each bureau shall be headed by a "chief."

■ The principal unit of the bureau is the section. Each section shall be headed by an "administrator."

■ Sections may be divided into units which shall be known as subsections and headed by a "supervisor."

Agency heads may not establish new bureaus, sections, and so forth without prior approval of the Department of Administration and the Office of the Governor. This leaves Florida's criminal justice administrators with little flexibility to reorganize to meet current demands.

If a decision is made by the agency head to allow decision making at the lowest level, say the lowest four or five layers, then what happens to the people in the top four or five layers and what do they do? This is the chief dilemma

faced by managers who try to downsize or rightsize an agency.

Centralization versus Decentralization

Osborne (1990) described state governments in the 1980's in three words: centralization, standardization, and bureaucracy. Osborne pointed out how numerous states actually challenged those three words in several of their programs and were able to make a difference.

The debate, over whether a centralized or decentralized form of government is best for the people that government serves, is as old as our government itself. Our founding fathers met in Philadelphia in the summer of 1787 for the purpose of drafting a constitution. There, the debate centered around the virtues of a strong central government versus a more decentralized decision making process with the majority of power resting with the individual states (Bowen, 1966). Although most of the representatives at the convention agreed that some form of central government was needed, primarily to regulate commerce, there was little agreement on how much power it should have.

Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay together authored 85 articles published in New York area newspapers. The Federalist Papers (Hamilton, et al., 1788) were written to convince the people of New York that a strong central government would not significantly take away the powers of the state governments. Eventually, a new Constitution was adopted, providing for a more powerful centralized government, with the quick adoption thereafter of ten amendments, providing for some form of restraint on the powers of the new central government.

The debate over the viability of a strong central government continues today. Supreme Court Justice Louis Brandeis coined the phrase "laboratories of democracy" when discussing the ability of cities and states to adjust quickly to meet the needs of the people (Osborne, 1990). Brandeis was, no doubt, referring to the ability of a decentralized form of government to respond more quickly.

Wilson (1989) cited several examples of decentralized organizations that have met with success. The German army was largely victorious over the French during World War II because the Germans concentrated on training commanders at the lowest level to make decisions based on what they observed on the battlefield. The French, on the other hand, had a very centralized decision making process that was too slow to respond to the quick-moving German officers. The result was a quick German victory.

The Army Corps of Engineers is cited by Wilson as one

of the few federal agencies that consistently gets good marks for its efficiency and lack of bureaucracy. The Corps is very project oriented. A project manager is given a specific mission such as building a dam with an exact budget. The project manager is then given the authority to get the job done with little interference from anyone in higher authority.

Many private and public agencies have attempted to decentralize, with varying degrees of success. In reality, the results are usually a mixture of both. Thorne (1991) observed the process in several companies and concluded that many companies are mixing centralization with decentralization in a way that must confuse employees as much as observers. Could the real problem be that those companies did not really change their basic structure?

Genaldi (1992) studied the disbursement function in the Florida Department of Law Enforcement as part of a graduate accounting program. He flowcharted the process from the time a decision is made from purchase until the vendor is paid. The results of his charting could easily confuse anyone. He concluded that too many people have control over various parts of the function for it to be efficient; the process should either be completely centralized or completely decentralized.

How did government agencies get to the point of being strangled with paper, process, and bureaucracy? For the most part, it was with the best of intentions -- to avoid corruption and incompetence in government. Personnel, purchasing, and other administrative functions were centralized to meet the requirements of independent audit/review. The result was that government became so bureaucratic that it could do little else but complete its own internal processes (Wilson, 1989).

The Future

With every political figure talking about downsizing government, empowering workers, and doing more with less, criminal justice administrators will have no choice but to respond with new and different organizational structures. The question is, *what is best and how do we do it?*

Much has been said about the Japanese industrial successes and their methods of management. In comparing IBM's proposed corporate restructuring to the Japanese model, Schrage (1991) observed that the key to success is not to grant autonomy to different independent corporate units, but to build interdependence between the individual units. Management influences should come horizontally and diagonally, not primarily from on high. Groups need independence, but should not take direction from high

management independent of input from other units.

After studying several private enterprise attempts at downsizing, Heenan (1990) concluded that the new organizational structure would have to be highly decentralized and redefined to place a proper balance between work, family, and the needs of the community. Management's primary thrust must be on reviving employee trust and confidence in the organization.

A similar view was taken by Cross (1990) when attempting to determine the best way to restructure a private organization. Cross surveyed workers and determined that most wanted a "business centre" type of organization with closely integrated self-contained units, with short chains of command, and open communications.

Organizing for Decision Making at the Florida Department of Law Enforcement (FDLE)

FDLE is organized according to the state structure discussed earlier. The department has eight divisions or offices, each headed by a director:

Office of Executive Investigations
Office of General Council
Office of Inspector General
Division of Criminal Investigations
Division of Criminal Justice Information Systems
Division of Criminal Justice Standards and Training
Division of Local Law Enforcement Assistance
Division of Staff Services

These directors, along with the Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner and Assistant Commissioner, comprise the department's command staff. The vast majority of top and middle managers in the agency are career FDLE members who have spent the majority of their professional careers with the department. All serve at the pleasure of the Commissioner, who serves at the pleasure of the Governor and Cabinet.

One of the department's fundamental values states that decisions should be made at the lowest level. The department historically has advocated openness among its members and member input into important policy decisions.

A questionnaire was provided to FDLE's Command Staff, plus deputy division directors, bureau chiefs, and other "middle" managers to determine the degree to which decision making occurs at the lowest level. The survey also tried to determine if these managers were prepared to accept any organizational changes necessary to

encourage this kind of decision making. Twelve of the 35 surveys were returned (34%).

An attempt was made to determine any differences in responses from top managers and middle managers, and from those assigned to departmental headquarters versus those who where not.

1. <u>Many contemporary management theorists teach that government and business organizations should be flattened, thereby eliminating many mid-level management positions. Please list what you think would be the advantages and disadvantages of such restructuring for a criminal justice agency.</u> Almost all of the respondents saw both advantages and disadvantages to the idea of reducing or eliminating middle management. Many saw as positive the ability of line employees to have closer and more direct communications with top managers.

Lack of control over line employees appeared to be the largest concern with reducing middle management. When this question was later asked in a different way, that is, what the effect would be if computers were doing most of the controlling, the disadvantages then became a lack of human interaction with subordinates.

2. <u>How do you think that they will be able to help managers in the decision making process?</u> There was an overwhelming approval of computers as tools that could assist managers in daily decision making. Most managers believe that automation will give them more information by which they can exercise control over the work place. Frequently cited was the ability to gather statistics on work being produced by subordinates. Although most viewed computers as tools to assist them, none noted that computers would be able to do any of their work for them.

3. <u>Many management theorists believe that the primary role of midmanagement in any organization is to facilitate communication between top management and the organization's workers. If so, do you believe that computers and other modern electronic communications devices will be able to effectively replace midmanagement?</u> Again, the overwhelming response was that computers and technology could not replace middle mangers. In this question, the need for human touch seemed to be the central theme of every answer, whereas in the previous question, managers were seen to be needed to control the work force. Interestingly, a few responses indicated that managers are actually doing some of the work conducted by the work

unit, therefore there is a need to keep the managers. Only a few responses viewed computers as being able to replace some of the current managers.

4. <u>Please state what decision making at the lowest level means to you.</u> Three central themes developed from this question. First, decision making at the lowest level means at the "appropriate" level. Second, there must be "appropriate" limits on those decisions. And third, decision making at the lowest level really means allowing people at the lowest level to have input into decision making.

The responses from those individuals not assigned to a headquarters function differed markedly in their responses. To them, decision making at the lowest level means that the person with the responsibility should be given authority to make a decision. Results also appear to be markedly different for those positioned lower in the hierarchy.

5. <u>If decision making in an organization is pushed to the lowest level, how does top management ensure quality, productivity, integrity, etc.?</u> No one theme emerged from this question. The responses ranged from goal setting and guidelines, to allowing employees to hold themselves accountable. This is probably one of the most critical questions that any agency administrator must answer before embarking on a path to empower the work force. As can been seen from the question, most managers are really not sure how to do this.

Another interesting aspect to this question is no one mentioned technology as a method of ensuring quality with fewer managers. Most managers see themselves as fulfilling that role and aren't ready to suggest that there is any other way to do it.

6. <u>Most criminal justice agencies are organized along a traditional pyramid structure. Florida statutes, with few exceptions, require that state agencies be organized this way. Do you think that this scheme, by its very nature, inhibits decision making at the lowest level? What changes would you make to the structure?</u> Almost overwhelmingly, the respondents rejected any notion that organizational structure could inhibit decision making at the lowest level. Some of the reasoning behind this response could be that almost all of the respondents grew up in this type of an organization and are not really familiar with any other kind of structure. Again, lack of effective communication was seen as the most inhibiting factor to lower level decision making.

7. The Florida Department of Corrections (DOC) is currently organized by geographic regions, with the regional administrator supervising all department activities, operational and administrative, within that region. Program offices in DOC headquarters coordinate the implementation of various programs that the department is responsible for. Do you think that this type of organizational structure is appropriate for a criminal justice agency? Why? This was the first question that actually suggested a change in the organizational structure. It also got the strongest response. Almost half of the respondents saw some merit in the proposal, but with reservations. Those who saw no merit in the proposition said so in the strongest terms and rejected the proposal outright.

The responses were somewhat surprising given FDLE's continuous commitment to the concept of open discussion and going "outside the dots." Some of the responses were no doubt given out of personal interests. If such changes were implemented, then many of the managers who responded might have to move to different jobs in different localities, thereby creating some personal animosity to the concept.

It also could be that criminal justice managers aren't ready or willing to make significant changes to their work place. The apparent overwhelming need to control, as indicated in earlier questions, could also be coming into play in the response to this question.

8. If decision making is pushed to the lowest appropriate level of an agency, and electronic devices are facilitating most of the communication between workers and top managers in an agency, what roles would middle management play in a criminal justice agency? Although some respondents mentioned the continuing need to control the work place, most saw the continuing need for someone to communicate and motivate. Even if computers are taking care of most of the rote duties of managers, and workers are making decisions for themselves, there is still the need for a human leader to have human interaction with workers. These responses could constitute a new job description for managers in the future, more human oriented while the computers are doing the managing.

9. What do you think is the appropriate ratio of workers to middle management/senior management? Would it be different for different jobs? Would geographic location of workers make a difference? Most of the responses that indicated a ratio of managers to workers cited those ratios that are currently in existence today. However, most

appeared to believe that ratios are not very important, and that every job must be viewed differently.

Discussion and Conclusions

If the survey results at FDLE are any indication, today's criminal justice managers are not ready for any sudden change in basic organizational structure. Despite the fact that governmental and private business leaders are all talking about the need for basic change, there appears to be little enthusiasm for it among criminal justice managers.

Dumaine (1991), in an article on bureaucracy busters, quoted Harvard Professor, Paul Lawrence, when speaking of the need to change organizations and their bureaucracies: "...companies in stable, slow-growth industries like oil, paper, and forest products should stay near the hierarchical end of the spectrum." Lawrence goes on to contrast slow moving companies with those in ever-changing markets such as telecommunications, publishing and autos, which he concludes should seek a more adaptive style of organizational structure.

Criminal justice agencies will change. Osborne (1992), in his review of changes needed in governmental organizations, concluded the only public system in worse shape than education and health care is the criminal justice system. Osborne called his book Reinventing Government, and perhaps that is the correct way for criminal justice administrators to look at their current dilemma. If the criminal justice system is considered, by leading researchers, to be in the worst shape of all governmental programs, then it follows that many questions are going to be asked by the public about the way we do business.

Drucker (1989) examined the changing world in The New Realities. Drucker states that government and private businesses will have to change old habits and acquire new ones. Drucker goes on to conclude that decentralization into autonomous units will be even more critical now than in the past. He suggests the adoption of the German model that supports smaller work units with their own top managers. This is very similar to the German military model that was successful in World War II, as previously discussed.

The results of the research clearly indicate that the culture of today's criminal justice managers is not ready for significant organizational change. In order to accomplish such change, criminal justice administrators will have to meet the challenge of changing that culture, for without the support of current management teams, little real change can occur.

So the question may be whether criminal justice

agencies are in the slow moving, slow growth arena or the fast paced, ever changing world of dealing with the worst of the world's problems. The population that we serve and the top decision makers in our governments are ready for a change.

Perhaps the best way to sum up what will be happening to criminal justice agencies in the 1990's is to quote Florida Department of Law Enforcement Commissioner James T. Moore. When asked his reaction to the ever increasing violent crime problem in the state of Florida by the <u>Tampa Tribune</u>, Moore stated, "We are learning a valuable lesson. Tallahassee can't fix this. Washington can't fix it. It's got to be fixed at the grass-roots level, in the local communities" (1993, p. N/W 11).

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Developing Quality Management for the Ocala, Florida, Police Department

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Jack Suess

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The purpose of this project is to provide an alternative view of traditional police management. This is accomplished by examining a move to Quality Management by the Ocala Police Department. In addition, it is hoped that this project will serve as a guideline for other agencies implementing quality principles.

SECTION ONE: QUALITY MANAGEMENT
What are the principles of quality management and how do they differ from traditional management concepts?

Principles of Quality Management
The principles of Quality Management are generally titled "Total Quality Management," more commonly referred to as "TQM." The man given the bulk of credit for developing this management philosophy is Dr. W. Edwards Deming. Although Dr. Deming never actually titled his philosophy "Total Quality Management," it has evolved that he and the title are viewed as one. In actuality, Dr. Deming authored a management philosophy which he simply refers to as "The Fourteen Points." The majority of the literature available on this subject is directed at the manufacturing industry. If the law enforcement profession wishes to consider these principles it must first accept the need for profession specific interpretation.

Deming's Fourteen Points:

1. <u>Create constancy of purpose for improvement of product and service.</u> Dr. Deming suggests a radical new definition of a company's role. Rather than making money, it is to stay in business and provide jobs through innovation, research, constant improvement, and maintenance.

2. <u>Adopt a new philosophy.</u> Americans are too tolerant of poor workmanship and sullen service. We need a new religion in which mistakes and negativism are unacceptable.

3. <u>Cease dependence on mass inspection.</u> American firms typically

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inspect a product as it comes off the line or at major stages. Defective products are either thrown our or reworked; both are unnecessarily expensive. In effect, a company is paying workers to make defects and then correct them. Quality comes not from inspection but from improvement of the process. With instruction, workers can be enlisted in the process.

4. <u>End the practice of awarding business on price tag alone.</u> Purchasing departments customarily operate on orders to seek the lowest-priced vendor. Frequently, this leads to supplies of low quality. Instead, they should seek the best quality and work to achieve it with a single supplier for any one item in a long-term relationship.

5. <u>Improve constantly and forever the system of production and service.</u> Improvement is not a one-time effort. Management is obligated to continually look for ways to reduce waste and improve quality.

6. <u>Institute training.</u> Too often, workers learned their jobs from another worker who was never trained properly. They are forced to follow unintelligible instructions. They can't do their jobs because no one tells them how.

7. <u>Institute leadership.</u> The job of a supervisor is not to tell people what to do or to punish them but to lead. Leading consists of helping people do a better job and of learning by objective methods who is in need of individual help.

8. <u>Drive out fear.</u> Many employees are afraid to ask questions or to take a position, even when they do not understand what the job is or what is right or wrong. People will continue to do things the wrong way, or not do them at all. The economic loss from fear is appalling. It is necessary for better quality and production that people feel secure.

9. <u>Break down barriers between staff areas.</u> Often staff areas -- departments, units, whatever -- are competing with each other or have goals that conflict. They do not work as a team so they can solve or foresee problems. Worse, one department's goals may cause trouble for another.

10. <u>Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for the work force.</u> These never helped anybody do a good job. Let people put up their own slogans.

11. <u>Eliminate numerical quotas.</u> Quotas take account only of numbers, not quality or methods. They are usually a guarantee of inefficiency and high cost. A person, to hold a job, meets quota at any cost, without regard to damage to the company.

12. <u>Remove barriers to pride of workmanship.</u> People are eager to do a good job and distressed when they can't. Too often, misguided supervisors, faulty equipment, and defective materials stand in the way. These barriers must be removed.

13. <u>Institute a vigorous program of education and retraining.</u> Both management and the work force will have to be educated in the new methods, including teamwork and statistical techniques.

14. <u>Take action to accomplish the transformation</u>. It will take a special top management team with a plan of action to carry out the quality mission. Workers can't do it on their own, nor can managers. A critical mass of people in the company must understand the Fourteen Points, the Seven Deadly Diseases and the Obstacles (Walton, 1986, pp. 34-36).

As previously mentioned, these principles are directed at the manufacturing industry; a certain degree of interpretation is required for application in law enforcement. There may be a tendency to immediately dismiss some of these principles, thinking they are written for manufacturing and therefore have no value to government. That tendency should be brought into check until each principle has been given careful consideration.

Traditional Management versus Total Quality Management

Probably the most effective means of seeing differences between traditional management and Total Quality Management is by looking at the two concepts side by side (shown at left).

The amount of information available on Total Quality Management and its spin-off theories is immeasurable. One organization may favor Dr. Deming's principles while another leans more toward the principles of Dr. Juran or any number of other authors on the subject. The focal issue must remain as to what is best for each particular organization. The bottom line should be an attitude of constant improvement that utilizes every member of the organization to their fullest capabilities.

TRADITIONAL MANAGEMENT	TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT
Needs of users of products and services defined by specialists	Customer focus, where users of products and service define what they want
Errors and waste tolerated if they do not exceed standards	No tolerance for errors, waste, and work that does not add value to products and services
Products and services inspected for problems then "fixed"	Prevention of problems
Many decisions governed by assumptions and gut feelings	Fact-based decisions using hard data and scientific procedures
Short term planning based around budget cycle	Long-term planning based on improving mission performance
Product or service designed sequentially by isolated departments	Simultaneous design of total product or service life cycle by teams from many functions
Control and improvement by individual managers and specialists	Teamwork among managers, specialists, employees, vendors, customers and partner agencies
Improvement focused on one-time breakthroughs such as computers and automation	Continuous improvement of every aspect of how work is done
Vertical structure and centralization based on control	Horizontal and decentralized structure based on maximizing value added to products and services
Short-term contracts awarded based on price	Vendor partnership of long-term buyer/seller obligations, based on quality and continuous improvement

Source: Carr, D. K., & Littman, I. D. (1990). <u>Excellence in Government</u>, p. 4.

SECTION TWO: QUALITY MANAGEMENT IN LAW ENFORCEMENT
What is the culture of a traditional police department and why is there a need to change?

Traditional Police Management

Police organizations throughout this country, and to some extent the world, are viewed as paramilitary. This military design probably has influenced the law enforcement culture itself. Such a culture includes: top down decision making without lower level input, after the fact inspections, provider driven/program based service, and budget cycle planning. The military design has served well and can continue to do so, however the culture within these agencies may need to be addressed. The United States Marine Corps serves as an example of an organization that has begun working toward Quality Management with its Total Quality Leadership Process (Brownlowe, 1991). The Marine Corps has taken some liberties with the principles of Dr. Deming which only reinforces the attitude of doing that which is best for each particular organization.

The military design provides a solid foundation for a fighting organization which is the job of the military. A good argument could be made for viewing law enforcement as a fighting force as well, a force engaging an enemy of crime, and there was a time when that was appropriate. However, expectations placed on police agencies today are not limited to enforcing the law. Devoting energy to designing a more appropriate structure for the law enforcement profession may be a worthwhile venture, but the surest advice comes from following the principle of "concept before design." The culture within the organization is the single most important factor. To change the culture is to change the organization; structural modifications alone will do little to improve organizational quality.

The Need To Change

Law enforcement agencies have in the past successfully recruited their work force from the military. Whether law enforcement sought military personnel or whether military personnel were drawn to law enforcement is not of major importance; there was a mutual benefit. The attraction can probably be credited to similarities in organizational culture.

> *Baby boomers seek and expect more control over their work environment than non-baby-boomer employees. They're interested in participating in decisions that previously were*

the sole discretion of upper management (Chanick, 1992, p. 43).

There is a need to modify the traditional paramilitary style of management if we accept the theory that control is a major concern of a large portion of today's work force.

While there is much discussion, there is no consensus on the causes of this country's failing economy. Even more importantly, there is no solution anywhere in sight. If and when a solution is discovered, it will take several years to feel any great effect on society as a whole.

A survey of 620 cities and towns found 54% have negative balance sheets, up from 52% in 1991. Some solutions: cities are using fewer people to pick up trash less frequently, closing library branches, eliminating fire and police positions, and increasing parking fines (Davis, 1992).

"Fight smarter, not bigger" is a slogan that gained popularity during the Persian Gulf War. It's a principle that will have to become a practice. The law enforcement efforts seem futile in the face of the growing crime rates, even though police everywhere wage gallant assaults, they seem to be losing the war.

Despite law enforcement's best efforts, agencies have not stunted the increase of criminal behavior. For example, during 1987, Florida had the highest crime rate in the United States; more then 1 million serious crimes were reported. In 1988, 1 in 12 Floridians were crime victims. In Florida, a crime is committed every 32 seconds (Staly, 1992, p. 49).

Each tactic, procedure, and process utilized by law enforcement agencies must be evaluated for its effectiveness. This evaluation is best conducted by the experts, the officers that are on the street, doing the job, each and every day.

SECTION THREE: The Past, The Present, The Future

The Past

The Ocala Police Department was a traditional police agency. However one aspect of the agency, contrary to many others in the state, is a Chief that has been leading the department for eighteen years. In addition to "The Fourteen Points," Dr. Deming wrote "The Seven Deadly Diseases" which addresses issues that can create problems for Quality Management. Disease #4 addresses the need for

a long term commitment to change organizational culture and reflects the affirmative situation in Ocala:

> *4) Mobility of management. Job-hopping managers never understand the companies that they work for and are never there long enough to follow through on long-term changes that are necessary for quality and productivity (Walton, 1986, p. 36).*

Ocala began its change to Quality Management in 1990 with the realization that a long term commitment was necessary. Traditional management worked in Ocala's past, but times have changed and the challenge for better management has been accepted by the members of the organization.

The Present: Laying the groundwork

In April, 1990 the Ocala Police Department was restructured from a traditional organization to one of decentralized district command. The restructuring abolished the Patrol Division and created two operations districts. The goals of the restructuring were:

- To improve accountability by bringing specialized units under one geographic command.
- To decentralize authority, thereby lowering the levels of decision making.
- To provide an organization that allows for further growth (McGehee, 1992).

Ocala's change to Quality Management began with the Chief supplying the Executive Staff with copies of a Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) Discussion Paper titled "Quality Policing, The Madison Experience." The paper provides a history of the experiences of the Madison, Wisconsin, Police Department as it worked toward Quality Management. To a great degree Ocala has used Madison as a model for its processes.

> *There's a fine line between fishing and standing on the shore like an idiot.*
>
> Steven Wright

The next step in the process was to send a member of the Executive Staff for an on-site visit to the Madison Police Department. There are numerous organizations and individuals that "talk" one thing but in actuality do something else. The Madison Police Department is an organization that does what it says it is doing. It is the first to admit it still has a way to go but obvious positive differences exist.

In addition to the Madison Police Department, the Ocala Police Department has received valuable assistance through the Quality Management processes of the Xerox

Quality Forum; Joyserv Company, Ltd., Kaizen; and the Pinellas County Quality Improvement Program.

Instituting Education

The information obtained from the on-site visit to Madison was presented first to the Chief and then to his Executive Staff. The Staff had an opportunity to assess and discuss the concepts of Quality Management and then assist in formulating an implementation plan.

Departmental supervisors were the next group to receive a briefing. The supervisors were not given a copy of the PERF discussion paper but they were provided with an overview. Copies of the paper were then given to those that requested one.

The final step in the initial education process was completed with a departmental wide briefing for nonsupervisory employees. Supervisory personnel answered calls for service which allowed their employees to attend the session. This meeting served two purposes. In addition to the Quality Management briefing, an election was held for the Chief's Advisory Team.

The educational process is a continuous process that must include every employee. Because of the Chief's high regard for continuing education, there has never been a lack training at OPD. The first full week of each year is dedicated to leadership training; all departmental supervisors attend the sessions. This training is in addition to the normal in-service training provided through the Training Management & Assessment Program (TMAP). The 1992 and 1993 Leadership Seminars were both dedicated to Quality Management.

The Processes

As was previously mentioned, the department-wide meeting included an election to determine which members would serve as the Chief's Advisory Team. It can not be overemphasized how important it is that all employees be included in the quality process. There is a tendency in law enforcement to focus on the patrol officers; that attitude is not acceptable. The election provided a team that appropriately represented all sections of the department and had gender and racial balance.

The team named itself the Members Advisory Team (MAT). It is to provide a means of

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I am frequently asked, "What are your expectations?" Right now we all should be moving towards gaining the skills and trying to practice the principles; any reasonable progress is acceptable, but behavior that indicates unwillingness or "blocking" is not. Our employees should see a difference. You should:

- Be a "champion" for Quality Leadership, take ownership of the quality leadership philosophy and style.

- Be developing and nurturing to your employees; coach, teach and enable them to be quality leaders or employees.

- Be a role-model, a visible, active, energetic and positive leader by word and example, to practice what we are preaching.

- Be able to begin to demonstrate to your leader, and your employees, with data, your success in meeting the above "expectations." You should be able to effectively answer your leader's question, "How will I know when you are a quality leader?"

Source: Couper & Lobitz. (1991). The Quality Leadership Workbook, Madison, Wisconsin P.D., p.6.

communication between the Chief and nonsupervisory employees. Prior to MAT, the employees were frustrated when their concerns failed to reach the Chief through the chain of command.

Before MAT began working on any suggestions for improvements it participated in leadership training conducted by the Chief. MAT also attended a team building exercise facilitated by the University of Florida titled "Ropes." Ropes utilizes a series of physical obstacles that require the team to rely on its strength as a whole in order to complete the course.

MAT completed its training and developed a process for accepting and addressing the concerns of the employees. Since its formation, MAT has reviewed in excess of forty proposals that examine some process at the department. The examples that follow were selected to illustrate certain points of Quality Management. Some of the issues addressed by MAT may not seem too important, but the team is a firm believer in the Japanese concept of Kaizen.

> Kaizen: *continual small improvements; reform; betterment*

The parking lot.

The idea seemed innocent enough but this was not a good place to start; the line between traditional management and Quality Management does not erase easily. The Chief, the Executive Staff, and the Investigators all had reserved parking on the back lot of the police department. Citizens (customers) would come into the department to speak to a patrol officer. As they waited, the officer was riding around the block looking for a place to park. Almost without exception there were empty spots on the back lot, but since they were reserved, the officer couldn't park there. The proposal was to eliminate the reserved parking, and the battle lines were drawn. Since this was the first proposal, everything up to this point had been Quality Management theory. Now things began to heat up. After much debate the proposal was passed and when the predicted chaos failed to materialize, the proposal became a policy.

Lesson learned: there is no harm in trying something that can be easily reversed, it just might work.

Light-weight jackets.

The officers were issued winter jackets that were heavier than what is normally needed in Florida. The proposal was to allow the officers to purchase their own light-

weight jacket with the realization that there needed to be standardization. The proposal was accepted and implemented.

Lesson learned: involve the people that do the job everyday in the decision making process as it relates to equipment purchases.

Handicapped parking warning cards.

Community Service officers found that a large percentage of the citations issued for handicapped parking violations were dismissed. The violators had permits, but simply forgot to hang them on their rear view mirrors. The Community Service officers proposed and designed a warning card that could be used instead of a citation when appropriate.

Lesson learned: focus on the customer, continually look for ways to improve quality.

> *Truth comes sooner out of error than chaos.*
>
> Sir Francis Bacon

Not long after MAT was formed it became apparent that a vital group of employees had been excluded from the decision making process. The nonsupervisory employees were represented by MAT, and the Executive Staff personally meets with the Chief on a regular basis, but the supervisors (sergeants and civilian) were not in the process. By way of an election, this group sent three members to the Executive Staff which was renamed the Management Team.

Another process being utilized is that of Self-Directed Teams (SDT) among the motorcycle officers. Prior to the 1990 restructuring, they were supervised by a sergeant. The restructuring sent half of the motorcycle officers to one district and the other half to another district. Instead of creating another sergeant position to fill the void, the self-directed concept was adopted. Again there were incorrect predictions of failure and chaos. These officers have received specialized training and they are aware of the responsibility associated with the team. The team is involved in every aspect of the job, everything from budgets and scheduling to selecting and training new members for the team. Its success can best be described through the following situation: One of the officers was being questioned about his status as a member of a self-directed team. The question was asked "What is so different about your job now that you are self-directed?" The officer responded, "The biggest difference is that now I enjoy coming to work every day."

The Future

A basic tenet of Quality Management is focusing on customers, whether they are internal or external. The Ocala Police Department believes that if the needs of the internal customers (employees) are met, they will naturally focus on the external customers (citizens). In other words, it is management's responsibility to enable and empower the employees to get their jobs done and to remove the barriers to quality work. That belief does not, however, remove the responsibility of external customer satisfaction from management.

Historically, law enforcement agency performance has been measured by crime rates, number of traffic citations issued, and number of cases cleared. Although these statistics do provide valuable data, they do not provide the whole picture. A customer survey was developed as a way of measuring performance. The customer survey is sent out every month and provides a measure of overall quality of service.

The survey was designed with input from the employees of the department as well as citizens. Implementation of the survey, along with the other aspects of Quality Management, were factors in Ocala's decision not to seek reaccreditation.

The first area addressed is "How well were you kept informed on the progress of your case?" This clearly was one area that needed some improvement. Using a databased problem solving approach, a possible solution to the problem was put into practice. At the time of this writing the success or failure of the solution has yet to be determined. If the desired results are not achieved, other methods will be employed until success comes.

The most effective manner of communicating the need and desire for Quality Management is through the Vision Statement written by the men and women of the department.

The process of writing the statement took approximately four months. There are certainly faster ways to accomplish the writing of a vision statement, but few would be as effective. Every member of the department had a chance for input, and while some input was through representation, it portrays a department-wide effort. Earlier it was noted that the leader of the organization is responsible for charting the course. In the case of the Vision Statement, Chief McGehee wrote his own version of the statement but kept it to himself until the final stages of the process. The differences between the final statement and the

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A leader is best
When people barely know he exists
Not so good
When people proclaim and obey him
Worse when they despise him
But of a good leader
Who talks little
When work is done
His aim fulfilled
They will say
"We did it ourselves!"

Lao Tsu, c.565 B.C.

Chief's personal version amount to nothing more than semantics; the themes were the same.

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Development of a Values Based Performance Appraisal and Evaluation System

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This paper describes current evaluation systems in place in the majority of criminal justice agencies across the United States and in Florida particularly, and their shortcomings. Based on those inadequacies, the process used by the Juno Beach Police Department to develop an appraisal and evaluation system grounded in departmental values is recounted. The paper describes the process used to originate the values and the implementation process that is characterized by high levels of employee input through self appraisal and a committee evaluation of that appraisal.

Overview of Performance Appraisals

Although performance appraisals theoretically are designed for employee development purposes, they typically are used for reward or compensation purposes. According to a 1977 survey by Locher and Teel (Schnake, 1987), 80.6% of small organizations surveyed and 62.2% of all large organizations use performance appraisals for this purpose.

Police performance appraisals come in a variety of sizes, shapes, and philosophies. Behaviorally anchored rating systems, critical statement systems, and others have been tried over the years, each meeting with varying success in terms of employee development and overall goal achievement.

The systems in place rate officers and employees on such factors as thoroughness/quality, with specific items in that dimension characterized by "reports are complete and need little clarification or correction," or "paperwork is neat and orderly."

For example, the Florida Highway Patrol's (FHP) system evaluates troopers on tasks such as "investigate and file written report of accidents, unusual incidents and other investigations," with the corresponding performance standard, "reports are to be neat, legible, accurate comprehensive, in accordance with FHP policies."

The evaluation instruments reviewed actually measure how closely an employee conforms to policy. In that way,

the form may be used as a tool of discipline, such as if the employee "fails" the evaluation, then probation, suspension or even termination may result. This use of the evaluation may not be entirely appropriate. Disciplinary or remedial actions should be taken immediately after deviations from policy are noted, not at year's end. Delays between the transgression and the disciplinary action reduce the effectiveness of the action and may not serve to correct the deviant behavior (Tyre, 1991).

None of these systems rate an officer's performance with respect to the contribution that officer makes to community safety and security. They deal instead with how well the officer meets time guidelines, and how complete reports are -- activities rather than results. They also tend to channel the efforts of the officer into tight patterns of behavior that do not reward innovation or creativity, but rather, reinforce the status quo, regardless of how inefficient the status quo may be.

Values and Performance

Values speak to how things should be accomplished in an organization, so that daily actions reflect organizational philosophy. Value statements, if actually considered in the daily behaviors of employees, should cause them to make that philosophy a part of the fabric of their decision making processes. The goal of the Juno Beach Police Department (JBPD) was to cause this to happen.

Kouzes and Posner (1985) found that clearly articulated values result in significant payoffs for managers, employees and organizations in terms of career success because they are guided by ethical standards. The department and the community would profit from such guidance. Although Kouzes and Posner suggest that leaders should develop tough but measurable performance standards, many misinterpret this statement by quantifying expected, routine and traditional work patterns that do not specifically cause officers and employees to be innovative and creative. In fact, creativity often is stifled and discouraged; the status quo is encouraged.

There is no system of performance evaluation, at least in the literature reviewed, that focuses on values and mission statements and evaluates performance based on those. Most agencies have value and mission statements, but those statements are kept separate from the evaluation process. There are a number of projects underway at this writing that consider the difficulty of evaluating officers on nontraditional measures, for example the "quality of life in a community" rather than the "number of tickets written" or "appearance."

If it is really believed that the job of a law enforcement officer is to prevent crime and improve the quality of life in a community, then evaluation systems must be changed to reflect that. Also, if it is accepted that community policing, values and mission statements are important, then evaluation systems must be changed to reflect that. If "simplest is best," then our evaluation systems must be changed to reflect that. Juno Beach Police Department's new system has been designed to meet all these criteria.

The Juno Beach System

Previously, the JBPD had different evaluations for each job description -- one for road patrol, supervisors, clerks, detectives, and executive level employees. Obviously, this attempt to match the performance evaluation with the particular job was cumbersome. It was often felt that more time was spent trying to figure out which form to use than on the evaluation itself.

Although it was attempted to make the evaluation objective, in the final analysis, it was still subjective. Often, departments will try to use "objective" criteria such as numbers of arrests, tickets issued, and clearance rates. But because there are so many external factors associated with these items, those departments still really didn't measure employee effectiveness or department efficiency. For instance, how many arrests are because of good police work and how many arrests result because an officer happened to respond to a particular call? Of those arrested, how many are convicted? How many does the prosecutor actually take to court? Are the tickets borderline citations or well founded? Most of these questions can't be answered. These statistics need to be kept, but perhaps given less emphasis in the evaluation process.

The questions that should be asked revolve around the feeling of safety in the community and the prevention of criminal activity. With these questions in the forefront, a survey was distributed to all employees to determine their level of satisfaction with the current performance evaluation system.

The survey results indicated overwhelming dissatisfaction with the appraisal system that had been used for the past four years (at least at the patrol officer level). The employees reported that they didn't like the form, the way in which the form was used, or the process by which they were evaluated. Among the weaknesses they identified in the current system were lack of employee input, the tremendous influence of a single rater, and the length of the evaluation. They also expressed concern that merit raises were tied to

the evaluation.

As the administrator of the department, this author was not satisfied with the appraisal system either, particularly because it did not seem to link our values with behavior. An appraisal system was needed that was values based, pertained directly to behaviors that further those values, and involved a high degree of employee input. A few clear, descriptive value statements were also needed that would guide an employee in his/her day-to-day work and that would encourage ingenuity, innovation, and creativity. Furthermore, "simplicity" was to be the key word in this process.

Based on the survey and the desire to have an instrument that more accurately reflected the values of the Juno Beach Police Department, a committee was formed to clearly articulate those values. The committee, which included the Chief of Police, a road sergeant, a detective, and a civilian employee, began meeting in January, 1992.

The committee considered rewriting value statements from other well known departments, such as Tampa, but most recognized authorities such as Posner and Kouzes (1987) believe that value statements must originate from within the organization if they are to be truly representative of the department using them. Instead, employees were encouraged to submit three or four statements that reflected the values of the department. Throughout the process the department held regular meetings with employees to ensure clarity and consensus on the values being discussed. By March 1992 the committee had merged employee submissions into nine value statements and the following mission statement:

> *The mission of the Juno Beach Police Department is to enhance and support an environment of safety and security for our residents and visitors through the conscientious provision of professionalism and excellence.*

The values of the JBPD were condensed to nine statements that reflected what the members of the organization thought were important in terms of guidance for employees in day-to-day tasks:

1. We must continually reinforce ethical decisions and ethical behavior.
2. We must treat all persons with respect and dignity at all times, regardless of status: coworkers, citizens, witnesses, victims, suspects and all others.
3. The United States Constitution must be defended, and the laws of the state of Florida, Palm Beach County,

and the town of Juno Beach, must be fairly and equitably enforced using discretion and good judgement while keeping with the spirit and intent of those laws.

4. We must provide our clients with access to the criminal justice and social support system to help ensure that their call for service is handled in as appropriate manner as possible.

5. We must place an emphasis on education to prevent crimes and unsafe behaviors.

6. We must strive for excellence through an emphasis on education, training, use of technology/equipment, and encourage creative and innovative ideas with results oriented solutions.

7. We must be respectfully irreverent of "the way we've always done things" and look to the future.

8. We must be an integral part of the community and have a commitment to customer service.

9. The department must act as a team with self and corporate responsibilities.

The committee then developed a form based entirely on the mission statement and the department values for use in the evaluation process. Consensus on both the values and the form's design was reached by May 1992 and copies of the form were distributed to all employees.

To make the system as fair as possible, and to address the problems mentioned earlier, the implementation process began with trimester evaluations that were completed by the employees themselves. The first set of evaluations were completed in June 1992 and the second at the end of September 1992.

For an evaluation, each employee was required to describe specific actions or behaviors that represented the value statements. For example, one civilian employee detailed how she set up a "Crimestoppers" television reenactment of an armed robbery that occurred in Juno Beach. Even though this is actually the responsibility of the investigator on that case, the clerk took it upon herself to help out the investigator. This example was cited for value #9, which says that we "must act as a team with corporate responsibilities."

Each employee also completed sections of the evaluation form that dealt with commendations and disciplinary actions received. The form then went to the employee's immediate supervisor for comments and corroboration. Next, a committee made up of the Chief of Police, a sergeant, a civilian employee, and a member of

the Juno Beach Civic Association[1] ranked each statement on a scale of one to four, with "one" representing "not acceptable" and "four" representing "outstanding." The scores were then tallied and averaged to arrive at an overall score:

Outstanding	36.0 - 31.5
Above Average	31.4 - 22.5
Satisfactory	22.4 - 13.5
Unacceptable	13.4 - 9.0

The committee gave each employee feedback that contained suggestions on how to improve his/her performance over the next trimester.

As previously noted, in some departments, performance problems are not addressed until evaluation time. The values based evaluation system is prefaced with the understanding that the evaluation system is not used as a disciplinary tool. Violations of policy, incomplete reports, excessive absences from duty, and so on, are part of the employee's evaluation, but are corrected at the time of the violation to maximize effectiveness of the corrective action.

Performance guidelines are articulated in the policy manual and all employees are expected to conform. They are not a road map of how to do the job. They are, instead, a compass heading that allows for flexibility, creativity and innovation, guided by our values and our mission statement. For example, our bicycle patrol was the first in Palm Beach County. Our field training program is based almost entirely on scenarios and job competency, and not on the traditional 16 week San Jose model. These have led to greater officer effectiveness, and a greater feeling of safety among residents, according to anecdotal comments received.

The goals of the department, which also serve as our vision statements, are relatively short and to the point. Our goals are: 1) to respect all individuals; 2) to provide professional service; and 3) to search for excellence. Those goals are turned into reality through the behaviors described in our value statements, and the performance standards set by the work force. By comparing the work force to our best performers, the ability to determine what is "good" or "outstanding" has been enhanced. It is still quite subjective, but there is a defensible basis for the subjectivity. This comparison process is one primary reason why all evaluations are conducted at the same time.

If an employee doesn't perform up to standards required of him/her, coaching or counseling is provided as

appropriate. This remediation is given as called for, and not always in a disciplinary setting. Sometimes it's as informal as a mention of something observed while walking down the hallway with an employee, and other times it is as formal as an internal affairs investigation and suspension. Care is given to ensure that officers and civilians know what is expected of them, and this is reinforced through the trimester evaluations.

The final evaluation that determines the employee's placement on the merit scale is in September. The previous two evaluations are taken into consideration, and an overall score is determined. The timing of the evaluation is designed to coincide with our October 1 - September 30 fiscal year.

The merit raise issue was the subject of a great deal of discussion. The committee, after consultation with the Town Manager and employees, recommended that merit raises be given consistent with the rankings described earlier. Further, the issue of longevity pay was discussed and incorporated into this system. The final recommendation was that all employees who receive a "satisfactory" ranking will be awarded a 2% longevity increase. "Above average" will warrant an additional 1.5% merit, and "outstanding" will warrant a 3% merit. In the final analysis, a person could receive additional pay of 2%, 3.5%, or 5%, depending on the rating assigned by the committee.

Appeals from employees who feel they have not been treated fairly by the committee will be addressed through the procedure outlined in the town's personnel policy.

Summary and Conclusions

The first part of the project has been successful in that a values based performance appraisal has been developed and put into practice. Even though the system is being used, it will be some time before it is known whether there has been success in creating a new evaluation system that is fair, is received favorably by employees, and guarantees adherence to the values of the department. To help determine this, the new system was evaluated and compared to the old system in terms of employee satisfaction, citizen satisfaction, and some peripheral measures such as clearance rates, Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) statistics, and activity reports during a comparable time period, shown at left.

This information suggests that, at least, the new system

	June-Nov 1991	June-Nov 1992
Citations Issued	1315	1300
Calls for Service	1087	1142
Arrests	70	80
UCR Part I Crimes	18.6/month	13.75/month
Clearance Rate	12.11% ave	23.42% ave
Disciplinary Actions	2	7
Letters of Commendation	6	9

does not adversely affect enforcement statistics as some had feared it would. Some supervisors were concerned that if traffic tickets were not counted, then nobody would write tickets. That does not appear to be the case. These evaluative criteria are still being monitored and will be measured again at the conclusion of one year.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that employee acceptance of the new evaluation system is high and a second employee satisfaction survey tends to corroborate that, but it would be premature to claim conclusive evidence of this. On the second survey, 66% of the 15 people responding preferred the new to the previous system. Positive comments such as "this process gives me a feeling that I can sort of brag about what I've done," "this isn't perfect but it's much better that anything else I've seen used," or "this process really links what I do and how I'm evaluated," were common. The negative comments stemmed primarily from the part the committee played in the evaluation role, and one officer pointed out that he didn't feel as though proficiency or skill was rated accurately.

Only half of those surveyed felt that the new system accurately measured employee productivity. Since we do not specifically ask for that information in the evaluation, that statistic is not surprising. However, the officers can put that information in the self-evaluation, and many of them were told by the committee that they should provide that information.

Comments from the town's citizens seem to indicate that they can see the difference in the crime prevention focus being emphasized by the officers. The officers are on bikes more often now, and are giving out a number of Crime Opportunity Warnings, a form developed as a result of this project.

The comparisons of data from the time period preceding the new system to the present time indicate that employees are happier with the new system, and the other data suggest that performance of the employees is not suffering. Further monitoring will probably result in modifications to the system, and additional departmental meetings are planned to help ensure complete understanding and acceptance of the process.
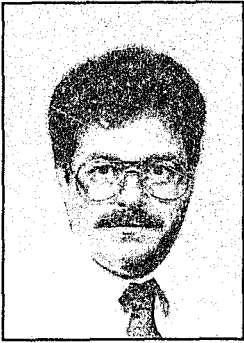

Endnotes

1. The civic association member was chosen as a representative of the community in order to increase the department's contact with

the community, and so that the community could have direct input into the operations of the department. The civilian, who has a background in personnel management, has by her own account gained a new appreciation of the work of all our employees, and shows even greater support of the department. She also serves as the liaison between the Police Department and the Civic Association. (To minimize apprehension from employees about an "outsider" evaluating their efforts and having a role in whether they would get merit raises, a training program was designed for the civic association representative.)

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Literacy Standards for the Entry Level Criminal Justice Practitioner

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In recent years both the private and the public sectors have experienced the ill effects of literacy problems. Several private companies have instituted their own programs to raise the functional literacy levels of new employees. They designed these programs to school employees in specific literacy skills needed by the company. However, this is simply treating the symptom and not the disease. Unfortunately the public sector does not have the fiscal resources to pursue such programs. Presently the lack of fiscal resources forces public agencies to prioritize monetary allocations. Programs to raise the literacy level of new employees are not a top priority. Inadequate literacy levels among new employees is a problem for all public sector organizations. However, it is more obvious and significant in the criminal justice community. This research project examines the functional literacy of entry level criminal justice officers and discusses possible options for instituting literacy requirements for basic recruits.

Literacy and Law Enforcement

In researching this subject, the question was asked, "What is the average functional literacy level of high school graduates in Florida?" There is no answer. The Florida Department of Education has not conducted such a study.

Graduating seniors are required to take and pass the "High School Competency Test" (HSCT) to receive a high school diploma. The HSCT is a pass/fail test and does not provide the participant or the education system an approximation of a functional literacy level. Portions of the HSCT were tested using the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level formula; these portions tested to an eighth grade level.

The Florida Department of Education is revising the test to a tenth grade level in October 1994. However, Table 1 (next page) shows a steady decline in HSCT scores from 1987 to 1991, with an average pass rate of 86.6 percent in the communications portion and a 78.2 percent pass rate in the mathematical portion.

Other reports show similar downward trends in Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores and American College Testing (ACT) scores since 1967. [Changes to the ACT in 1990

Table 1
SSAT II/HSCT Percent Passing
1987- 1991

Subject Area	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
Communication	88	88	85	87	86
Mathematics	82	80	76	78	75

Figure 1
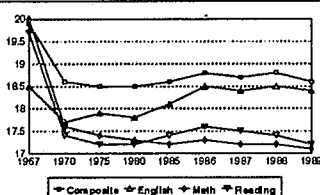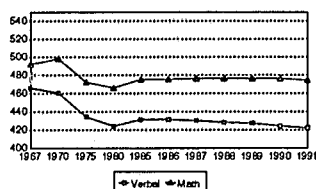**American College Testing**
Scores of College Bound Students

Figure 2
Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT)
Scores of College Bound Seniors

Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level
.039 x (average number of words per sentence)
+ 11.8 x (average number of syllables per word)
Total - 15.59 = Grade Level

Flesch Reading Ease
1.015 x (average number of words per sentence)
+ .846 x (number of syllables per 100 words)
206.835 - Total = Flesch Reading Ease Score

Note: The lower the score the more difficult to read

Gunning's Fog Index
(average number of words per sentence)
+ (number of words of 3 syllables or more)
Total x .04 = Fog Index

Note: The Fog Index is another measure of approximate grade
level a reader must have achieved to understand the document

resulted in an average score two points higher than the previous years.] Both the SAT and ACT showed significant declines in reading and math. The decline in ACT verbal skills also was significant.

Reading is a key element in being able to satisfactorily function on any job. When one considers the difficulty level of required reading material for the criminal justice practitioner, the implications of these statistics are not promising. Graduating Florida high school students function at the eighth grade level, and their literacy skills have diminished over time.

According to Andrew Dantschisch, Assistant Professor of Criminal Justice at St. Petersburg Junior College: "Just as test scores are going down and educational levels are getting worse instead of better in society, it's reflected in law enforcement" (Clark, 1992, p. 16).

As part of this research, several document types were tested using several formulas to assess reading grade level. The formulas used were the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level, Flesch Reading Ease, and Gunning's Fog Index (see box at left). Five common Florida Statutes tested to an average grade level of 14 (see Table 2, next page). Three Monroe County Sheriff's Office Operation Policy chapters tested to an average grade level of 13.3. A Florida Department of Law Enforcement legal update tested to a 19th grade level.

These and similar documents are everyday reading for law enforcement or correctional officers. As Clark (1992) stated:

> The lack of literacy skills can
> have wide-ranging, adverse
> effects on policing, according to
> those interviewed by LEN.
> Officers who can't read the law
> and grasp its ever changing
> nuances can hardly be
> expected to uphold it, they say.
> (p. 1)

The continuing decline in literacy skills can have a damning impact on the image of

Table 2 Document Comparison Chart			
Document	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level	Flesch Reading Ease	Fog Index
F.S. Burglary	15	31	17
F.S. Assault	20	17	24
F.S. Lewd	14	36	16
F.S. Careless Driving	14	46	17
F.S. Head Lamps	17	37	21
MCSO Chapter 1	15	28	19
MCSO Chapter 34	12	40	16
MCSO Chapter 44	13	35	17
FDLE Legal Update	19	6	24
HSCT	8	63	11

professionalism sought by police, as well as hampering law enforcement efforts to institute ambitious community and problem-oriented policing programs. Community based policing requires accurate and clear communication with the community members served by the street officer. Without such communication, information may not be relayed properly, creating misconceptions and doubt and hampering an agency's program.

"Those who can't communicate verbally tend to fall back on authority of force," stated Dantschisch (Clark, 1992, p. 17). This is counter to the philosophy of community based policing. Resolution of criminal justice and social matters are sought through means other than the use of force. Clark (1992) also noted, "Criminal cases may be jeopardized when police reports are not clearly written and when officers are unable to communicate clearly during courtroom testimony, according to prosecutors" (p. 1).

Jane White, Director of the Criminal Justice and Law Center at Lansing Community College, which includes the Michigan Police Academy, said, "There is no institution of higher education that is not concerned about the students we're getting today in terms of critical thinking skills and in terms of reading and writing skills" (Clark, 1992, p. 16).

The key phrase in this quote is *critical thinking skills*. Such skills are essential to law enforcement and corrections in society today. Quality education programs can develop these skills. If a student is lacking basic literacy skills he/she can not take advantage of critical thinking skill development efforts in any program.

Judith Libby, a 14-year educator at the Indiana University and Indiana State Police Academy said, "Police probably write more than any other group that you'll ever meet. Officers must be able to read and comprehend legal concepts -- and keep up with the ever-changing world of criminal statutes. If they can not read case law, they can not uphold the law" (Clark, 1992, p. 16).

According to the commanding officer of the Boston Police Academy, Captain Harold Prefontaine, "The law is a living, viable thing, it changes continuously. To understand Supreme Court decisions, to understand changes in the statutes, these people need to be able to read, digest and understand the training bulletins that are sent" (Clark, 1992,

p. 16). James Stinchcomb, director of the Miami-Dade Community College's School of Justice and Safety Administration said, "We're getting people who went to high school and they can't read a sentence for heaven's sake!" (Clark, 1992, p. 16).

Training bulletins are intended to be read by individual officers. While they can, and should be discussed and clarified in roll calls and classes, they also are posted on bulletin boards for officers to read any time. Officers should have the skills to read and digest these documents on their own.

One other area where literacy skills (or lack of them) becomes critical is in the court room, where an officer's ability to communicate and his/her written reports come under scrutiny. According to Steven Stewart, Clark County, Indiana, Prosecutor, "there's no question there are close cases where confusion about the police report affects the way the jury processes the evidence. Juries and defense lawyers expect police officers to exhibit their legal acumen when testifying during criminal trials" (Clark, 1992, p. 17).

Adds Steven Goldsmith, former Marion County, Indiana, Prosecutor and present Mayor of Indianapolis, "Police departments are heavy information industries. One of their main products and by-products is the processing of information. The ability to communicate and process large amounts of information affects the productivity of the department -- as well as its results" (Clark, 1992, p. 17).

Clark (1992) also contends that literate officers are less likely to make mistakes. Mistakes in criminal justice work can and most likely often result in civil litigation and judgments against agencies.

Officer Literacy in Florida

Joe Macy, Director of the Criminal Justice Institute at Palm Beach Community College, informally surveyed other training centers in April, 1988. He asked about recruit performance on basic skills tests and concluded that there were recruits that did not pass the basic skills at the required 9th grade level. However, they did complete the basic recruit course and were certified. Director Macy brought the issue of basic literacy skill needs for recruits to the Training Center Director's Association in October 1988.

The Florida Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission began to discuss literacy skills testing during its January 1989 meeting. As a result, training centers were surveyed on five points:

1)   if a basic skills test is administered

2) if so, which test and level
3) when administered
4) if remediation is offered
5) if students who fail the basic skills test are submitted to CJSTC as eligible for certification.

In April 1989, Dr. Tom Fisher of the Florida Department of Education spoke to the Commission concerning grade level norming. He described it as the average score earned by the 9th grade students in the norming group. Norming is not done yearly, therefore, the level chosen may not be acceptable in today's society.

A report to the Commission outlined the following options regarding basic skills testing for recruits:

* adopt a specific exam based on materials used in basic recruit training
* require that all schools use one exam
* leave the policy as is; each school decides if an examination will be administered and which exam, and the Commission continues to certify recruits who do not pass a 9th grade basic skills test.

The Commission has undertaken a program to develop a basic skills test for entry level law enforcement and correctional officers. A statewide job tasks analysis is being conducted as part of this project, which is not yet completed.

According to FDLE's Division of Criminal Justice Standards and Training, the Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission adopted the following policy in a special meeting in December, 1992:

Standards and Training staff will develop a basic skills test.

Staff will administer this test to all graduates of a basic academy not later than ten days after completion.

All recruits in an academy starting on or after July 1, 1993, will be required to take and pass this exam before certification.

The standard of a high school diploma or GED will not change. Any change would require legislative action and does not seem practical. It is still not clear on what foundation the basic skills test will be developed.

In an early discussion, the Division of Criminal Justice Standards and Training staff suggested that a 9th grade literacy level had been discussed as acceptable for entry level law enforcement and corrections officers. At the time

this discussion involved the Florida Department of Education. An argument offered for this level was that line officers do not need to read and comprehend statutes, manuals and other related materials to perform essential tasks of the job. There are supervisors to clarify these materials. Superficially, this argument sounds reasonable, but it is essentially flawed.

To say that a supervisor continually should interpret and offer application suggestions is not practical. Less supervision, not more, is a common goal among progressive criminal justice agencies. More supervision is costly and inappropriate in an era of efficiency and agency rightsizing.

What happens during the promotional process? Do these officers get promoted? If the pool of promotable officers is reduced due to inability to compete, do we lower the standards? If history is an indication of the future, these or most of these officers will get promoted. Then who will be there to help the line officer?

The argument offered is not valid. Based on Division staff input, the Commission has probably recognized the problem. Work on a basic skills test has just begun again. After such a delay, it's too early to predict in what form and on what basis it will emerge.

Wollack & Associates has developed basic skills tests for approximately six state criminal justice standards commissions and several hundred agencies over the past 20 years. According to Stephen Wollack, all related written training and job materials tested to an average grade level of 15.5 (S. Wollack, personal communication, January 6, 1993). Depending on the formula used, this may vary by a few grade levels. Wollack also said that the California POST conducted an independent study and confirmed the average grade level he had found. Wollack stated, "cop work is literate-intensive. The [reading] requirement involves a lot of statutory material, policy and procedures -- just endless amounts of material."

The firm of Standard & Associates has been involved in the FDLE basic skills test early on. Fred Rasilson of Standard & Associates said that, in a nationwide study of 4,000 applicants, 25% were not able to read at the 12th grade level and 30% could not perform addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division tasks essential to the job of a police officer (F. Rasilson, personal communication, January 6, 1993).

Both Wollack & Associates and Standard & Associates tests are pass/fail tests. Neither provides a projected literacy level for the applicant. Rasilson said that their test, The National Police Officer Selection Test, was developed after a job tasks analysis. This analysis was conducted over several

years and involved numerous agencies in several states. It focuses on the written material the officer will encounter and must be able to read and comprehend to perform the essential job task of a police officer. The written material is at a minimum of a 12th grade level.

When asked, Rasilson said that if job materials were written at a 9th grade level, the test would reflect that grade level of material. Also, a test could be developed for a specific grade level. However, this would not be a valid test because it does not relate to the job tasks analysis.

The test developed by Wollack & Associates is also based on numerous job tasks analyses. Mr. Wollack warned against focusing on grade levels, but on basic skills need to perform essential job tasks. Unfortunately, this involves being able to process written material on a 12th grade or higher level.

The small amount of written material tested by this researcher also supports this point. Therefore, it is neither rational nor practical to accept anything less than an 11th grade functional literacy level for criminal justice recruits.

Lowering standards just to graduate students from our educational system is counterproductive to the profession. Even though the concept of functional literacy is complex and ambiguous, a standard must be set, even in the face of possible civil ramifications. In short, we have to address the illness of illiteracy and stop treating the symptoms.

As a result of this study I would recommend:

A minimum 11th grade functional literacy level should be adopted for entry level law enforcement and correctional officers.

Agencies have two testing options available to them to identify applicants lacking basic skill performance.

Option #1. Adopt a test such as the National Police Officer Selection Test or that of Wollack & Associates based on a job tasks analysis. (Note: A job tasks analysis for the agency should be checked against the one used to develop the "off the shelf" test.) This test would eliminate the applicant if he/she fails to meet the minimum standard. The failed applicant should be referred to a remedial education center/program. The failed applicant should be allowed to retest within a specified period of time.

Option #2. At the time of application, administer The Adult Basic Education test. (Note: This test is widely accepted in the state and is approved by the Florida Department of

Education. It is also the test most widely administered by the state's Criminal Justice Training Centers.) The test would identify the applicant's functional literacy level. Test results could be used in two ways:

a)   As a selection tool. One applicant testing higher than another equally qualified may be selected over the one with the lower score.

b)   As a threshold for elimination. If the applicant did not achieve a minimum (11th grade) literacy level, he/she would be eliminated from further employment consideration. The failed applicant should be referred to a remedial education center/program. The failed applicant should be allowed to retest within a specified period of time.

Option one is the more defensible of the two. It would be based on a study of basic skills needed to perform the essential job tasks. It also more closely mirrors the standard of job testing set by the Americans With Disabilities Act.

The Florida Criminal Justice Standards and Training Commission sets minimum standards for certification, including a basic literacy skill level for entry criminal justice practitioners. Agencies should adopt higher standards.

As we near the end of the 20th century, technological changes are ever increasing in number and frequency of occurrence. One needs good literacy skills just to keep pace with these changes. As public agencies we can no longer afford to lag behind technologically driven changes. The cost in dollars and productivity is too great now and intolerable in the future. Individuals with acceptable functional literacy skills are needed for us to fulfill our social obligation into the next century. The criminal justice system must become partners with the educational system and help it to produce graduates with the literacy skills needed by the criminal justice community and society.

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